

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF STANCE-TAKING AND IDENTITY CONSTRUCTION IN LECTURER-STUDENT INTERACTION

Rami Maher Delli

University of Malaya

Francisco Perlas Dumanig

University of Hawaii at Hilo

Abstract: *During a consultation at the postgraduate level, interactions between lecturer and student are essential in completing a thesis or dissertation. In most interactions, both speakers tend to construct their identities with their stance. Consequently, this paper examines how the postgraduate lecturers and students take a stance and construct their identities in lecturer-student interaction. Moreover, it explores the pedagogical implications of conversational stance and identity construction. This study combined the Stance Triangle and Stance Marker as a theoretical framework to analyze the construction of identity between lecturers and students and employed conversation analysis as an approach in the data analysis. Ten conversations between lecturer and postgraduate students during consultations were examined. The findings of the study reveal that attitudinal, deontic, epistemic, and textual stance markers are frequently used and linked to how they construct their identities. Results further show that lecturers position themselves as mentors, experts, counselors, and leaders, while the students position themselves as mentees, non-experts, counselees, and followers. Such diverse identities may impact the lecturer-student relationship and students' academic performance. In addition, it provides opportunities for lecturers to enhance their supervisory skills and strategies and develop better classroom interaction.*

Keywords: *Stance-taking, Stance triangle, lecturer-student relationship, classroom interaction, Identity Construction, Stance marker*

Introduction

Many postgraduate students nowadays struggle to graduate on time due to difficulties in completing their theses. Students are often confused about what they are doing and feel that they do not have the full support from their lecturers, who serve as thesis supervisors. Such perception towards the lecturers as less supportive can be traced from their interactions with their students during research consultations. Studies show that a school environment that is less supportive and has disagreement and conflict between lecturers and students hinders academic success and contributes to students' mental health issues (Corcelles et al., 2019; Leveque et al., 2017; Holbrook et al., 2014). On the other hand, any supportive supervision results in less emotional exhaustion to students (Devine & Hunter, 2017).

Lecturer-student interaction is significant because it impacts their relationship and becomes a basis for measuring the students' academic success. The academic relationship between the lecturer and student is not different from any relationships because it is characterized by many challenges and

a Correspondence can be directed to: fdumanig@hawaii.edu

requires mutual understanding to succeed. In graduate school, an excellent academic relationship between the lecturer and student enhances the students' performance and helps them complete the thesis on time. Therefore, choosing lecturers or supervisors where students can establish a good relationship is vital towards success (Burton & Steane 2004). However, a tense relationship between lecturers and students can be stressful, resulting in a delay in completing the thesis.

According to Masembe and Nakabugo (2004), lecturers and students should know their respective roles to maintain a good relationship. Some studies reveal that graduate students did not succeed or failed because of their bad relationships with their lecturers (Burton & Steane, 2004; Masembe & Nakabugo, 2004; Muller et al., 2001). Bowlby and Ainsworth argued that students develop a sense of security and stability because of their relationship and attachment to their teachers (Bretherton, 1992). This leads to the idea of the attachment theory that is labeled as "homeostatic" because it controls the distance of emotions, sense of security, and sense stability where both teacher and student stay close to each other to support learning (Riley, 2010).

It is evident that the academic relationship between lecturers and students influences success. Such success is achieved through better interaction or communication and understanding the interactional stance and identity they construct. The identity constructed by the lecturer and student is also dependent on how they position themselves during their interaction. This study examines the use of stance-taking in lecturer-student conversation and the construction of identity in an interaction. Consequently, this study provides some pedagogical implications in supervising graduate students in universities.

Stance Taking

Stance taking is slowly gaining popularity in some education research (Dumanig, 2021; Kafes, 2018; Mainhard et al., 2009). For many years, researchers have explored stance taking as a research approach, resulting in an increasing number of studies (Englebertson 2007; Wu 2004; Kärkkäinen 2003; Gardner 2001; Hunston & Thompson 2000). Foregrounding the concept of stance will help elucidate the notion of stance taking. Biber and Finegan (1989, p. 124) argued that stance is "the lexical and grammatical expression of attitudes, feelings, judgments or commitment concerning the propositional content of a message." These characteristics of stance assert and highlight its subjective and evaluative nature. This means that there is a clear form-meaning relationship, and it is located in form, i.e., in the lexical and grammatical expression.

Kiesling (2009, p.172) emphasized the two types of stance, such as "epistemic stance (commitment) and attitudinal stance (judgments, attitudes, and feelings)." The epistemic stance refers to the interlocutors' commitment to their talk, e.g., the speakers' certainty level about their assertions. In contrast, attitudinal stance refers to the speaker's expressions that reveal their relationship, e.g., friendly or bossy. However, the epistemic and attitudinal stances are related and may occur simultaneously (Kirkham 2011).

Many scholars view stance differently, resulting in various definitions of stance. Myers (2010) explained that the stance has a broader scope, and it covers many linguistics approaches, like modality, evidentiality, politeness, evaluation, hedging, or metadiscourse.

On the other hand, Du Bois (2007, p. 220) viewed stance as "a public act by a social actor, achieved dialogically through overt communicative means, of simultaneously evaluating objects, positioning subjects, and aligning with other subjects, concerning any salient dimensions of the sociocultural field." Du Bois's definition of stance highlights the viewpoints of the speaker. This means that when taking a stance, speakers always present their attitude, evaluation, judgment, and viewpoints towards the proposition and to whom they interact (Johnstone, 2007; 2006). Stance takers reveal their relationship to what they say, involving their intensity, friendliness, degree of certainty, and personal feeling (Reza & Paria 2012; Johnstone 2009).

In the academic setting, stance-taking is a crucial skill that students must achieve to succeed academically (Zhang & Zhang, 2021). linuma (2015) and Rismark & Solvberg (2011) argue that any

academic setting functions as a place to share new thoughts, knowledge, beliefs and build common grounds. In addition, it is a place where the teachers can facilitate learners' knowledge and encourage an exchange of personal views and opinions (Abrar, 2020). In addition, stance-taking will help the teachers assess the students' certainty of knowledge on a particular subject (Abrar, 2020).

The occurrence of stance taking in an academic discourse happens in the classroom and in students' writing. Studies show that many students effectively establish critical evaluation, reader solidarity, and persuasive argumentation when they take a stance in their writing. However, other studies also argued that second language learners of English encounter difficulties in stance-taking (Lee & Deakin, 2016). Dumanig (2021) claimed that students' success in argumentative essay writing depends on students' ability to take and support their stance. Stance taking either in spoken or written discourses is directly observed and noticed through stance markers.

The stance markers can index stance. According to Xu and Long (2008, p. 3), "stance markers are similar to linguistic signs by which the information conveyed in the propositions or events are often coded, with some devices functioning primarily, but not necessarily, for an objective description of the world, and others for the language user's self-expression." Stance markers are classified into four types: attitudinal, deontic, epistemic, and textual, which are discussed in the following sections of this paper (Xu & Long 2008).

Stance-taking is vital in many academic interactions, and such a stance signals the identity constructed by the speakers. In every interaction, the speaker's stance is also seen as identity construction (Johnstone 2007; Kärkkäinen, 2006). This means that when interlocutors interact, they take a stance and at the same time co-construct their identities. "Speakers do not focus much on actions or events during conversations, but they show their identities, express their emotions and attitudes, and discuss their views about the world" (Thompson & Hopper 2001, p. 28). Consequently, speakers tend to construct multiple identities when they take a stance. Multiple identities are always expected since identity is not static and is co-created by two interlocutors. "Every individual creates and displays an identity that is claimed, created, and expressed in conversation through the act of performance" (Johnstone 2007, p. 30).

In many academic interactions, studies show that the identity that students and teachers construct is realized through their stance (Abrar, 2020). Consequently, both teachers and students have the tendency to take a different stance and multiple identities. The dynamics of teacher-student interactions result in multiple identities, showing the fundamental nature of identity that is fluid and not fixed (Abrar, 2020).

Du Bois (2002, p.220) argued that "stance taking includes some interacting linguistic features which mark the speaker's alignment in conversation and can be described as 'modus operandi' to construct identity." Bucholtz and Hall (2005) stated that linguistically stances could index identities. They argued that a frequent or repeated pattern of stance-taking of moves might emerge as an identity. It is necessary to highlight that a person occupies each subject position in the stance triangle. Through this, participants' interpretations of their stances are based on some background knowledge of the stance takers.

From the scholars' perspectives, it is evident that the construction of identity when taking a stance in conversation is associated with the roles that each interlocutor possesses. For example, lecturers and students have certain specific functions that are socially constructed.

To understand the notion of stance taking, it is essential to discuss the concepts of the Stance Triangle, Model of Stance Markers, and Conversation Analysis (CA). They are all employed in this study to analyze lecturer and student conversation.

Stance Triangle

The Stance Triangle explains how the lecturers and students position, evaluate and align themselves during consultation. It is a geometric model that visually represents the interrelations between three elements of stance taking. It asserts the dialogic and intersubjective nature of stance taking

by drawing attention to conversation participants' turn-by-turn negotiation of stance (Damari 2009, p. 18). The stance triangle consists of three different aspects: positioning, evaluation, and alignment (Du Bois, 2007). Positioning refers to the "act of situating a social actor concerning responsibility for stance and for invoking sociocultural value" (Du Bois 2007, p. 143). This means that the focus is on the stance taker. For example, when a speaker says, 'I am sad,' it shows that he is positioning himself as sad. The first person pronoun 'I' refers to the stance taker followed by a predicate that positions the speaker as sad. "Evaluation refers to the process whereby a stance taker orients to an object of stance and characterizes it as having some specific quality or value" (Du Bois, 2007). For instance, when a speaker says, 'that's great,' he states his evaluation on something. A stance, in this case, is oriented to give an evaluation about a specific target. This kind of evaluative target can be called the object of stance (Du Bois et al., 2003).

In comparison, alignment determines the relationship between two stances and implicitly between two stance takers (Du Bois, 2007). Alignment plays a vital role in the stance triangle. For instance, in a conversation, when a speaker says, 'I agree,' it means that the speaker (subject₂) aligns himself to the prior speaker (subject₁). This type of stance is different from position and evaluation because it is interactional. Therefore, when giving such utterance 'I agree,' the speaker aligns his stance concerning the other speaker. The alignment shows the agreement of the speaker with someone. By using the first-person point of view of the speaker, Du Bois (2007) gave a clear explanation of the mechanism of stance-taking, and he stated that when someone takes a stance, he evaluates something (object), and thereby positions himself, and thereby align with another stance taker. However, these three elements of stance taking, such as positioning, evaluation, and alignment, could explain stance taking and identity construction in interaction.

Stance triangle suggests that the three stance acts such as position, evaluation, and alignment are not separated types of stance, but they are simply different aspects of a single stance act (See Figure 1). These three elements are considered subsidiary acts of a single stance act, and these subsidiary acts differ from each other under their distinctive consequences. Therefore, the stance can be understood as three acts in one.

The stance triangle can be illustrated in Figure 1



Figure 1: Stance Triangle

Source: Du Bois (2007)

It is evident through interaction that stance-takers evaluate something (object) and position their identities because the subject in the stance triangle stands for the stance taker. In an interaction, the stance taker's interpretation of the stance taken somehow relies on his background knowledge (Damanig, 2009).

The Stance Triangle can be the most appropriate theory to explain how lecturers and students take a stance in an interaction. It provides a clear framework for examining stance-taking and the portrayal of identity among interlocutors.

Stance can be identified through the stance markers used by the speakers. Studies show that stance markers indicate that the speakers take a specific stance in conversation (Xu & Long 2008; Reza & Paria 2012). The occurrence of stance taking in every interaction is always signaled by the stance markers used by the interlocutors. Therefore, this paper also discusses the model of the stance markers as proposed by Xu and Long (2008).

Stance Markers

Stance markers are common and frequently occur in conversation, academic writing, news, and fiction (Biber et al., 1999). The concept of stance markers was proposed by Biber et al. (1999) and later developed by Xu and Long (2008). Consequently, stance markers are classified into four types: epistemic stance, deontic stance, attitudinal stance, and textual stance. Epistemic stance markers refer to the speaker's or writer's background knowledge, degree of certainty, uncertainty, precision, or actuality. However, they share the same function with an epistemic modality such as, I think, of course, etc. On the other hand, deontic stance markers refer to the writer's or speaker's position on obligation/ necessity. They show the speaker's or writer's stance towards the social knowledge of information obligation, responsibility, and permission (Xu & Long 2008, pp. 11-12). They share the same function with the deontic modality.

Attitudinal stance markers show the speaker's position and evaluation of emotion and personal feelings such as good, better, useful, etc. They have the same function as Hyland's attitudinal markers:

Attitude markers indicate the writer's affective, rather than epistemic, attitude to propositions, conveying surprise, agreement, importance, frustration, and so on, rather than commitment... By signaling an assumption of shared attitudes, values, and reactions to the material, writers both express a position and pull readers into a conspiracy of the agreement so that it can often be difficult to dispute these judgments. (Hyland 2005, pp. 108-109).

Finally, textual stance markers refer to the ways of organizing the conversation, which reflects the speaker's line of reasoning and involvement to convince the interlocutor. However, the appropriate use of textual stance markers will contribute to the speaker's argument for his ground and enhance the logicity and rationality of the interaction (Xu & Long 2008).

Such stance markers help identify and analyze the stance taken by the speakers in conversation. To have a comprehensive understanding of the mechanism of stance triangle theory, there is a need to explain the concept of conversation analysis as an approach since analyzing stance taking requires an understanding of turn-taking in conversation.

Conversation Analysis

Conversation Analysis (CA) is an approach to the study of talk in interaction, developed from ethnomethodological tradition and later developed further by Harold Garfinkel (Liddicoat 2007). The main objective of using CA as a framework is to describe the interaction's structure, sequential patterns, and orderliness. Furthermore, it highlights the significant role that language plays in the organization of talk and the logicity and rationality which underlie human practice (Sidnell 2010). Consequently, Schegloff (1979) identified talk-in-interaction as one of the topics of CA.

Using conversation analysis as an approach when analyzing stance taking requires understanding the concept of turn-taking and adjacency pairs in the conversation. Analyzing stance taking in conversation requires examining each turn and the adjacency pairs to see how the interlocutors take a stance and how they align with another interlocutor when they interact.

Turn-Taking

Turn-taking is an essential feature in conversation analysis that helps in the organization of talk. It is a process by which interactants allocate the right or obligation to participate in an interactional activity (Sacks, Schegloff & Jefferson 1974). It consists of the turn constructional and turn allocational components (Liddicoat 2007), which help understand how turn-taking works in conversation. The turn constructional component describes the basic unit known as turn constructional unit (TCU), a grammatical unit that can be a word, phrase, clause, or sentence (Liddicoat, 2007). It is context-sensitive, and any decision about what constitutes a TCU can only be made in the context.

However, a turn can be considered an allocation component if it describes how the participants in a conversation allocate the turns. In this context, the current speaker may select the next speaker using specific strategies such as using the pronoun “you,” mentioning a person’s name, and self-selecting the next speaker. In general, the turn allocational component in conversation may consist of three ordered options: the current speaker selects the next speaker, the next speaker self-selects as next, or the current speaker continues (Liddicoat, 2007).

Some linguistic devices are helpful in order not to take turns but still attend to the speaker’s message. According to Dumanig (2010), these linguistic markers or back-channeling devices like, *yeah, right, no, yes, sure, mm and ah-ha*, signal that the listener is paying attention to what the speaker is saying.

In this study, turn-taking is examined closely, particularly in analyzing the occurrence of stance-taking and identity construction. However, such an analysis in the conversation could not be comprehensive without considering the adjacency pairs.

Adjacency Pairs

Many turns of talk in a conversation occur in pairs like greeting- greeting, question-answer, or request-acceptance/rejection, and these paired utterances are called the adjacency pairs (Schegloff & Sacks 1973). According to Liddicoat (2007), adjacency pairs are the basic unit in a conversation where an organization or sequence of talk is built. Such pairs can be easily recognized because it has certain features. Liddicoat (2007) emphasized some features of adjacency pairs; it has two turns (turns are from different speakers), and it follows an order (pairs are differentiated into pair types).

It should be noted that the sequence of the pairs does not follow at all times in similar order because some insertions within the pair might occur. The insertion is called the insertion sequence, which can sometimes be a long stretch of talk.

In this paper, the adjacency pairs may help identify how the speakers align in the conversation when they take a stance. Alignment is best described when the pair of conversations are clear.

Method

This study used the qualitative approach in collecting and analyzing the data. The concepts of conversation analysis, particularly on turn-taking, adjacency pairs, and sequential order, were emphasized to analyze the data.

To carry out the study, five lecturers and ten postgraduate students from the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics at the University of Malaya participated in the study. Convenience sampling was used to select the lecturers as participants, although their qualifications and experience in supervising postgraduate students were also considered. Five (5) lecturers with Ph.D. degrees and

who had at least one year of supervisory experience with postgraduate students were selected. On the other hand, ten postgraduate students were selected as participants using the convenience sampling method. The participants were identified by the lecturers who provided the list of students to be contacted. Oral and written permissions were done to record their conversations with their lecturers. During the data collection, all the chosen participants (students) were currently taking their Masters's degree, either Master of English as a Second Language or Master's in Linguistics. The selected students were writing their proposals, while others had just started gathering and analyzing their data. None of them have completed their research yet.

The data collection was conducted for five months. This was conducted for the entire semester of Semester 2. Before recording the conversations, permission was made from the lecturers and the students. Both the lecturers and students were given a letter of consent to prove that they agreed to participate in the study before the conversation was recorded. All lecturers also agreed that conversations would be recorded in their offices during the schedule they provided for the data collection.

The conversations included in the study were limited only to a maximum of 45 minutes and a minimum of 10 minutes. Setting a minimum time for interaction is essential because the presence of the recorder and the observer may affect the participant. Therefore, the first 1 minute of conversation was not included in the data analysis to interact more naturally between the lecturer and student.

The data for this study were all spoken data and were transcribed using Du Bois' (1991) transcription convention. The conversations between lecturers and students were recorded using an audio recorder during research consultation. Ten (10) conversations were recorded, and all conversations were considered casual conversations during research consultations with a minimum of 10-minute to a maximum of 45 minute-conversation. The total duration of the ten conversations was 5 hours and 45 minutes.

After the transcription, the data were also shown to the participants (lecturers and students) to double-check whether there were parts of the conversations that they need to be deleted.

Results and Discussion

Stance Marker Used in Lecturer-Student Interaction

The findings of the study show that the epistemic stance marker has the highest frequency of occurrence, having 203 occurrences (33.28%) in the entire interaction between lecturer and student. A textual stance marker follows it with 183 occurrences (30%), then attitudinal stance with 151 occurrences (24.75%), and last the deontic stance with 73 occurrences (11.97%). Table 1 shows the summary of occurrences of stance markers in lecturer-student interaction.

Table 1. The Occurrence of Stance Markers in Lecturer-Student Interaction

ES	TS	AS	DS	Total
203 (33.28%)	183 (30%)	151 (24.75%)	73 (11.97%)	610 (100%)

ES – epistemic stance, DS – deontic stance, AS – attitudinal stance, TS – textual stance

Table 1 shows that epistemic stance markers frequently occur in the interaction. The frequent use of an epistemic stance indicates that when a lecturer and student interact, there is a certain level of formality in the interaction in which the discussion is based on the certainty and truthfulness of the message. This means that the epistemic stance is prominent in the interaction, which indicates the epistemic status between the lecturer and student. In most cases, lecturers are perceived as epistemic authorities by their students (Raviv et al., 2003)

On the other hand, the textual stance marker plays a vital role in the interaction. This is essential because every time a lecturer discusses to the student, clarity of the message is needed.

Since the lecturer's role is to guide the student, it is always expected that clear and logical messages are deemed to be important (Orakci, 2020).

Since lecturers and students must work together for a certain period until the research is finished, they need to maintain a good relationship. Such a relationship is observed through their interaction which is evident in the use of attitudinal stance. It shows that both interlocutors must emphasize their responsibilities and obligations to complete the research throughout the interaction. On the other hand, the use of a deontic stance is also important because it indicates the degree of necessity and obligation.

On the other hand, in lecturer-student interaction, the stages of interaction and the occurrence of stance markers provide a lead in identifying the stance taking by each interlocutor. Moreover, every stance taken signals the identity of the interlocutor. Detailed analysis and discussion on stance taking and identity construction are provided in the next section.

Stance-Taking and Identity of Lecturers and Students

The study reveals that lecturers and students take a stance in every interaction, which indexes certain identities constructed. Such identities are seen to have influenced the various turns in the entire conversation. The data show that lecturers and students construct multiple identities during their interaction and have impacted the lecturer-student relationship and students' academic success (Sakiz et al., 2012).

Mentor-Mentee Relationship

In the conversations recorded between lecturers and students, it is evident that lecturers construct particular identities as people who guide and advise the students about their research. Lecturers position themselves like counselors who start the conversation by asking their students about conceptualizing the research. In short, they are constructing an identity as a mentor as they start the conversation. Such identity is shown in Conversation 5.

On the other hand, students feel that they need someone to guide them as they start their research. As the conversation begins in lecturer-student interaction, students construct certain identities like a mentee. They provide their lecturers with the necessary information, including some issues in understanding their topics. Studies show that the lecturer-student relationship is a mutually reinforcing system, and it contributes to the quality of the relationship and results in higher student achievement (Hattie 2009; Hamre & Pianta, 2006).

When lecturers and students construct their identities as mentors and mentees, such identity construction is evident in how they take a stance in every conversation. Mentors and mentees try to make the conversation friendly and well-organized. This is why textual and attitudinal stance markers are often used when they start the conversation. However, as the conversation progresses, the stances of both interlocutors are enhanced through their alignment.

In conversation 5, the lecturer acts as a mentor by asking a few questions to the student. The conversation starts with a question in turn 3, "*What kind of project do you want to do?*" Such questioning indicates that the lecturer would like the student to think and give him an idea of what to research. However, it is evident in turn 3 that the lecturer could not figure out the topic, so the student says in turn 4 "*So: anything concerns syntax.*" Such a response indicates the student's limited understanding of the topic, and it also indicates that the student shows that he needs to be guided to come up with a topic about syntax. But the student tries to be coherent with the lecturer's utterance through the use of textual stance by saying "so..." and in the fifth turn, the lecturer said "ok..." which is an attitudinal stance marker that shows the solidarity. At the same time, it is a form of alignment to the stance taken in the previous utterance.

In both subjects, the lecturer and student align themselves through question and answer and using words like "ok" and "yeah."

Conversation 5

3. SL: What kind of project you want to do?
4. SS: So: anything concerns syntax
5. SL: O:k a:nd which exactly (0.1) you want to do, what kind of syntax? =
6. SL: Do you have any ↑ idea any ↓ plan for that?
7. SS: Um may be concerning the: X-bar theory, something related (0.1) the framework of X-bar theory
8. SL: Oh th- the X-bar theory only =
9. SS: Yeah, (0.1) or including thematic rule
10. SL: ↑ Semantic analysis .hhh
11. SS: Yeah, (0.1) theta role =
12. SL: Oh you want theta role
13. SS: Yeah

From conversations between lecturers and students as mentors and mentees, a schematic diagram is illustrated to show the use of stance-taking and identity construction.

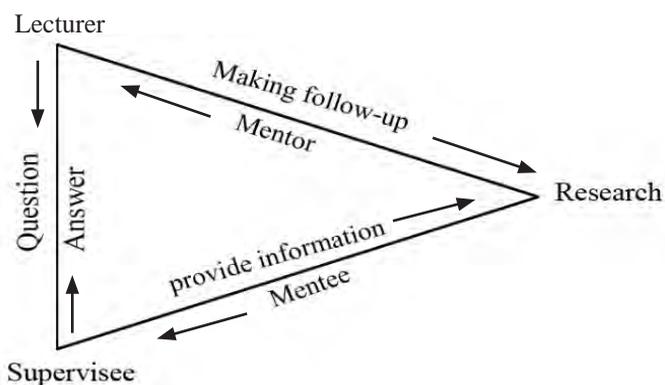


Figure 2. Stance Triangle: Lecturer as Mentor and Student as a Mentee

Expert-Non Expert Relationship

Lecturers are always concerned that their students understand their research entirely. Lecturers sometimes test to what extent the students know about their research. Consequently, lecturers tend to position themselves as experts who can critique and measure the students' understanding of the research. On the other hand, the students also position themselves as non-experts in research writing and try to show they do not yet have the expertise. This reflects that the teacher-centered approach views lecturers as the content dispensers (Keiler, 2018). Such identities become salient in the conversation as the interlocutors take a stance and align themselves in the conversation. Such identity construction is evident in Conversation 7.

In turn 39 of the conversation, the lecturer starts with the textual stance marker "so" to maintain the correct and logical flow of conversation, then he asks the student, "[so] ↑ how would you analyze the text from here?" The student replies in turn 40, saying, "it is in the exclusion part, right?" Furthermore, the lecturer answers in turn 41 using the epistemic stance, saying "Yeah [right]," which confirms the student's answer in turn 40. It is evident in turn 39 that the lecturer is testing the student's knowledge by evaluating the student's understanding of the proposal by asking about how he will analyze the text, which is evident in turn 41, "Yeah [right]." Saying "yeah," which is an epistemic stance, indicates that the lecturer has the knowledge and knows more than the student about the analysis. Such use of the Wh-question of epistemic stance marker shows the certainty of the lecturer's question in testing the student's knowledge.

Conversation 7

39. SL: ↑ [so] how would you analyze the text from here?
 40. SS: () it is in the exclusion part, right?
 41. SL: Yeah [right]
 42. SS: [you] ask [about the exclusion]
 43. SL: ↑ [so are you going] to analyze [using(0.2), label] this one as a nomination
 44. SS: ↑ [I'm going to analyze]
 45. SS: Yeah
 46. SL: Then [predication]
 47. SS: [because under] exc- under exclusion there is a suppression here like in the example I told you just now, is the government or the name of the government is suppressed or like hidden
 48. SL: Uhm
 49. SS: But the name could instead s- the families and relatives () people who died =
 50. SL: Do you have an idea of how to analyze this?
 51. SS: Yeah

From the conversations analyzed, a schematic figure has been formulated.

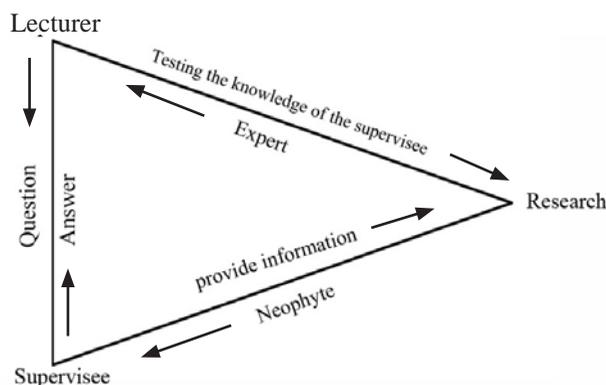


Figure 3. Stance Triangle: Lecturer as Expert and Student as Non-Experts

Counselor and Counselee Relationship

In conversation 4, the lecturer positions himself as a counselor who clarifies some issues encountered by the students. On the other hand, the student positions as counselee by inquiring to the lecturer on what to do in the chosen topic of research. It is essential that lecturers must provide assistance, support, and prevention of different problems that students encounter, by ensuring a favorable environment for the students' development (Dumitro, 2015). This is evident in turn 577 when the student says, "*Not every paragraph for three objectives?*" who tries to inquire for clarification and explanation from the lecturer. The lecturer replies with an epistemic stance, "*No*," in turn 578 instructing the student not to do so. Then he gives more explanations saying, "*No, no, it is too messy*." Furthermore, the student asks in turn 602, "*And should I: uhhh (0.1) add some questions to this questionnaire as [()]*". The lecturer again replies with an epistemic stance, "*Of course*," in turn 603, saying, "*[Of course] because this is uhh (0.1) may be easy*" such a reply shows that the clarification was given with certainty, so it will not bring confusion to the student.

It is also evident in the conversation that there is alignment between the student and lecturer. When both interlocutors reach the stage of agreeing on what they say, it shows that they align themselves. This alignment is evident in turns 577-578, 581-582, 597-598, and 602-603. Moreover, the lecturer and student reach certain agreements in the interaction in turns 598-600 and 605-606, which show alignment in conversation.

Conversation 4

577. SS: Not every paragraph for three objectives?
 578. SL: No, no, it is too messy
 579. SS: Uhm
 580. SL: Each paragraph (0.1) one [objective]
 581. SS: [Looking] for one objective
 582. SL: Yes
 583. SS: [O:h I didn't know, I] didn't know
 584. SL: [If you mix all together you mus-]
 585. SL: Yeah, because (0.1) ↑ some people like do like that but ha- you must be very professional
 586. SS: Uhm
 587. SL: You see, ↑ so do like this ha
 588. SS: Um
 589. SL: For each objective one paragraph
 590. SL: ↑ You can uhhh ↓ it is not problem, I I'm saying one paragraph (0.1) you might put two paragraphs
 591. SS: Uhm
 592. SL: For each objective, no problem
 593. SS: Oh ok
 594. SL: Paragraph one (0. 2) two: uhh, objective one-two paragraphs
 595. SS: Uha
 596. SL: Objective two one paragraph, no [problem]
 597. SS: [Uhhh I] design it like this
 598. SL: Yeah organize very [organized], ↑ till: the end =
 599. SS: [Organized]
 600. SS: = Uha ok
 601. SL: OK
 602. SS: And should I: uhhh (0.1) add some questions to this questionnaire as [()]?
 603. SL: [Of course] because this is uhh (0.1) maybe easy
 604. SS: Yes
 605. SL: = Because you have to put questions (0.1) related only to collocations
 606. SS: Yes

In the conversation, a schematic diagram is formulated.

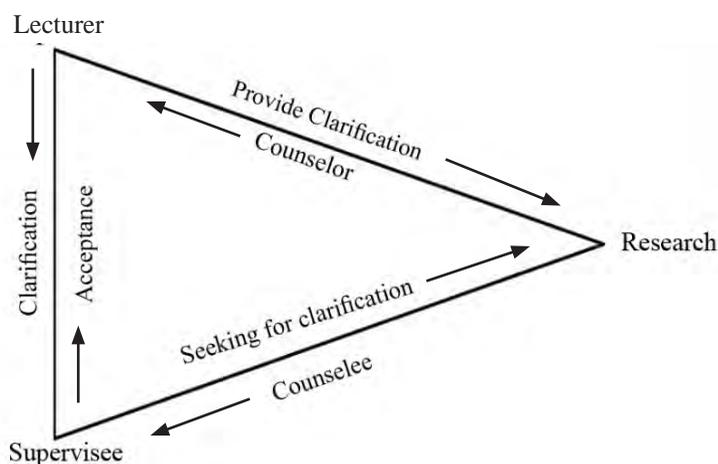


Figure 4. Stance Triangle: Lecturer as Counselor and Student as the Counselee

Leader and Follower Relationship

The interaction between lecturer and student, mainly when the lecturers give recommendations, shows that both construct specific identities like leaders and followers. Studies show that students as followers benefit a lot from their lecturers who take the lead to extend their boundaries and stretch their capabilities (Wattleton, 2000). Such identities are manifested through the stance that they take.

In conversation 5, the lecturer imposes what he must do when he goes back to the student. In turns 335 and 336, he says, “*So good if you have this idea (0.1) then while you’re going back there,*” and “*do what I’m telling you.*” Such utterance, in turn, 335 reflects the controlling attitude shown by the lecturer. Moreover, a firmer stance is taken in turn 336, reflecting the lecturer’s controlling identity. On the other hand, the student seems to follow what the lecturer recommends to do. The student’s response, in turn, 337, “*Ok,*” shows that he is constructing an identity that simply follows what the lecturer recommends. Such reactions from the student are also evident in turns 340 and 344. In turns 338, 339, 341, 342, and 343, the lecturer further constructs an identity that he controls.

Conversation 5

335. SL: So good if you have this idea (0.1) then while you’re going back there

336. SL: do what I’m telling you

337. SS: Ok

338. SL: ↑ Try to meet a farmer, but before meeting him ↓ try to set a few questions, (0.1) ↑ ten to fifteen questions .hhh about uhhh farm: activities, ok? =

339. SL: So you ask him and you have to record, (0.1) ok?

340. SS: Ok

341. SL: After that d- d- uhh you follow what I’m what I told you (0.1) at least you have ↓ data = ↓

342. SL: ↑ Once you are here when you register you have the data and you have (0.1) somehow experience in how to analyze the theta role from undergraduate and master level

343. SL: And then uhhh (0.1) of course later we’ll follow specific theories (0.1) because we have to go deeply (0.1) then we set three objectives (0.1), and that is it

344. SS: Ok

In the conversation, a schematic diagram is formulated.

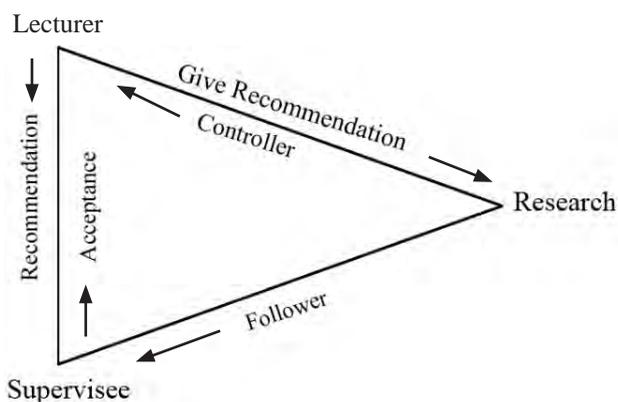


Figure 5. Stance Triangle: Lecturer as Controller and Student as a Follower

Pedagogical Implications

The data show that the use of stance markers in lecturers’ and students’ interactions brings success and failure in developing student-teacher relationships. Moxham et al. (2013) argued that good interpersonal relationships might impact the students’ academic progress and satisfaction. Therefore,

students' academic performance depends on the kind of relationship they establish with their teachers. Similarly, the quality of the teacher-student relationship affects the teachers' psychological needs and wellbeing (Klassen, Perry & Frenzel, 2012; Spilt, Koomen & Thijs, 2011).

The findings of the study reveal that frequent occurrence of epistemic stance markers during interaction reflects that lecturers and students are particular about the certainty and truthfulness of information or events during the conversation. As a result, lecturers are always perceived positively as epistemic authorities (Raviv et al., 2003). Having epistemic power in the classroom allows the lecturers to efficiently manage the class and able to increase their influence on students.

It is also evident that lecturer-student interaction varies depending on the context where the interaction occurs. In most instances, academic interactions are more formal, although they can also be informal in some contexts. The findings of the study show that the formality and informality of conversations are evident through the occurrence of textual and attitudinal stance markers. The use of textual stance markers indicates a higher level of formality in conversation, which is less likely to be found in an informal setting. On the other hand, the attitudinal stance markers are commonly used when conversations become more personal which are typically informal.

However, it is also evident that when lecturers and students interact, they portray cooperative identities from beginning to end. The construction of such identities helps facilitate a successful interaction and maintain a good relationship between the students and lecturers (Hattie 2009; Hamre & Pianta, 2006). The findings of the study show no occurrence of arguments between lecturers and students, and they tend to converge since they always accept and respect their viewpoints. Campbell (2003) found that teachers who are compassionate, committed, fair, kind, patient, respectful, understanding, trustworthy, caring, warm, and supportive embody these ethical principles and virtues based on professional ethics of teaching.

Based on the conversations recorded in this study, postgraduate students in the Master's program did not argue with their lecturers, and they simply accepted and agreed with their lecturer's views, comments, and suggestions. These findings confirm with Tracey, Ellickson, and Sherry (1989), who explained that neophyte students who are not well-experienced researchers seem to follow their lecturers, prefer more structured supervision and tend to be cooperative. Studies reveal that positive, warm, and supportive teacher-student relationships have been associated with successful classroom management, effective teaching, and greater student achievement (Wubbels et al., 2015; Roorda et al., 2011; Kyriacou, 2009; Hattie, 2009).

The identities that emerge from the interaction between the lecturer and student explain the importance of stance-taking. This means that in an interaction, both interlocutors must be sensitive to the stance being taken because it signals the identities of both speakers. When identities become salient, speakers have somehow influenced the way they react or respond to a situation. For instance, when the lecturer becomes demanding and controlling, then it may limit the students' responses. Such relationships can be perceived by students as disrespectful, inconsistent, untrustworthy, and unfair (Power et al., 2018; Krane et al., 2017). Thornberg et al. (2020) suggested that in order to be successful, students stated that they require a supportive, friendly, calm, emotionally safe classroom in which they would feel welcomed and included. Consequently, students become just followers and hesitant to present their research arguments.

Stance-taking and identity construction in lecturer-student interaction provides a clear platform for improving the relationship in an academic interaction. This also can be applied in various academic contexts where teachers and students frequently interact in class. In the classroom, teachers tend to take a stance to show command control while maintaining an ideal relationship with the students. On the other hand, the students take a stance to show respect to the teachers. Teachers and students tend to construct a multitude of identities as they take a stance in classroom interaction to enhance the student-teacher relationship and facilitate better teaching and learning. The positive outcomes of lecturer or teacher-student relationships support the notion highlighted in the attachment theory that when students develop confidence when interacting with teachers, they improve their academic performance (Mustary, 2018).

The multiple identities constructed particularly in the classroom provide opportunities for interactions. Abrar (2020) argued that diverse identities might indicate that classroom interaction is reasonably communicative and dynamic. A communicative approach in education is student-centered and encourages students to be more active learners (Eekelen, Boshuizen, & Vermunt, 2005). Consequently, students' relationships with teachers result in positive and long-lasting implications for students' academic, social, and emotional development (Kaufman & Sandilos, 2010).

The findings of the current study reflect the importance of teacher-student interactions inside or outside the classroom to enhance better learning, a conducive learning atmosphere, and excellent teacher-student relationships. Although this study limits its data collection and analysis with the postgraduate students and thesis supervisors, this can be a basis for further research on stance-taking and identity construction in any classroom discourses in various levels of learners.

References

- Abrar, M. (2020). Stance taking and identity in classroom interactions: A small scale study. *Parole: Journal of Linguistics and Education*, 10 (1), pp. 22-35. <https://doi.org/10.14710/parole.v10i1.22-35>
- Biber, D., & Finegan, E. (1989). Styles of stance in English: Lexical and grammatical marking of evidentiality and affect. *Text- Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse* 9(1), pp. 93–124. <https://doi.org/10.1515/text.1.1989.9.1.93>
- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *The Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. London: Longman. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0075424202250290>
- Bretherton, I. (1992). The origins of attachment theory: John Bowlby and Mary Ainsworth. *Developmental Psychology*, 28, pp. 759–775.
- Bucholtz, M., & Hall, K. (2005). Identity and interaction: A sociocultural, linguistic approach. *Discourse Studies* 7(4-5), pp. 585–614. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445605054407>
- Burton, S., & Steane, P. (2004). *Surviving your Thesis*. London: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203299975>
- Campbell, E. (2003). *The Ethical Teacher*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Corcelles, M., Cano M., Liesa E., Gonnzáles-Ocampo G., & Castelló, M. (2019). Positive and negative experiences related to doctoral study conditions. *Higher Education Research and Development*. 38(5), pp. 922–939. doi: 10.1080/07294360.2019.1602596
- Damari, R.R. (2009). Stancetaking as identity work: Attributed, accreted, and adjusted stances taken by an intercultural couple. *Georgetown Working Papers in Language, Discourse, and Society*, 3, pp. 18–37.
- Devine, K., & Hunter, K. H. (2017). Ph.D. student emotional exhaustion: the role of supportive supervision and self-presentation behaviours. *Innovation in Education and Teaching International*, 54(4), pp. 335–344.
- Du Bois, J.W. (1991). Transcription design principles for spoken discourse research. *Pragmatics* 1(1), pp.71- 106. <https://doi.org/10.1075/prag.1.1.04boi>
- Du Bois, J.W. (2002). *Stance and Consequence*. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Anthropological Association, New Orleans.
- Du Bois, J.W. (2007). The stance triangle. In R. Englebretson (ed). *Stancetaking in Discourse: Subjectivity, Evaluation, Interaction*. Amsterdam: Benjamins, pp. 139-182. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.164.07du>
- Du Bois, J.W., Chafe, W.L., Meyer, C. & Thompson, S.A. (2003). *Santa Barbara Corpus of Spoken American English*, CD, Part 1. Philadelphia: Linguistic Data Consortium.
- Dumanig, F. (2010). *Language Choice in Interracial Marriages: The Case of Filipino Malaysian Couples*. Boca Raton: Dissertation.com.

- Dumanig, F. (2021). *Analysis of Students' Stancetaking in an Argumentative Essay*. Presented at the University of Hawaii's First-year Writing Symposium, Hawaii.
- Dumitro, G. (2015). Teacher's role as a counsellor. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 180, pp.1080 – 1085. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.02.211
- Eekelen, I.M.V., Boshuizen, H.P. & Vermunt, J.D., (2005). Self-regulation in higher education teacher learning. *Higher Education*, 50(3), pp.447-471. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-004-6362-0>
- Englebretson, R. (2007). Stancetaking in discourse. In Englebretson, R. (ed.), *Stancetaking in Discourse: Subjectivity in Interaction*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 1-25. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.164.02eng>
- Gardner, R. (2001). *When Listeners Talk: Response Tokens and Listener Stance*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.92>
- Hamre, B., & Pianta, R. C. (2006). Student-teacher relationships. In G. Bear & K. M. Minke (Eds.), *Children's Needs III: Development, prevention, and intervention*, pp. 59–72. Bethesda, MD: NASP.
- Hattie, J. (2009). *Visible Learning*. New York: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203887332>
- Holbrook, A., Shaw, K., Scevak, J., Bourke, S., Cantwell, R., & Budd, J. (2014). Ph.D. candidate expectations: exploring mismatch with experience. *International Journal of Doctoral Studies*. 9, pp.329–346. <https://doi.org/10.28945/2078>
- Hunston, S., & Thompson, G. (eds.) (2000). *Evaluation in Text: Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse, *Discourse Studies*. 7(2), 173-192. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445605050365>
- Iinuma, M. (2015). *Learning and Teaching with Technology in the Knowledge Society: New literacy, collaboration and digital content*. Singapore: Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-0144-4>
- Johnstone, B. (2007). Linking identity and dialect through stance taking. In R. Englebretson (ed.), *Stancetaking in Discourse: Subjectivity in Interaction*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company, pp. 49-68. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.164.04joh>
- Johnstone, B. (2009). Stance, style, and linguistic individual. In: A. Jaffe (ed.) *Stance: Sociolinguistic Perspectives*. Oxford, U.K.: Oxford University Press, pp. 29- 52. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195331646.003.0002>
- Kafes, H. (2018). Stance in academic writing. *European Journal of Education Studies*, 4 (2), pp. 1-16.
- Kärkkäinen, E. (2003). *Epistemic stance in English conversation: A description of interactional functions, with a focus on think*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.115>
- Kärkkäinen, E. (2006). Stance taking in conversation: From subjectivity to intersubjectivity. *Text & Talk* 26 (6), pp. 699-731. <https://doi.org/10.1515/TEXT.2006.029>
- Kaufman, S., & Sandilos, L. (2010). *Improving Students' Relationships with Teachers to Provide Essential Supports for Learning*. Available at: <https://www.apa.org/education-career/k12/relationships> (Accessed 25 February 2022).
- Keiler, L.S. (2018). Teachers' roles and identities in student-centered classrooms. *International Journal of STEM Education*, 5(34). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40594-018-0131-6>
- Kiesling, S. (2009). Style as stance: stance as the explanation for patterns of sociolinguistic variation. In: A. Jaffe (ed.) *Stance: Sociolinguistic Perspectives*. Oxford: Blackwell, pp. 171-194. <https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195331646.003.0008>.
- Kirkham, S. (2011). Personal style and epistemic stance in classroom discussion. *Language and Literature* 20(3), pp. 207-217. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0963947011413505>
- Klassen, R. M., Perry, N. E., & Frenzel, A. C. (2012). Teachers' relatedness with students: An underemphasized component of teachers' basic psychological needs. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 104(1), pp. 150–165. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0026253>.

- Krane, V., Ness, O., Holter-Sorensen, N., Karlsson, B., & Binder, P.E. (2017). You Notice that There Is Something Positive about Going to School: How Teachers' Kindness Can Promote Positive Teacher-Student Relationships in Upper Secondary School. *International Journal of Adolescence and Youth*, 22 (4), pp. 377–389. doi:10.1080/02673843.2016.1202843.
- Kyriacou, C. (2009). *Effective Teaching in Schools: Theory and practice*. 3rd ed. Cheltenham: Nelson Thornes.
- Lee, J.J. & Deakin, L. (2016). Interactions in L1 and L2 undergraduate student writing: Interactional metadiscourse in successful and less-successful argumentative essays. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 33, pp. 21–34. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2016.06.004>
- Levecque K., Anseel F., De Beuckelaer A., Van der Heyden J., & Gisle L. (2017). Work organization and mental health problems in PhD students. *Research Policy*, 46(4), pp. 868–879. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.respol.2017.02.008>
- Liddicoat, A.J. (2007). *Introduction to Conversation Analysis*. London: Continuum.
- Mainhard, T., van der Rijst, R., van Tartwijk, J. & Wubbels, T. (2009). A model for the supervisor–doctoral student relationship. *Higher Education*, 58, pp.359–373. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10734-009-9199-8>
- Masembe, C.S., & Nakabugo, M.G. (2004). *Supervisor-Supervisee Relationship: A Rose without Thorns?* Available at: <https://docplayer.net/33791028-Supervisor-supervisee-relationship-a-rose-without-thorns-c-s-masembe-and-mary-goretti-nakabugo-school-of-education-makerere-university.html> (Accessed 25 February 2022).
- Moxham L., Dwyer T., & Reid-Searl K. (2013). Articulating expectations for PhD candidature upon commencement: ensuring supervision/student' best fit'. *Journal of Higher Education Policy and Management*, 35(4), pp. 345–354. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1360080X.2013.812030>
- Muller, J., Kaunda, L., De Wet, J., & Mendelsohn, R. (2001). *The Lecturer-Student Relationship: A Report to GRAPRO by the Graduate Supervision Sub-Committee*, Cape Town: Graduate School of Humanities
- Mustary, M. (2018). *Theoretical Considerations Regarding the Connection Between Teacher-Student Relationship and Students' Academic Performance in Bangladesh*. https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324027842_Theoretical_considerations_regarding_the_connection_between_teacher-student_relationship_and_students'_academic_performance_in_Bangladesh/citation/download (Accessed 25 February 2022).
- Myers, G. (2010). Stance-taking and public discussion in blogs. *Critical Discourse Studies*, 7 (4), pp. 263-275. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17405904.2010.511832>
- Orakci, S. (2020). Postgraduate students' expectations of their lecturers. *The Qualitative Report*, 25(1), pp. 199-215. <https://doi.org/10.46743/2160-3715/2020.4010>
- Power, M. A., Graham, A., Fitzgerald, R., Thomas, N. & White, N. E. (2018). Wellbeing in schools: What do students tell us? *Australian Educational Researcher*, 45 (4), pp. 515–531. doi:10.1007/s13384-018-0273-z.
- Raviv, A., Bar-Tal, D., Biran, B., & Sela, Z. (2003). Teachers' epistemic authority: Perceptions of students and teachers. *Social Psychology of Education*, 6, pp. 17–42. <https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1021724727505>
- Reza, P., & Paria, K. (2012). Writers' stance-taking in EFL Articles: A Case of Persian, English and EFL Speakers. *Iranian EFL Journal*, 8(5), pp. 9-22.
- Riley, P. (2010). *Attachment Theory and the Teacher-Student Relationship: A practical guide for teachers, teacher educators and school leaders*. London: Routledge.
- Rismark, M., & Solvberg, A.M. (2011). Knowledge sharing in schools: A key to developing professional learning communities. *World Journal of Education*, 1(2), pp.150-160. <https://doi.org/10.5430/wje.v1n2p150>

- Roorda, D. L., Jak, S., Zee, M., Oort, F. J. & Koomen, H. M. Y. (2011). Affective teacher–student relationships and students’ engagement and achievement: A meta-analytic update and test of the mediating role of engagement. *School Psychology Review*, 46 (3), pp. 239–261. <https://doi.org/10.17105/SPR-2017-0035.V46-3>
- Sacks, H., Schegloff, E.A., & Jefferson, G. (1974). A simplest systematics for the organization of turn-taking for conversation. *Language*, 50 (4), pp. 696-735. <https://doi.org/10.1353/lan.1974.0010>
- Sakiz, G., Pape, S. J., & Hoy, A. W. (2012). Does perceived teacher affective support matter for middle school students in mathematics classrooms? *Journal of School Psychology*, 50(2), pp. 235-255. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jsp.2011.10.005>
- Schegloff, E.A. (1979). The relevance of repair to syntax-for-conversation. In T. Givon (ed.) *Syntax and Semantics 12: Discourse and Syntax*. New York: Academic Press, pp. 261-286. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004368897_012
- Schegloff, E.A., & Sacks, H. (1973). Opening up closings. *Semiotica*, 8, pp. 289-327. <https://doi.org/10.1515/semi.1973.8.4.289>
- Sidnell, J. (2010). *Conversation Analysis: An introduction*, Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell. <https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847692849-020>
- Spilt, J.L., Koomen, H.M.Y. & Thijs, J.T. (2011). Teacher wellbeing: The importance of teacher–student relationships. *Educational Psychology Review*, 23, pp.457–477. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-011-9170-y>
- Thompson, S.A., & Hopper, P. (2001). Transitivity, clause structure, and argument structure: evidence from the conversation. In: J. Bybee & P. Hopper (Eds.), *Frequency and the Emergence of Linguistic Structure*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 27-60. <https://doi.org/10.1075/tsl.45.03tho>
- Thornberg, R., Forsberg, C., Hammar Chiriac, E., & Bjereld, Y. (2020) Teacher–student relationship quality and student engagement: A sequential explanatory mixed-methods study. *Research Papers in Education*. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02671522.2020.1864772>
- Tracey, T.J., Ellickson, J.L & Sherry, P. (1989). Reactance in relation to different lecturer environments and counselor development. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 36(3), pp.336-344. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.36.3.336>
- Wattleton, F. (2000). *Leadership Strategies for Teachers*. New South Wales: SkyLight/Hawker Brownlow.
- Wu, R..J. (2004). *Stance in Talk: A conversation analysis of Mandarin final particles*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.117>
- Wubbels, T., Brekelmans, M., Brok, P. D., Wijsman, L. & van Tartwijk, J. (2015). Teacher–student relationships and classroom management. In E.T. Emmer & E.J. Sabornie (eds) *Handbook of Classroom Management*. New York: Routledge, pp. 363-386.
- Xu, J., & Long, M. (2008). *Comparing Stance in Chinese EFL learners’ English and Chinese Argumentative Essays of a Shared Topic*. Paper presented at the International Symposium on Using Corpora in Contrastive and Translation Studies, Zhejiang University, Hangzhou.
- Zhang, L., & Zhang, L.J. (2021). Fostering stance-taking as a sustainable goal in developing EFL students’ academic writing skills: Exploring the effects of explicit instruction on academic writing skills and stance deployment. *Sustainability*, 13(8). <https://doi.org/10.3390/su13084270>