CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

At the early beginning of the 21st century, researchers have started to explore stance taking as a research approach which resulted in an increasing number of studies at present (Englebertson, 2007:1; Gardner 2001; Hunston and Thompson 2000; Kärkkäinen 2003; Wu 2004). To understand the notion of stance taking, it is essential to foreground the concept of stance. According to Biber and Fineggan (1989:124) stance is "the lexical and grammatical expression of attitudes, feelings, judgments or commitment concerning the propositional content of a message." Such notion asserts and highlights the subjective and evaluative nature of stance. It entails a clear form-meaning relationship and it is located in form, i.e., in the lexical and grammatical expression.

The term stance literally means attitude, position of a standing, mental posture or point of view which refers analytically to people's different perspectives of an issue. Stance has two main types such as epistemic stance (commitment) and attitudinal stance or interpersonal stance (judgments, attitudes and feelings) (Kiesling, 2009). Epistemic stance is the interlocutors'commitment in relation to their talk, e.g. "how certain they are about their assertions", while attitudinal stance indicates "a person's expression of their relation to their interlocutors, e.g. friendly or dominating" (Kielsing, 2009: 172). However, epistemic stance and interpersonal stance are related and usually co-occur for instance, if someone is

patronizing (interpersonal) and at the same time certain about what he is saying (epistemic), which concurrently makes an evaluation about the recipient's knowledge (Kirkham, 2011). Stance can be baffling in many ways according to the way in which it is used (Englebretson, 2007).

The notion of stance is conceptualized differently from one scholar to another depending on the area that they deal with. As a result, scholars vary in their understanding of stance. Due to different perspectives about stance, Myers (2010) explained that stance has a wider scope and it covers many linguistics approaches, like modality, evidentiality, politeness, evaluation, hedging, or metadiscourse. This means that the concept of stance can be interpreted in many ways. Despite the various definitions of stance, this current study follows Du Bois' (2007) notion of stance and Xu and Long's (2008) stance markers which index the types of stance taking. The reason for choosing Du Bois' notion of stance in this study is the dialogical nature of the data which focuses in conversations.

According to Du Bois (2007: 220) stance is "a public act by a social actor, achieved dialogically through overt communicative means, simultaneously evaluating objects, positioning subjects and aligning with other subjects, with respect to any salient dimensions of the sociocultural field." Based on Du Bois'definition, it shows that stance emphasizes the point of views of the speaker. When taking stance in an interaction, speakers present their viewpoints, evaluation, judgment and attitude towards the proposition and to whom they interact. In fact, stance takers reveal their relationship to what they say involving their

intensity, friendliness, degree of certainty and personal feelings (Johnstone, 2009; Reza and Paria, 2012).

Stance is indexed by the stance markers. According to Xu and Long (2008: 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 fourtypes such as epistemic stance, deontic stance, attitudinal stance, and textual stance (Xu and Long, 2008).

Stance-taking also occurs in three levels such asphysical action, personal attitude/belief/evaluation, and social morality (Englebertson, 2007). However, all these levels usually overlap. Moreover, it is public since it is perceivable and interpretable by others. Stance can be dialogical and interactional in nature and it is constructed collaboratively between interlocutors or participants. On the other hand, it is indexical because it evokes aspects of the broader sociocultural framework or physical contexts in which it occurs. In addition, stance is consequential because taking a stance is actually leading to real consequences for the persons or institutions involved (Englebertson, 2007).

Scholars believe that stance involves certain linguistic features for emphasis like the use of modality (Taavitsainen, 2004; Hsieh, 2009). In most cases, stance-takers express their commitment to the information through the modal system of their language (Stubbs, 1986). Therefore when analyzing stance, modality plays an important role in order to

provide a deeper understanding of the stance-taker's message. It must be noted that modality describes how speakers or writers take up a position, express an opinion or point of view and make judgment (Droga and Humphery, 2002). Perkins (1983) identified the three types of modality such as the epistemic modality, which refers to the truth and beliefs of the utterance; deontic modality, which refers to the duties expressed in the utterance; and dynamic modality, which refers to the physical possibilities of human being. However, epistemic modality has become an important tool for analyzing the stance because it emphasizes on the truthfulness of the utterance (Hsieh, 2009). For Xu and Long (2008), epistemic and deontic modalities have similar function with epistemic and deontic stance markers.

Stance-taking is common in many interactions and such stance signals the identity constructed by the speakers. The stance of the speaker in every interaction is also seen as a form of identity construction (Johnstone, 2007). This means that when interlocutors interact, they take stance and at the same time co-construct their identities. In fact, 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 and Hopper, 2001). Consequently, speakers tend to construct multiple identities when they take stance. Such 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). Such performance made by the speaker enhances the construction of identity. However, it is evident that the construction of identity when taking stance in conversation

is associated to the roles that each interlocutor possesses. For example, teachers and students or supervisors and supervisees are certain specific roles that are socially constructed.

Interaction between supervisor and supervisee is crucial because it influences their relationship and it defines the success of students' work or thesis. Supervisor-supervisee relationship is like any relationship, which is characterized by challenges and demands mutual understanding of the two parties in order to be successful and fruitful. Good relationship between the supervisor and supervisee may help to speed up the completion of a thesis. Therefore, choosing the right supervisor where a student can build good relationship is the first task of a supervisee (Burton and Steane, 2004). On the other hand, tense or bad relationship between the supervisor and supervisee will add more stress and pressure to the student, which might result to the delay of the thesis completion. However, maintaining a good relationship between the supervisor and supervisee can be a supervisor's role (Masembe and Nakabugo, 2004).

Studies show that most students particularly at the postgraduate level succeeded or failed due to their relationships with their supervisors (Burton and Steane 2004; Masembe and Nakabugo 2004; Muller et. al 2001). The success and failure in any interaction or communication is perhaps influenced by the supervisor-supervisee relationship and such relationship is defined by the roles and the identity that they construct. Such identity might be dependent on how both interlocutors position themselves in the conversation. It is

therefore the purpose of this study to examine the use of stance-taking in supervisor-supervisee conversation and the construction of identity in an interaction.

Stance Triangle, Model of Stance Markers and Conversation Analysis (CA) are employed as the analytical frameworks of the study when analyzing the conversation between the supervisor and supervisee.

1.2 Statement of the problem

It has been a problem in many universities and colleges where graduate students are stuck in their studies when they start writing their thesis. Studies show that the delay in completing the thesis or dissertation has always been associated to supervisor and supervisee relationship. Supervisees would claim that the delay is due to the problems they encountered with their supervisors. However, supervisors also put their blame to their supervisees for not being hard working, resourceful and cooperative in working their research.

Studies reveal that such issues are rooted from the interactions between supervisors and supervisees that eventually affect their relationship (Muller et. al 2001; Burton and Steane 2004; Hsu andTsai, 2006; Holloway et al., 1989; Nelson, 1997). During the interaction, supervisors and supervisees assert their roles and take stance in their conversation. Asserting roles and taking stance in conversation particularly between supervisors and supervisees may create either a positive output which enhances better relationship or negative output which results to misunderstanding and miscommunication

(Burton and Steane 2004; Hsu and Tsai, 2006; Chen and Bernstein, 2000; Quarto, 2002). Taking a stance in conversation is also a form of asserting the interlocutor's identity of who he/she is. In this case, both interlocutors are co-constructing their identities.

The issue in supervisor and supervisee conversation provides an interesting avenue to examine as to how stance taking occurs and how it influences the construction of certain identity or identities. Therefore, this study specifically explores stance-taking and identity construction of supervisors and supervisees in conversation among postgraduate students at the University of Malaya.

1.3 Research objectives

This study examines the stance-taking and identity construction in supervisors and supervisees' conversations. More specifically, this research aims to:

1. Identify the conversational structure and types of stance taking in supervisor-supervisee's interaction; and

2. Examine the identity constructed by supervisors and supervisees when taking a stance.

1.4 Research questions

This study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What are the stages in conversation or conversational structure in supervisor-supervisee interaction?

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2. What are the types of stance-taking used in each stage or conversational structure in supervisor-supervisee interaction?

3. What identity/identities that supervisors and supervisees construct when they take a stance in conversation?

1.5 Significance of the study

The study is seen to be significant because it explores the stages in supervisor-supervisee interaction and the types of stance-taking that supervisors and supervisees take and the use of stance-taking to construct their identities through interactions. Such stages, stance-taking and identity construction are seen to be influential in developing the relationship between supervisor and supervisee. In addition, this study provides clear explanation that taking a stance discloses the speaker's identity.

The findings of this study can be of help for both supervisors and supervisees to strengthen their relationships and to come up with a good output of the research work. Furthermore, this study may enlighten the supervisors and supervisees in taking a stance and use an appropriate type of stance-taking in various situations. This also provides some useful information how stance-taking could help in constructing different identities which eventually affect the supervisor-supervisee relationship.

This study also serves as a guide to supervisors and supervisees on how to deal with each other particularly during research consultation. Moreover, this will help the

postgraduate department of any higher learning institution to design policies and guidelines on supervision.

1.6 Scope and limitation of the study

This study focuses only on the occurrence of stance-taking and identity construction of supervisors and supervisees in conversations. More specifically, the study limits its scope on the use of epistemic stance, deontic stance, attitudinal stance and textual stance in conversation. The stance markers analyzed in this study are based on Xu and Long's (2008) model of stance markers, therefore, other patterns or types of stance are not included in the study. In terms of stance-taking and identity construction, this study used Du Bois' Stance Triangle. Therefore, the emphasis is on evaluation, positioning and alignment in interaction. This means that the data focus only on the recorded conversations,

1.7 Definition of Terms

1. **Stance-taking**: a public act by a social actor, achieved dialogically through overt communicative means, of simultaneously evaluating objects, positioning subjects, and aligning with other subjects, with respect to any salient dimensions of the sociocultural field (Du Bois, 2007: 220).

2. **Subjectivity:** refers to the phenomenon in which the speaker show his beliefs and attitudes in his utterances (Kärkkäinen, 2006).

3. **Positioning:** refers to the act of situating a social actor with respect to responsibility for stance and for invoking sociocultural value (Du Bois, 2007: 143).

4. **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).

5. **Alignment:** the act of calibrating the relationship between two stances and by implication between two stancetakers (Du Bois, 2007:144).

6. **Identity:** refers to people's concepts of who they are, of what sort of people they are, and how they relate to others (Hogg and Abrams 1988).

1.8 Conclusion

The chapter provides an overview on the rationale and general idea about the study.The statement of the problem, research objective and research questions are also included in the chapter to show the overall direction of the study. Towards the end of the chapter, the significance of the study, limitation and definition of terms are also discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the review of related studies on supervisors and supervisees' relationship, stance-taking, modality and identity. Previous and current studies of the aforementioned areas are discussed in detail and synthesized towards the end of the chapter to see the gap in the existing literature.

2.2 Supervisor - supervisee relationship

Before discussing the supervisor –supervisee relationship, there is a need to foreground the supervision process which can be helpful in understanding such relationship. Supervision is seen as a quintessentially interpersonal interaction which involves both supervisor and supervisee with the general aim that one person, the supervisor, meets with another to make the latter more effective (Hawkins and Shohet, 2006). However, such interaction between supervisor and supervisee is characterized by many challenges which eventually affect their relationship. This stage of thesis writing can be considered crucial for graduate students because it somehow affects the completion of their studies. In fact, the ever-increasing

number of students in the postgraduate has added more pressure on supervisor-supervisee relationship.

Many studies have been focused on how supervisors and supervisees interact with each other (Holloway, Freund, Gardner, Nelson, and Walker, 1989; Efstation, Patton, and Kardash, 1990; Ladany, Ellis, and Friedlander, 1999; Chen and Bernstein, 2000). Such studies put emphasis on the interaction between supervisors and supervisees from different perspectives such as complementarity (Chen and Bernstein, 2000), power and affiliation (Nelson, 1997) and power and involvement (Holloway et al., 1989). These studies as cited in Quarto (2002) suggested that interactions between supervisor and supervisee, which can be characterized by the degree by each participant through an interaction, display and respond to behaviors indicative of friendliness or hostility and power or submission.

Most studies in the past looked at the supervisory relationship as a one-on-one phenomenon, while in reality the supervisors usually have more than one supervisee at the same time (Baum, 2011). A study was conducted to examine the supervisory relationship among the supervisor and multiple students. The findings reveal that a majority of the supervisees perceived different treatments from their supervisors. It was also found that supervisors treat their supervisees in different ways and these differences affected the quality of supervisees' relationships towards the other supervisees (Baum, 2011). These findings may provide useful information to supervisors that they should be careful and sensitivity to their supervisees' behavior.

There are many factors that supervisors and supervisees usually face during the supervisory sessions which affect the process of supervision. This results to power dominance and control in supervision, working alliance, supervisory experience, and conflict which eventually affects the supervisor-supervisee relationship.

2.2.1 Power and control in supervision

Power and control are always present in supervisor-supervisee relationship. Mackinnon (2004) argued that using inappropriate power by one of the two parties will probably cause harm, which affects the supervisory relationship. In fact, power is linked with the level of experience that supervisee or supervisor has, which can be seen through interaction. However, the developmental level of supervisees (more experienced supervisees) influences the way supervisor and supervisee interact with each other. Despite the lack of optimal supervision environments, supervisors can help in promoting the growth and development of their supervisees (Stoltenberg and Delworth, 1987).

The study conducted by Muse-Burke, Ladany and Deck (2001) revealed that through the supervisory interactions that occur over the course of time, the supervisors and supervisees shared the power in terms of their level of competence and experience. However, the neophyte supervisees preferred to be structured and directed by their supervisors (Worthington and Roehlke, 1979). On the other hand, more experienced supervisees preferred to have a less structured supervision environment (Heppner & Roehlke, 1984).

Similarly, Ellis and Douce (1994) argued that less experienced supervisors have the tendency to act or behave in highly structured and controlling manner than well experienced supervisors. Despite the fact that supervisees expect their supervisors to be the expert, the neophyte supervisors (less experienced supervisors) tend to be more sensitive to the perceived threats of supervisees who are under their authority. Furthermore, Muse-Burke et al. (2001) pointed out that through consultation, the neophyte supervisors usually demand an interpersonal style and tough in doing their supervision in order to establish boundaries and have a space with their supervisees.

In a study conducted by Tracey, Ellickson, and Sherry (1989), they found out that through the consultations between supervisors and supervisees, neophyte supervisees, who have experienced writing thesis for the first time seemed to follow their supervisors and preferred to have a structured supervision regardless of the topic discussed. On the other hand, advanced and experienced supervisees are more positive and satisfied when the environment of supervision is less structured and their supervisors do not exert much control.

Studies show that the ways in which supervisors and their supervisees interact and behave with each other affect the quality of their relationships and influence their accomplishment in supervision. This means, working alliance is needed to reach the goal in completing the research.

2.2.2 Working alliance

The concept of working alliance is developed in 1975 by Bordin (Robinson, 2011). It stands for the degree to which the supervisor and supervisee cooperate to accomplish mutually agreed upon duties and goals in addition to the strength of their emotional bond. However, it has become a practice in many educational institutions of higher learning that an evaluation be made to both supervisor and supervisee. Burke et al. (1998) found out that the use of evaluation can weaken the relationship between the supervisor and supervisee. Although weak relationship exists but positive feelings have been reported by the supervisees about the sessions and the outcomes. Such scenario will tell that working alliance is an important element in the supervisory process.

According to Quarto (2002) working alliance is hypothesized to be a by-product of control and conflict and the way in which they are negotiated through supervision course. For instance, Chen and Bernstein (2000) found out that when there is a weaker working alliance between the supervision dyad, the supervisor and supervisee tended not to follow each other's lead when one of them came up with a topic or an issue for discussion (they do not complement each other consistently). Consequently, it results to greater conflicts in their relationship. This is similar to Tracey and Sherry's (1993) findings that supervisors and supervisees usually compete for relationship control when they are part of unsuccessful supervision dyads, which are evident by a greater preponderance of non-complementary interactions.

Cheon et al. (2009) explained that working alliance in the supervision is what really leads to the supervisee's satisfaction. They believe that through strong working alliance, supervisory relationship may work as a mediator for variables of environment, method, and context on the outcome of satisfaction. Similarly, Inman (2006) found that working alliance in the supervisory relationship worked as a positive mediator between supervisor multicultural competence and supervisee satisfaction. Such relationship creates a great positive influence on satisfaction when the supervision took place in a private practice setting more than in academia. They also found out that methodological and contextual variables did not have any effect on supervisee satisfaction. In fact, their findings confirmed Korinek and Kimball's (2003) findings that conflict in supervision process leads to dissatisfaction in the supervisor and supervisee relationship. Generally, satisfaction in the supervision can fulfill through strong working alliance.

2.2.3 Supervisory experience

Bad and good supervisory experience in supervision is the focus of many studies. Through supervision, a bad and good supervisory may exist simultaneously (Wulf and Nelson, 2000). Many studies conducted in the last two decades investigated the positive processes of supervision such as, good supervision, excellent, or ideal supervision, whereas the negative side of supervision has been neglected (Shanfield, Hetherly and Matthews, 2001; Worthen and McNeill, 1996; Carifio and Hess, 1987; Shanfield, Mohl, Matthews and Hetherly, 1992; Hutt, Scott and King, 1983; Shanfield, Matthews and Hetherly, 1993).

On the other hand, some studies examined the negative processes and experiences of supervision (Gray et al., 2001; Hutt et al., 1983). For example, Hsu and Tsai (2006: 216) proposed that there are seven categories which frequently occur in poor supervision, such as the supervisor's failure to follow the trainee's concerns, the supervisor's failure to give positive feedback, the supervisor's efforts to confront and to evaluate the trainee, the supervisor's insistence on the accuracy of his/her own assumptions, the supervisor's distortion of the intentions and the behaviors of the trainee, the supervisor's insistence on suggestions with which the trainee openly disagreed and the supervisor's failure to process the relationship issues.

Studies show that most poor supervisory behaviors do not occur once but in fact they occurr frequently during the entire supervisory process. Therefore, the drop out of most supervisees is a result of continuous conflictual events (Hsu and Tsai, 2006). This is the result when most supervisee's needs are not fulfilled throughout the interactions of poor supervisory. It is evident that in the supervisory sessions, failure of the supervisor in giving positive feedback or following the concerns of the supervisee instead supervisor keeps on evaluating and confronting the supervisee's ability and personality may result to poor supervision (Hsu and Tsai, 2006).

The absence of supportive interaction might result to conflicting relationship, this is what some researchers considered as the basic element in every successful supervisory relationship (Hutt et al., 1983; Allen et al., 1986; Strozier, Barnett-Queen and Bennett, 2000; Kennard et al., 1987). It must be noted that, the insistence of supervisor's own

opinion and assumptions can be considered as one of the poorest supervisory element that has been found in other studies. For instance, rejecting the supervisee's ideas and assumptions, however, insisting the supervisor's own ideas and persuading the supervisee to agree and follow the supervisor's opinion. Such scenario shows the power dominance of the supervisor and it is evident that the power struggle can be rooted in the interaction between supervisor and supervisee. Having such power struggle, there is a tendency that negative emotions can be exhibited by the supervisee towards the supervisor. It is therefore essential for supervisors to be careful when supervising and they must always establish better relationship to their supervisee in order to enhance better understanding.

In fact, Owen (2008) stated that having passionate supervision gives the supervisor and the supervisee more chances to develop their understanding about themselves. Supervision must have a meeting of minds and hearts, a coach and facilitator of adult learning.

2.2.4 Conflict in supervision

It is important to highlight how the aforementioned issues can lead to conflict between the supervisor and the supervisee which affect their relationship. For Korinek et al. (2003), conflict is an inevitable thing that happened between supervisors and supervisees. Conflict in any kind of relationship can be problematic. It can arise due to lack of working alliance, lack of experience, or misuse of power between the supervisor and the supervisee.

In fact, the idea of conflict can generate disturbance, dissonance, worry and discomfort (Korinek and Kimball 2003). Through a real conflict, these feelings can be more intense. Some researchers considered conflict as a struggle which usually occurs between two parties or more where the realization of goals and rewards are seen as incompatible (Hocker and Wilmot 1995; Korinek and Kimball 2003).

Moskowitz and Rupert (1983) as cited in Quarto (2002) found out that 38 % of the supervisees had experienced major conflict with their supervisors with regard to differences in the supervision style, personality clashes and theoretical approaches. The style and personality of the supervisor may sometimes be perceived negatively or positively by the supervisee. When supervisor becomes too demanding and strict in supervision, supervisee may perceive it as power control and may influence the way they think towards their supervisor.

Quarto (2002) found that the perception of supervisors and supervisees regarding control and conflict through consultations are distinct. Both supervisors and supervisees assert that sometimes supervisors control what occurs during supervision. This means that conflict is not a typical characteristic of the supervisory relationship but it occurs occasionally. Consequently, it indicates that supervisees have a wider vision of control than supervisors. Advanced supervisees are seemed to control more in supervision than less experienced supervisees. On the other hand, more experienced supervisors perceive a less amount of conflict than less experienced supervisors in supervisory relationship. However, maintaining a harmonious relationship between supervisor and supervisee is quite difficult especially if one of them fails to complement the behavior of another. Moreover, the ways

in which supervisors and supervisees interact with each other are usually affected by the topics discussed during consultation.

Similarly, Nelson and Friedlander (2001) found out that the reactions of some supervisees are actually based on lack of safety, extreme pressure and stress, lack of trust, and health problems. However, only a few number of supervisees had experienced continuing negative reactions. While, most of supervisees reported that the conflictual experience that they went through reinforced their sense of self. Moreover, they indicated that they got an unexpected positive outcome based on the validation they received from others as a function of learning to overcome with the conflict.

The fact that interaction can serve as a vehicle in minimizing conflict which may lead to satisfaction between the supervisors and supervisees (Cheon et al., 2009). It also evident that in achieving better relationship between supervisor and supervisee is based on the way they interact with each other.

One of the factors that must be taken into consideration that might affect the relationship between supervisor and supervisee is the stance taken by both interlocutors in an interaction. It is evident that when supervisors and supervisees interact, they usually take a stance which influences the way they perceive each other. It is therefore, important to discus the notion of stance- taking in conversation.

2.3 Stance-taking

One of the noticeable things in a discourse is stance-taking. It has the power to position social actors to objects, assign value to objects of interest, calibrate alignment between stance takers, and invoke presupposed systems of sociocultural value (Du Bois, 2007). It is considered to be "one of the most important things we do with words which is a linguistically articulated form of social action" (Du Bois 2007:139).

On the other hand, Haddington (2004: 101) considered stance as the subjective attitudes of the speaker to something. Therefore, stance-taking can be seen as dialogical and intersubjective activity. This is supported by Du Bois (2007) where he argued that stance is dialogical in nature. In this context, dialogicality focuses on the speaker's engagement with prior utterances and intersubjectivity focuses on the relation between the subjectivity of one speaker towards the subjectivity of others within a single interaction. The dialogic interaction between stances is captured in the presence of two stance taker positions in the stance triangle (see Section 3.2.1).

Subjectivity is an expression of self and the representation of a speaker's (more generally, a locutionary agent's) perspective or point of view in discourse—what has been called a speaker's imprint" (Finegan, 1995: 1). It also refers to the phenomenon in which the speakers show their beliefs and attitudes in their utterances (Kärkkäinen, 2006). However, subjectivity used to be the focus of some researchers for many decades and it was not a very precise notion in linguistic investigation (Traugott, 1989, 1995; Langacker 1990). Recently, subjectivity is seen to affect and influence too many aspects of language

structure than what has been expected in discourse-functional studies (Hopper 1991; Iwasaki 1993; Dahl 2000; Bybee and Hopper 2001; Scheibman, 2002). Many studies focus on the subjectivity and start to prove that the speaker's point of view or attitude is not only indicated by the grammatical categories like tense, mood, evidential, and modality, but even the everyday language use is actually subjective at most levels (Kärkkäinen, 2006). For instance, Kärkkäinen (2003) analyzed the combinations subject-verb of English that serve as epistemic fragments to show how the subjectivity and stance are indexed in American English conversations. Similarly, Wu (2004) in his study on Stance in Talk, he analyzed the clause-final particles in Mandarin conversation. He described how these final particles are used to indicate and mark epistemic stance.

Stance and subjectivity in naturally occurring conversations got the attention of many researchers and it became the main focus of some studies. Scheibman (2002) emphasized that speakers personalize their contributions to the discourse through subjectivity and the speaker's needs are shaped by the lexical and grammatical patterns.

Other scholars examined the interaction of speaker in conversation with prior stances, by focusing on structural parallelism (Du Bois 2007), resonance (Kärkkäinen 2006) and text-metricality (Agha 2007; Lempert 2008) while others on both systemic-functional linguistics and corpus linguistics which identified and described the lexis and grammar that serve as stance markers. They have contributed to the identification and description of these markers; in particular, 'adverbials' which had proven to be wide and rich source of various types of stance, such as: epistemic, attitudinal, and style (Downing

2002; Conrad and Biber 2000; Biber and Finegan, 1989; Biber and Finegan,1988). However, the modals of English grammar have been well-investigated and documented (Thompson and Hunston, 2000: 20–21), with regard to epistemic stance, or the degree of certainty or commitment of the speaker or writer.

Other studies reveal that stance taking which includes epistemic and interpersonal stance can be analyzed by looking at the linguistic structure of a text in written discourse and utterance in spoken discourse. Similarly, Ochs (1996) argued that:

"linguistic structures that index epistemic and affective stances are the basic linguistic resources for constructing/realizing social acts and social identities. Epistemic and affective stance has, then, an especially privileged role in the constitution of social life. This role may account in part for why stance is elaborately encoded in the grammars of many languages." (1996: 420)

Such claim was proven by Matoesian (2005) who conducted a study on the analysis of a focus group meeting of police officers and the findings show that stance is used to "index broader forms of socio-cultural knowledge embedded in the professional division of labor between academic trainers and police trainees" (169).

In another study, Conrad and Biber (2000) examined the adverbial marking of stance in speech and writing, they compared three broad registers: academic prose, conversation, and news reportage. They quantified and identified the occurrence of instances of each variable (academic prose, conversation and news reportage) in corpora which represented

the three registers. They came up with many findings, such as: marking of stance is more frequent in conversation than others, marking of epistemic stance in all three variables is more frequent than marking of interpersonal and style stance, the single adverbs in all registers are more frequent than other grammatical realizations, the prepositional phrases in academic prose are more frequent than in the other registers, in conversation the finite clauses and final position adverbials are more frequent than in the others, and in the academic prose and news reportage the pre-verbal and initial adverbials are more frequent than in conversation.

Some discourse analysts such as Gumperz (1982) and Ochs (1992) found out that "stance" is a very useful explanatory category which shows how particular linguistic choices in interaction accomplish particular rhetorical and social actions. Researchers drawing on traditions have started to examine and explore how stance-taking can be achieved through morphological, phonological, and lexical choices, and how such choices can accrete into stances which index cultural identities or meaningful styles (Kiesling 2005; Eckert 2000).

For many years, stance-taking has also gained interest to some interactional sociolinguists who examined how lexical choices among different languages and dialects can signal attitude and affiliation. Rampton (1995, 1999) in his study on Crossing: Language and Ethnicity among Adolescents, and Styling the 'other', found out that shifts from a speaker's "native" language or variety to and from one is clearly associated with

another group which leads to shifts in stance. It is evident from this study that stance can be studied by examining the linguistic choices of the speakers.

However, other scholars explore stance-taking in other aspects. For instance, Eckert (1989, 2000) suggested that the interactionist and variationist approaches to stance, identity, and phonology might be linked. The choice between variants is actually part of the semiotic activity in which social identities are constructed. However it is not simply a reflection of already-existing differentiation. For instance, using certain variants of vowels is one way of adopting a stance in local activity. This means that stance can be examined further by examining phonology.

In another study, Kiesling (2005) found out that there is a set of morpho-phonological features which co-occur in the English of the recent immigrants in Australia, who are working together to use the face-saving epistemic/ interactional stance of authoritative connection. For Kiesling (2005), these features are usually relevant to the subordinate group members since they use such features as a strategy. Moreover, the immigrants become used to such features and they repeatedly do it. Consequently, a repeatable styles emerge, which linked with their repeated social identities. However, Eckert (2000) and Kiesling (2005) in their studies explain how such linguistic variants through stance-taking can work as indexically linked to social identities. Some linguistic features existed in the sociolinguistic environment of the speakers can be used for stance-taking, At the same time, these sets of co-occurring stance taking features usually work together as styles which index their identities.

The study of stance-taking may not be taken as a single account particularly when analyzing discourses because it always goes with the presence of stance markers. It is evident that in most studies on stance-taking, stance markers are also taken into account. This means that stance-taking becomes prominent with the presence of stance markers. However, stance markers may sometimes appear as modals. Therefore, modality is seen to be helpful particularly in identifying the stance markers used by the speakers.

In the next Section, the notion of modality in relation to stance is discussed.

2.4 Modality

The word modality is derived from the Latin word 'modus' which means 'manner' or, 'measure' which is a vague notion and leaves a number of possible definitions (Palmer, 1986: 2). Modality can be defined as "the expression of the speaker's opinions about present likelihood or about obligation: (a) (narrowly) by means of a modal auxiliary verb; (b) (more widely) by using any of the linguistic means available" (ODEG: 1994). On the other hand, Palmer (2001) argued that modality is concerned with the statues of the proposition that describes the event. However, von Fintel (2006) stated that modality is a kind of linguistic meaning and necessity. Such various concepts have made modality an interesting area of research to explore.

Some scholars classified modality into different types. Crystal (1980) as cited in Zeena (2008) proposed that there are three types of modality such as epistemic, deontic, and alethic. Epistemic modality refers to the logical structure of the sentence, for example: 'the car must be ready'. On the other hand, deontic modality interprets the previous sentence as 'I oblige you to assure that the car is ready'. Whereas, alethic modality may interpret it as 'it follows that the car is ready'. This would mean that different types of modality will provide different specific information. In relation to Crystal's classification of modalirt, Perkins (1983) classified also modality into three different types such as; epistemic modality, deontic modality, and dynamic modality (which refers to the ability).

In another study, Dokulil (1954) classified modality into two types such as: subjective and objective. Subjective modality refers to speaker's relation to the content of the utterance, whereas objective refers to the relation between 'the content of the utterance and the reality'. Similarly, Finegan (1995:1) as cited in Kärkkäinen (2006) explains that subjectivity as expression of self and the representation of a speaker's (or, more generally, a locutionary agent's) perspective or point of view in discourse—what has been called a speaker's imprint. This means that subjectivity refers to the perspective and personal attitude of the speaker within the text of utterance, which according to Palmer (1986) as cited in Kärkkäinen (2003) as the essential criterion for modality.

However, this current study discusses in details only the epistemic and deontic modality since they share similar functions with the epistemic and deontic stance markers.

2.4.1 Epistemic modality as markers

The word epistemic is derived from the Greek word 'episteme' which means knowledge; it is concerned with matters of knowledge and belief (Lyons, 1977: 793). Epistemic modality is defined as "linguistic expressions that explicitly qualify the truth value of a propositional content" Vold (2006: 226). It is concerned with the reliability of the information conveyed and covers expressions of certainty and uncertainty. Epistemic modality can be the status of the proposition in terms of the speaker's commitment to it (Palmer, 1986). It can be a clausal-scope indicator of a speaker's commitment to the truth of a proposition (Bybee and Fleischman, 1995: 6).

Furthermore, Coates (1983) argued that in its most normal usage, epistemic must convey the speaker's confidence in the truth of what is said, based on a deduction from facts known to him. It is also identitfied that the modals 'may' and 'might' would refer to epistemic possibility, which express the speaker's lack of confidence in the proposition expressed.

Epistemic modality is concerned with matters of knowledge or belief of speakers who express their judgments about state of affairs, events or actions (Hoye 1997). This means epistemic modality may also refer to truth, beliefs and knowledge that shares some common features with evidentiality, which is the source of knowledge (Kärkkäinen,2003).

In an earlier work, Drubig (2001) argued that modals of epistemic modality have to be analyzed as evidential markers. However, the relationship between epistemic and evidentiality is seen to be problematic which led to a number of debates among scholars, which one is dominating the other. On the contrary, Kärkkäinen (2003) discussed these two notions from two different perspectives. According to Biber and Finegan (1989) evidentiality is dominating epistemic modality which means that epistemic modality comes under the evidentiality. On the other hand, Palmer (1986) stated that epistemic is super-ordinate evidentiality, therefore evidentiality comes under epistemic modality. While, Bybee et al (1994:180) as cited in Kärkkäinen (2003) argued that these two approaches are related to each other, the distinction between these two concepts is still unclear. However, there is no clear cut difference that shows which one comes under what, therefore understanding these concept may have a wide range depending on how scholars present the two notions. However, through epistemic modality, Kärkkäinen (2003) discusses the notion of subjectivity and she believes that subjectivity is the participation of evidentiality and epistemic modality. Consequently, this emphasizes the idea of Bybee about the fuzzy line that relates these two notions.

In other studies on modality, Hsieh (2009) stated that epistemic modality is an important tool for analyzing the stance since it emphasizes on the truthfulness of the utterance. Epistemic modality may refer to the speaker's assessment of probability and predictability. It is external to the content, being part of the attitude taken up by the speaker: his attitude, in this case, towards his own speech role as declarer (Halliday,

1970:349). However, epistemic modalities are considered as clausal-scope indicators since they show one's commitment to the truth of a proposition (Bybee and Fleischman, 1995).

Lyons (1977) as cited in Hsieh (2009:5) explained two essential types of epistemic modality. First is the speculative, which refers to the uncertainty, doubt or lack of confidence, like using the modal 'may' which indicates the probability. Second is the assertive, which refers to the certainty and necessity, like 'must' which connotes necessity without doubting. On the other hand, Halliday et al. (2004) emphasized that the use of modal expressions reflects the interpersonal function of language. However, in interaction the participants express their commitment to the truth of the exchanged information through adopting different roles.

Such various studies and debates on epistemic modality, they eventually provide clearer understanding on the notion of epistemic modality. Apart from epistemic modality, it is also important to discuss the notion of deontic modality.

2.4.2 Deontic modality as markers

Deontic modality refers to the necessity of acts in terms of which the speaker gives permission or lays an obligation for the performance of actions at some time in the future (Hoye 1997). It refers to the duties expressed in the utterance. It is derived from the Greek word 'dēon', which means 'that which is binding' (ODEE, 1966). Deontic modality according to Palmer (1974: 100-3) and Bybee et al. (1994: 179) is a speaker oriented

modality which includes directives, warnings, and permissions. It is also defined as "the necessity or possibility of acts performed by morally responsible agents" (Pietrandrea, 2005: 9). Dury (2006) as cited in Omar (2009: 12) argued that deontic modality is discourse-oriented since it refers to acts, unlike epistemic modality it refers to propositions.

Omar (2009) stated that deontic modality is linked with 'necessity' or 'possibility' of acts when the speaker lays an obligation or gives permission for the performance of actions at some point in the future, for example (a) You may open the door and (b) You must open the door. (Lyons, 1977: 832)

In the above examples, the first one (a) which is a form of giving permission can be interpreted as 'I hereby permit you to open the door', while in the second example (b), it is paraphrasable as 'I (hereby) impose upon you the obligation to open the door' (Lyons, 1977: 832, 840). Furthermore, deontic modality has two different characteristics such as cause and futurity which are seen clearly in the examples above. The cause usually stands for the speaker's utterance, but sometimes it stands for other person or institution to whose authority the speaker submits. Whereas, futurity always 'involves a reference to some future world-state' (Lyons, 1977. 824).

From the studies conducted, it is evident that stance markers can be derived from the modalities used by the speaker particularly in spoken data. Such stance markers which are closely related to modalities signal the speakers' stance in any communicative event. From this perspective, it is also important to note that when taking certain stance, the speaker/speakers somehow display certain identities. This identity construction occurs

when the speaker takes a stance through evaluation and positioning. Therefore, it is also essential to foreground the notion of identity in this research, which is discussed in the next section.

2.5 Identity

In recent years, identity was the main concern of many researchers, especially in social sciences and humanities disciplines (Smith 1991; Wendt 1992; Deng 1995; Katzenstein 1996; Thornborrow, 2004; Blommaert 2005). Identity is the sameness of a person or thing at all times or in all circumstances; the condition or fact that a person or thing is itself and not something else; individuality, personality (ODEG,1989). For Bucholtz and Hall (2005), identity is the social positioning of self and other. However, the notion of identity is still somehow seen as an enigma, despite the widely increased interest of so many researchers in identity. Although people know how to use the word identity in everyday discourse, it is still difficult to give an accurate summary to explain this notion since its use differs from one person to another.

Identity is defined as people's concepts of who they are, of what sort of people they are, and how they relate to others (Hogg and Abrams 1988). It gives people an understanding or idea about themselves of who they are and how they relate to each other. Identity marks the ways in which we share similarity with others who share the same position and different with others who do not. It refers to the ways in which individuals and

collectivities are distinguished in their social relations with other individuals and collectivities (Jenkins.1996).

Blommaert (2005) as cited in Dumanig et al. (2011) argued that identity is that who and what one is, depends on context, occasion and purpose. This means that the construction of identity in every human activity becomes part of everyday life. However, the daily rituals that involve the use of language happens in the way people interact with each other; the way they project themselves to others, the way people write and the way they dress and act. However, it must be noted that identity has to be enacted and performed in order to be socially salient (Blommaert, 2005). This means that identity must be recognized first by others in order to be established as an identity.

In another study, Du Bois (2002) 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: 585) stated that "identities may be linguistically indexed through…stances". They argued that a frequent or repeated pattern of stance taking of moves may 'emerge as an identity'. It is highlighted in the stance triangle (see Chapter 3) that each subject position is occupied by a person. In this, the interpretation of participants when they take stances are actually based on some background knowledge of the stancetakers. Consequently, the history of an actor influences the orientation of other social actors toward that actor. The question of who took which stance is perennially salient, is remembered over time, and counts as negotiable coin in the currency of reported discourse…in the broader calculus of social meaning (Du Bois 2007). However, this aspect has been addressed earlier in Bucholtz and Hall's (2005) work,

their framework for the analysis of language and identity was of great help in understanding in the development of turn-by-turn stance taking which can 'interact with larger-scale identity categories'. For them identity can actually be seen in interaction via dialogical processes. Whereas, Rauniomaa (2003) argued that the individual acts of stance-taking might compile to form pieces of an individual's identity.

It is evident that identity is manifested through one's talk or discourse, which can be individually or institutionally constructed. This means, identity is not only constructed individually but can also represent group identity (Thomas, et. al, 2004). Therefore, a speaker's identity may also represent the group or speech community that a speaker belongs to and is disclosed by cultural, linguistic, stylistic variations and by language choice.

Identity whether on an individual, social or institutional level is something that we constantly build and negotiate throughout our lives through our interaction with others (Thornborrow, 2004). Furthermore, speakers in one speech event may possibly create multiple identities since every speaker is concerned about how others may perceive him or her (Goffman, 1997).

One important aspect in studying identity construction is the speaker's speech community, which contributes in establishing the speaker's identity (Dumanig et al., 2011). Identity becomes recognizable through a speaker's use of the lexical items and manner of speaking. The term speech community is defined as the shared dimension related to the ways in which members of a group use, value, or interpret language (Saville-Troike, 2003).

Therefore, one's group and individual identity can be established within the speech community membership of a speaker.

Bailey et al. (1993) found out that in Texas the linguistic changes that spread from rural to urban settings usually include the reassertion of traditional speech norms, somehow it is considered as badges of local identity. For example, 'the monophthongization of /ay/ before voiceless obstruents, as in [raːt] for right'. Hazen (2000) as cited in Johnstone (2007) found that in formal speech, the people of North Carolina who have connection or link to cultural characteristics and institutions of other counties usually shift more toward standard-sounding pronunciation, whereas those with local identities are more consistent linguistically.

On the other hand, Englebretson (2007) argued that people sometimes use language to initiate personal or social identity categories to achieve specific goals. In addition, one of the ways in which a speaker "performs" or constructs identity can be achieved by packing utterances which index and reflect certain categories.

2.6 Conclusion

Studies on stance-taking, modality and identity construction have shown great importance in conversation. However, it is evident that previous studies do not put much emphasis on supervisors and supervisees interactions when taking stance. Therefore this study would

like to fill this gap and will examine the stance taking and identity construction of supervisors and supervisees' conversation.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter explains the methodological and analytical frameworks of the study. More specifically, it discusses the Stance Triangle as theoretical framework, conversation analysis as analytical framework, research design, participants, data, data gathering procedure and plan for analysis. The chapter provides a clear and detailed discussion on how the study was conducted.

3.2 Theoretical framework

Stance-taking means taking up a position with respect to the form or content of one's utterance, which is central because the speaker's position is built into the act of communication (Jaffe, 2009). Therefore, stance has a wider scope. When analyzing the stance it covers many linguistics approaches, like modality, evidentiality, politeness, evaluation, hedging, or metadiscourse (see Section 2.3). This means that the concept of stance can be interpreted in many ways (Myers, 2010). In order to understand comprehensively the concept of stance-taking, there is a need to examine closely the stance triangle theory and stance markers to provide clearer explanations on the occurrence of stance taking and identity construction in conversation.

3.2.1   Stance triangle

Stance Triangle is a geometric model that visually represents interrelations between three elements of stance-taking. The stance triangle emphasizes the dialogic and intersubjective nature of stance-taking by drawing attention to conversation participants' turn-by turn negotiation of stance (Damari, 2009: 18). According to Du Bois (2007: 165) stance triangle is a device used for attending to the structured interrelations among the acts and entities which comprise stance [and thus allow] participants and analysts, to draw inferences by triangulating from the explicit components of stance to the implicit. Stance triangle consists of three acts in one – a triune act. It consists of three different aspects, such as; positioning,

evaluation (which is also known as appraisal or assessment) and alignment (Du Bois, 2007). Positioning refers to the "act of situating a social actor with respect to responsibility for stance and for invoking sociocultural value" (Du Bois, 2007: 143). Which means that the focus is on the stance taker, whose position is usually formed by epistemic stance and interpersonal stance. For example, when a speaker says, "I am happy", it shows that the speaker is positioning that he is happy. In this example, the first person pronoun "I" which refers to the stance taker is followed by a predicate which positions the speaker as happy. On the other hand, 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 horrible" this means that he is stating his evaluation on something. The stance predicates the word "horrible" which is used to evaluate something. A stance in this case is oriented to give an evaluation about specific target. This kind of evaluative target can be called as the object of stance (Du Bois et al., 2000; Du Bois et al., 2003). Moreover, evaluation is the most salient and recognized aspect of stance-taking. In recent years, many researchers pay a considerable attention to evaluation (Lemke 1998; Thompson and Hunston 2000; Conrad and Biber 2000; Macken-Horarik and Martin 2003; Linde 1997; Labov and Waletzky, 1967). However, alignment is "the act of calibrating the relationship between two stances and by implication between two stancetakers" (Du Bois, 2007:144). Alignment plays an important role in the stance triangle. For instance, in a conversation when a speaker says, "I agree" it means that the speaker (subject$_2$) aligns himself to prior speaker (subject$_1$). In this example, the subject position "I" is followed by stance predicate which is "agree". This type of stance is different from position and evaluation because it is interactional. Therefore, when giving

such utterance 'I agree', the speaker aligns or defines his stance in relation to the other speaker. Alignment shows agreement of the speaker with someone. By using the first-person point of view of the speaker, Du Bois (2007: 163) gave a clear explanation on the mechanism of stance-taking and he stated that "I evaluate something, and thereby position myself, and thereby align with [respect to] you". However, these three elementsof stance-taking such as positioning, evaluation and alignment could explain the occurrence of 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 3.1). Therefore, stance can be understood as three acts in one. These three elements are considered as subsidiary acts of a single stance act and these subsidiary acts differ from each other by virtue of its own distinctive consequences. Therefore, in taking a stance, the stance taker positions as subject, evaluates an object and aligns with other subjects (Du Bois, 2002).

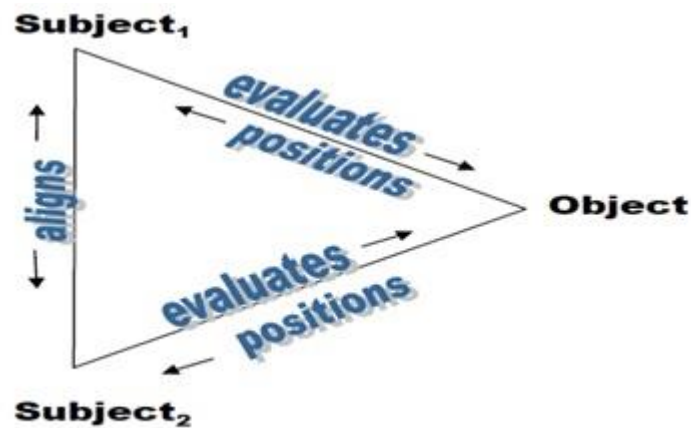The stance triangle can be illustrated in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Stance Triangle (Du Bois, 2002).

It is evident through interaction that stance-takers do not only give their evaluation about something (object), but they also position their identities because the subject in the stance triangle stands for the stance-taker. In an interaction, the interpretation of the stance which is taken by the stance-taker somehow relies on his background knowledge (Damari, 2009).

The Stance Triangle can be the most appropriate theory to explain how supervisors and supervisees take stance in an interaction. It provides a clear framework how to examine stance-taking and the construction of identity among interlocutors. The Triangle clearly states the three acts such as: positioning, evaluation and alignment which are essential in supervisor and supervisee's interaction.

Furthermore, stance-taking in both spoken and written text 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 and long, 2008; Reza and Paria, 2012). The occurrence of stance-taking in every interacton is always signalled by the stance

markers used by the interlocutors. Therefore, the following section discusses the model of the stance markers (See Section 3.2.2) as proposed by Xu and Long (2008).

3.2.2   Stance markers

Stance markers are important elements in indexing the types of stance-taking and in identifying the rhetorical organization of a text. According to Biber et al. (1999) that stance markers are common and accrued frequently in conversation, academic writing, news, and fiction. 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 such as: epistemic stance markers, deontic stance markers, attitudinal stance markers and textual stance markers.

Epistemic stance markers refer to the speaker's or writer's level of knowledge, and degree of certainty, uncertainty, precision, or actuality. However, they share the same function with epistemic modality such as, really, I think, of course etc. These stance markers are divided into three types such as 'certainty stance markers', 'evidentiality stance markers' and 'likehood stance markers (Xu and Long, 2008).

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 and Long, 2008: 11-12). They are divided into three types such as: 'necessity/obligation stance markers',

'permission/possibility/ability stance markers' and 'causation/effort stance markers (Xu and Long, 2008).

Attitudinal stance markers show the speaker's position and his evaluation on emotion and personal feeling such as good, better, useful, etc. They have the same function with 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 material, writers both express a position and pull readers into a conspiracy of agreement so that it can often be difficult to dispute these judgements" (Hyland, 2005: 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 speaker's argument for his ground and enhance the logicality and rationality of the interaction (Xu and Long, 2008).

Such types of stance markers may help in identifying and analyzing the stance-taking used by the speakers in conversation. To have a comprehensive understanding about 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 on turn-taking in conversation.

3.3 Conversation Analysis

Historically, Conversation Analysis (CA) is an approach to the study of talk in interaction, which was 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 structure, sequential patterns and orderliness of the interaction. Furthermore, it highlights the significant role that language plays in the organization of talk, and the logicality and rationality which underlie human practice (Sidnell, 2010). Consequently, Schegloff (1979) identified talk-in-interaction as one of the topics of CA. After a number of studies conducted, some researchers who used CA considered themselves as discourse analysts since CA has been identified as talk-in-interaction.

Influenced by ethnomethodology, conversation analysis emerged and developed in 1960s and in early 1970s with the collaboration of the sociologists Harvey Sacks, Emmanuel Schegloff, and Gail Jefferson (Dumanig, 2010). However, major contributions have been done by Harvey Sacks in the development of CA. Later, it was explored by a number of sociologists like Irvin Goffman and David Sudnow. Currently, CA is a well-established method in some areas like speech communication, psychology, linguistics, sociology and anthropology. It has also become an influential method particularly in interactional sociolinguistics and discourse analysis (Dumanig, 2010).

Using conversation analysis as an approach when analyzing stance-taking requires an understanding on the concept of turn-taking and adjacency pairs in conversation. This is essential because when analyzing the stance-taking in conversation requires to examine each turn and the adjacency pairs to see how the interlocutors take stance and how they align when they interact.

3.3.1   Turn-taking

Turn-taking is an important feature in conversation analysis which helps in the organization of talk. It is an arranged and well-organized activity to minimize the overlaps which occur between interlocutors or to minimize the gaps when no-one talks (Sidnell, 2010). It is fundamental in analyzing conversations specially when examining the communicative patterns. Turn-taking is a process by which interactants allocate the right or obligation to participate in an interactional activity (Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson, 1974). It consists of two components like the turn constructional component and the turn allocational component (Liddicoat, 2007) which are helpful in understanding how turn-taking works in conversation. The turn constructional component describes the basic unit known as turn constructional unit (TCU) which refers to a grammatical unit which 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 context.

In some cases, a turn cannot be considered as TCU particularly if it is not recognized as a complete turn in an ongoing talk. However, a turn can be considered only

as an allocation component if it describes how the turns are allocated by the participants in a conversation. In this context, the current speaker may select the next speaker by using certain strategies such as using the pronoun "you", mentioning a person's name, and self-selection of the next speaker. In general, the turn allocational component in conversation may consist of three ordered options such as current speaker selects next speaker; next speaker self-selects as next; or current speaker continues (Liddicoat, 2007).

According to Sacks, Schegloff and Jefferson (1974), turn-taking organization can be described as the simplest systematic for the organization of turn-taking in conversations. It is considered as one of the most noticeable features when one speaker changes his or her role as listener or speaker. Consequently, such organization of talk helps to make the conversation more organized because it signals the speakers when to talk and when not to talk. However, overlapping in conversation is still inevitable specifically when both speakers are very much involved in the conversation. In conversation, overlap seems to be a common feature, however gaps in conversation also occurs.

Both interlocutors take turns in a conversation. These turns occur when one is selected or nominated by the current speaker or if no one is selected, one of them may speak in their own accord (self-selection) (McCarthy, 2002). This means that it is important for the speakers to be familiar with the specific linguistic devices that will help them in getting the turn. According to McCarthy (2002) this is necessary especially when one of the interlocutors is unable to enter the normal flow of turn-taking or when the setting demands that specific conventions must be followed.

There are also some linguistic devices that are useful in order not to take turns but still attending 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.

Turn-taking is a socially constructed behavior and not a result of an inevitable process (Liddicoat, 2007). When one overlaps or when one speaker creates gap in a conversation, it does not mean that it occurred due to some physical or psychological constraints but they are used unproblematically to make the conversation more understandable and to signal laughter or greetings that the interlocutor clearly gets the point of the other speaker.

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

3.3.2   Adjacency pairs

Many turns of talk in a conversation which occur in pairs like greeting- greeting, question-answer, or request-acceptance/rejection and these paired utterances are called the adjacency

pairs (Schegloff and Sacks, 1973). According to Liddicoat (2007) adjacency pairs are the basic unit in conversation where an organization or sequence of talk is built. Such pairs can be easily recognized because it has certain features. In fact, 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 must 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 as the insertion sequence which can sometimes be a lengthy stretched of talk.

In this study, the adjacency pairs may help in identifying how the speakers align in the conversation when they take stance. Alignment is best described when the pair of conversation is clear.

3.4 Research design

This study used a qualitative approach, more specifically a case study research design since this study focuses only on a certain group of students and supervisors in one particular university in Malaysia. To understand the concept of this study, Stance Traingle Theory and Stance Markers are used as theoretical frameworks. These theories help in organizing the data collection and analysis. In addition, Conversation Analysis (CA) was used as the analytical framework to analyze the interaction between the supervisors and supervisees.

3.4.1 Participants

The participants of the study include 5 supervisors and 10 postgraduate students at the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya. The supervisors were selected based on their qualification and experience in supervising postgraduate students. Five (5) supervisors with Ph.D degrees and had at least one year supervisory experience with postgraduate students were selected. Such supervisors were chosen because they had sufficient experience to supervise postgraduate students.

In addition, 10 postgraduate students were selected as participants. The participants were identified by the supervisors who provided the list of students to be contacted. Oral and written permisions were obtained to record their conversations with their supervisors. All the chosen participants (supervisees) were taking their Masters degree in either Master of English as a Second Language or Master in Linguistics. The selected students were in the process of writing their proposals while others have just started gathering and analyzing their data. None of them completed their research yet. A detailed description on how the participants were selected is provided in Section 3.4.3.

3.4.2 Data

The data for this study were all spoken data and were transcribed using Du Bois' (1991) transcription convention (See Appendix 1). The conversations between supervisors and

supervisees 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 5-minute to a maximum of 45 minute-conversation. The total duration of the 10 conversations were 5 hours and 45 minutes. All the recorded data was transcribed for 6 months from July 2013 to December 2013. The transcribed data consisted of 203 pages (See Appendix 2).

All the transcribed data were double checked by one expert, a lecturer who underwent research on Conversation Analysis, to ascertain that the transcription conventions were correctly followed. Moreover, the data were also shown to the participants (supervisors and supervisees) to double check whether there were parts of the conversations that they need to be deleted. This was done for ethical reasons that there might be some information that the participants would not like to be included in the study. All conversations were taken with utmost confidentiality therefore the participants were coded as SL for supervisors and SS for supervisees. Some names mentioned in the conversations were also deleted and some were replaced to avoid hints on the participants' identity. All participants fully agreed to take part in the data collection as explained in Section 3.4.3.
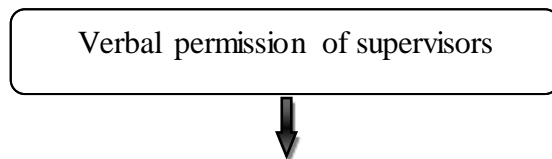
3.4.3 Data collection

The data collection was conducted for 5 months from February 2013 to June 2013. This was conducted for the entire semester of Semester 2. Prior to the recording of the conversations, permission was given by the supervisors and the supervisees. Both the supervisors and supervisees were given a letter of consent (see Appendix 3) as proof that they agreed to take part in the study before the conversations were recorded. All supervisors also agreed that conversations would be recorded in their office during the schedule they provided for the data collection. Prior to the recording, the supervisors provided the list of supervisees to be contacted and the letter of consent was given to them. Those supervisees who did not respond and agreed were not included as participants.

In addition, the supervisors were also contacted personally and those who did not agree were not given the letter of consent. Those who agreed were given the letter of consent and the background of the study was explained to them.

The conversations included in the study were limited only to a maximum of 45 minutes and a minimum of 5 minutes. Setting a minimum time for interaction is important because the presence of the recorder and the observer may affect the participant. This phenomenon is known as the observer's paradox which is a phenomenon where the observation of an event or experiment is influenced by the presence of the observer/investigator (Holmes, 2008). Therefore, the first 1 minute of conversation was not included in the data analysis to obtain a more natural interaction between the supervisor and supervisee.

After the recording, all recorded interactions were transcribed by using Du Bois'
(2002) transcription conventions and shown to the supervisor and supervisee for
verification purposes. The transcription conventions of Du Bois was used to serve as a
guide in the analysis however not all the conventions used in the transcription was used in
the analysis. Some parts of the conversations were deleted if the participants did want to be
included. This is essential for ethical considerations since the participants have the rights
what need to be included in the study. The procedures for data collection are further
illustrated in Figure3.2.

Verbal permission of supervisors

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│    Gave letter of consent to the supervisor  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Contacted the supervisees as suggested by the supervisors │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Gave letter of consent to the supervisses  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Recorded the conversations (Supervisor-supervisee interaction) │
└──────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        Transcribed the conversation          │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                      │
                      ▼
┌─────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│        Verification of transcribed data      │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
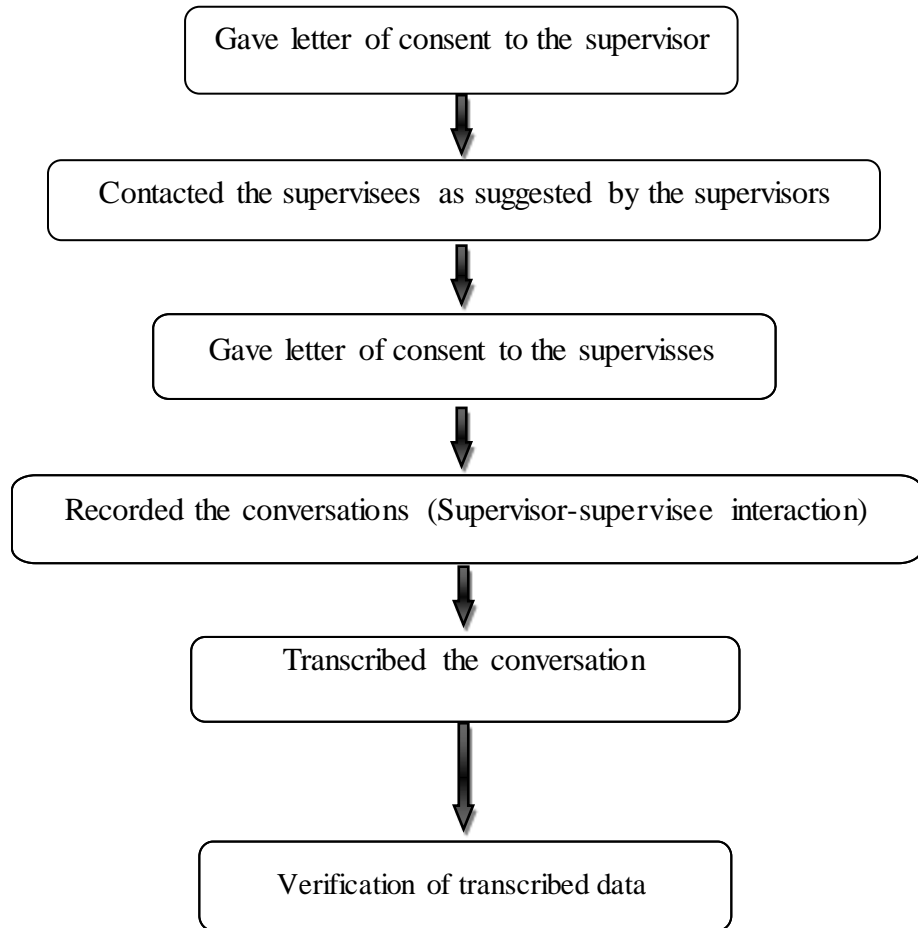
Figure 3.2: Data collection procedure

3.4.4   Plan for analysis

The data were analyzed by examining the stance-taking during interaction between supervisor and supervisee. This means that emphasis was given on how the speakers take stance and assert their identity. There were three phases of data analysis.

The first phase focused on the conversational structure of the conversations between supervisors-supervisees (See Section 4.2). In this phase, each conversation was read carefully and coded each turn of the conversation and grouped the coded turns. Then group the coded turns into themes. Other themes that did not occur a few times in the conversations were not included. Furthermore, the data analysis of the stages was verified by one expert, who has done research in conversation analysis, to ascertain the credibility of the analysis.

The second phase of the analysis examined the types of stance taking by using the model of stance markers which indexed the types of stances. In this phase each turn was examined in every stage and each stance marker in each turn was identified. After that manual frequency count of each type of stance marker used in every stage was counted, tallied and the percentage of occurrence was calculated. The analysis of the stance markers followed the style of analysis used by Xu and Long (2008).

The third phase examined the identity constructed by supervisors and supervisees when taking stance in conversation. The analysis of the study was based from Du Bois' (2007) Stance Triangle and the Model of Stance Markers as part of the analytical framework of the study. The stance-taking was examined in each turn which was signalled

by the stance markers. The three stance acts were used to analyze the stance-taking and identity construction. The concept of positioning was used to analyze the identity constructed by the supervisors and supervisees. Morever, the evaluation and alignment were used to analyze the stance-taking of each interlocutor.

Analysis was also used as the analytical approach in analyzing the interaction between the supervisor and supervisee. CA was used to identity each turn of the conversation and the adjacency pairs. The adjacency pairs were useful to identify the alignment between supervisor and supervisee. A diagram (Figure 3.3) is provided to show how the data analysis was done.

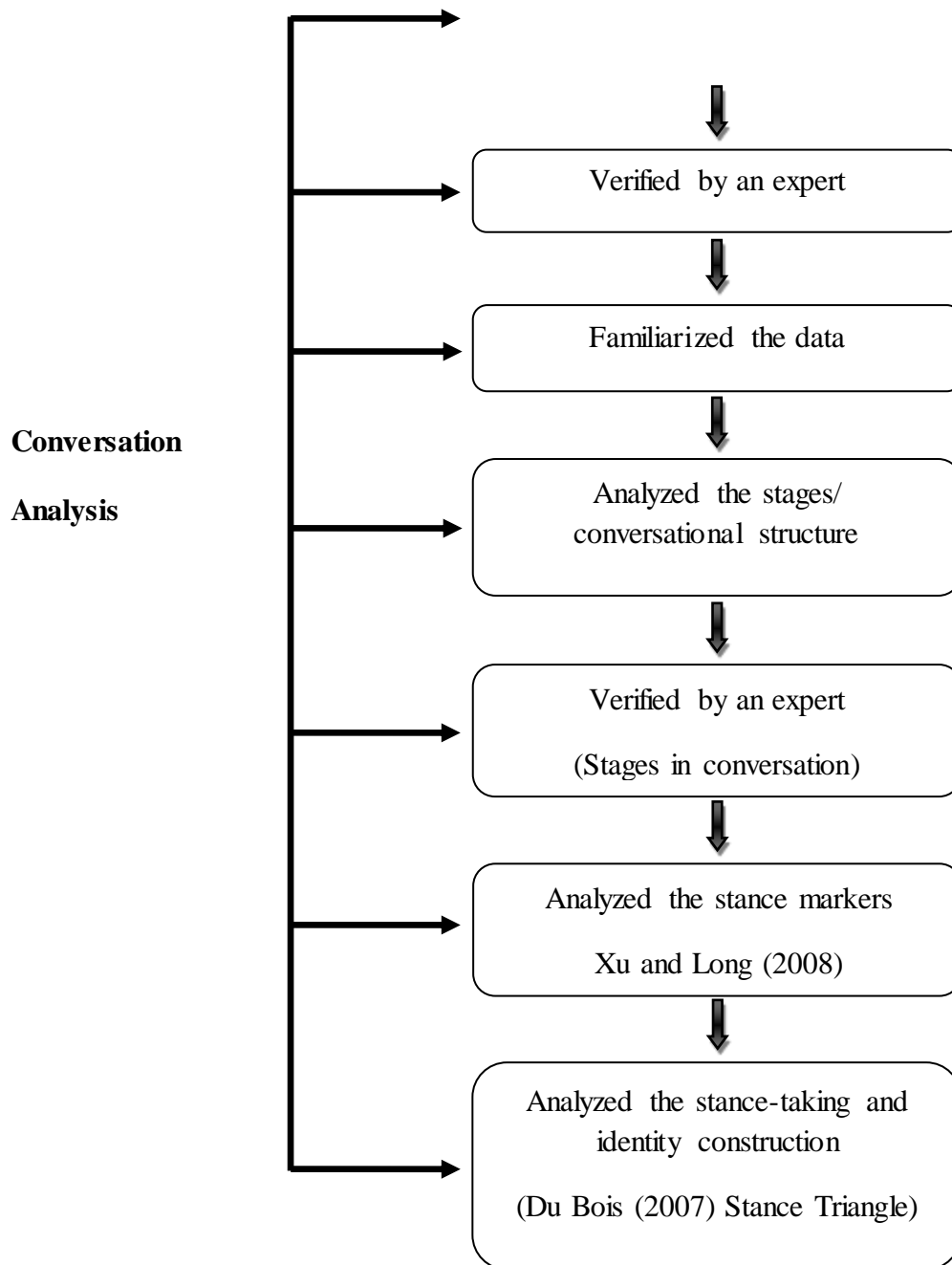Transcribed the conversation

Du Bois (1991)

54

Conversation

Analysis

```
                              ┌─────────────────────────┐
                              │    Verified by an expert │
                              └─────────────────────────┘
                                          │
                              ┌─────────────────────────┐
                              │    Familiarized the data │
                              └─────────────────────────┘
                                          │
                              ┌─────────────────────────┐
                              │   Analyzed the stages/   │
                              │  conversational structure│
                              └─────────────────────────┘
                                          │
                              ┌─────────────────────────┐
                              │    Verified by an expert │
                              │  (Stages in conversation)│
                              └─────────────────────────┘
                                          │
                              ┌─────────────────────────┐
                              │  Analyzed the stance markers│
                              │     Xu and Long (2008)   │
                              └─────────────────────────┘
                                          │
                              ┌─────────────────────────┐
                              │ Analyzed the stance-taking and│
                              │    identity construction │
                              │ (Du Bois (2007) Stance Triangle)│
                              └─────────────────────────┘
```

Figure 3.3: Procedure of analysis

3.5 Conclusion

The theoretical and methodological frameworks discussed in Chapter 3 provide clear understanding on how the study should be carried out particularly in linking the theories to the data collection and data analysis. Moreover, in the data analysis the use of Conversation Analysis as the analytical framework of the study explains clearly how the supervisor and supervisee's interaction must be analyzed by employing the Stance Triangle theory.

In general, Chapter 3 serves as the methodological framework which discusses the analysis of the entire research. The findings of the study are discussed in detailed in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings and analysis of the study. The findings are presented based on following the order of the research questions asked in Chapter 1. This chapter starts with the analysis of the stages or the conversational structure of the conversations between supervisors and supervisees and followed by stance taking in each stage of the conversation. In this Section, the stance markers are identified and analyzed to index the types of stance taking. Lastly, the analysis of the identity constructed by both supervisors and supervisees in each stage of the conversational structure is discussed. This Section also highlights how identity is constructed when taking a stance.

In this chapter, Conversation Analysis is used as the analytical framework when analyzing the interaction between the supervisors and supervisees. Moreover, when analyzing the stance taking, Xu and Long's (2008) model of stance markers for analysis are used. Such analysis is further enhanced by incorporating the theoretical framework of Du Bois (2007) on stance triangle. The stance triangle is used to analyze the stance taking and the identity constructed by the interlocutors.

4.2 Stages of conversational structure in supervisor-supervisee interaction

To analyze the occurrence of stance taking and identity construction, it is more organized and detailed if the conversation is categorized into different stages. Examining the stages in conversation may help in making the analysis more detailed and comprehensive. Each conversation was analyzed by examining the turn - takings. Each turn in the conversation was coded, grouped, caterogized according to themes then grouped the themes according to stages.

The findings of the study reveal that there are stages or conversational structures used in supervisor-supervisee interaction. Such stages or conversational structures start by making follow-up, testing the knowledge of the supervisee, giving suggestion, seeking for clarification, giving recommendations and making conclusion. These stages are discussed in details with extracts from the actual conversations between the supervisors and supervisees during research consultation.

4.2.1 Making follow-up

The findings of the study reveal that the first stage in the conversation between the supervisors-supervisees is making follow-up. Based from the data, the follow-up made by the supervisors at this stage usually begins by asking the supervisees about their progress of the study. This is evident in the following conversations: Conversation, 1, 2 and 3.

Conversation 1

1. SL: So: any progress on your (0.3) on your paper?

2. SS: Yes, and here is my (0.1) uhhh uhmm transcriptions for: my first sample uhhh
3. SS: we have three groups
4. SL: Uhm
5. SS: Gay man, straight female and straight male
6. SL: Sothis (0.1) these are for the gay
7. SS: Yeah, yeah
8. SL: Aha
9. SS: Ok
10. SL: An:d the other one for straight =
11. SS: Straight man
12. SL: A:nd (0.2) female
13. SS: Yea yes uh[hh]
14. SL: ↑[so] what was your title by the way?↓ I forgot your title
15. SS: Uhhm language choice, lingo (0.1) uhhmm
16. SL: Language choice and identity construction, [right?]
17. SS: [yeah but] we we decided to change
        to lingo (0.1)

In Conversation 1, it starts by making a follow-up on the progress of the supervisee's paper. The way supervisor makes a follow-up is by asking a question in turn 1, *"So: any progress on your (0.3) on your paper?"* Such follow-up, in a question form, is answered by the supervisee affirmatively by saying *"Yes, and here is my (0.1) uhhh uhmm transcriptions for: my first sample uhhh"* in turns 2, 3 and 5.The conversation continues while the supervisee is explaining the progress of the study.

Another follow-up question is posed by the supervisor in turn 14 " ↑*[so] what was your title by the way? I forgot your title".* Then the supervisee answers the question by giving the general idea about the research title in turn 15 *"Uhhm language choice, lingo (0.1) uhhmm"* and it is confirmed by the supervisor in turn 16 *"Language choice and identity construction, [right?]."*

Asking questions when making follow up is further illustrated in Conversation 2. Turns 1–3 show that the supervisor is looking for a specific issue which is based on the

supervisee's reading as shown in turn 1, *"So: (0.1)   from your readings, so:"* and turn 2 *"what (0.1) what (0.3) did you what did you get from here? ="*. However, the supervisee does not provide a clear answer in the question asked in turn 2, then a follow-up question is made in turn 7, *"So is there any (0.1) issue?"*. Then the supervisee replies in turn 8 saying, *"No it just like I ask you before, ummm uhh my mind has been like viewed to this guy kid just (0.1) produce uhhh not many words .hhh."* Such *"no"* answer can be considered negative therefore clarifications in turns 9, 11-14 are provided by the supervisee. It is evident that when a negative answer is given, more explanations and clarifications are provided. See conversation 2.

Conversation 2

1. SL: So: (0.1)↑ from your readings, ↓ so:
2. SL: What (0.1) what (0.3) did you what did you get from here? =
3. SL: From your [reading]
4. SS: [from this] (0.1) [particular] transcription
5. SL: [Yeah right]
6. SL: Yeah (0.22)
7. SL: So is there any (0.1) issue? =
8. SS: No it just like I ask you before, ummm uhh my mind has been like viewed to this kid just (0.1) produce uhhh not many words .hhh
9. SS: and then it just the (   ) answered questions and re-initiate new topics
10. SL: Uhm
11. SS: And then uhhh (0.2) like for example, but they said just few: not more than three times when (0.1) he tried to: (0.1) had on the topic to make it more interested =
12. SS: For example: on (0.1) 941, (0.1) 42, and 43
13. SS: When the son, he: tried to: when the father said what about your pocket money and yo- the mom complains that for this I gave you 30 ringgit but then (0.1) you said 1 ringgit is enough for you =
14. SS: Then (0.1) he said that (   ) Money, I only used 1 ringgit and then I treat treat my friends with money that is why the 30 ringgit is small
15. SL: Uhm

A follow-up is made in the conversation as starter by requiring the supervisee to provide some information of the study. For instance, in Conversation 3 where the supervisor asks a

question in turn 11, *"[Can] you tell me   briefly?"* The supervisee replies in turn 12 by saying, *"Alright, I uhh, this is my research title, I want to look at interaction among primary ESL (0.1) and the role of input and output on (   ) vocabulary acquisition (0.1) for:"* It is common in most interaction that when supervisor makes follow-up by questioning the supervisee, the response which provides clarification is always done by the supervisee. This type of conversation is evident in Conversation 3.

Conversation 3

11. SL: [Can] you tell me ↑ briefly?
12. SS: Alright, I uhh, this is my research title, I want to look at interaction among primary ESL (0.1) and the role of input and output on (   ) vocabulary acquisition (0.1) for:
13. SL: ↑That is going to be your [uhh] (0.1) [main]
14. SS: [Uhu]   [propose] research title =
15. SL: Oh I see
16. SS: Um
17. SL: Um
18. SS: So I will be looking at interaction (0.1) input and also output
19. SL: But that is good, huh?
20. SS: OK

Out of 10 conversations, 9 conversations start with making follow –up. Such trend, reflects in the examples of conversation as shown in conversations 1, 2 and 3. This means that when supervisors and supervisees interact they normally start by making-follow up on supervisees' progress.

4.2.2 Testing the knowledge of the supervisee

The second stage in the conversational structure is testing the knowledge of the supervisees. In this stage, the supervisors try to measure how far the supervisees know about the study. It is evident that supervisors in this particular stage would like to know the methodological framework of the study. In most cases, the theoretical framework and analytical framework of the study are asked to test the ability of the supervisees particularly on the theory used, data gathering procedure and model for analysis of the study.

Such stage is evident in Conversation 1 where the supervisor asks a question in turn 109 *"what framework is this?"* and the supervisee replies in turn 110 saying *"Uhm: that is taken from SCT and IST"* where he provides an information on the source of the framework. However, a follow-up question is made in turn 113, *"But you have here (0.2) the mega mode-?"* then another question is posed in turn 119 *"You were saying about mega model?* The supervisee replies in turn 120 saying *"Yeah,"* which is a form of confirmation that he mentions about *'mega model'*. Then in turn 121, the supervisor asks the supervisee to provide an explanation about the mega model, *"What is this maga model all about? = What does it =."* In turn 122, the supervisee replies by explaining the mega model, *"Basically it's about to show the stages of uhh the men ="*. In this conversation, it shows that the supervisor tests the supervisee understanding about the theoretical framework used in the study. An example of conversation is shown in Conversation 1.

Conversation 1

109. SL: what framework is this?
110. SS: Uhm: that is taken from SCT and IST

111.SL: (reading the proposal .. ↓two questions) (0.12)
112.SS: They are available
113.SL: But you have here (0.2) the mega mode-?
114. SL: this is what I'm interested in
115.SS: Ok
116.SL: The ma- mega model
117.SS: Uhm
118.SL: But I couldn't find uhm (0.1) (reading the proposal.. identity (   ) sexuality) (0.11)
119.SS: You were saying about mega model?
120.SL: Yeah
121.: What is this maga model all about? = What does it =
122.SS: Basically it's about to show the stages of uhh the men =
123.SS: So how they go through ummm (0.1) in being homosexual men an:d from pre sexuality and then (0.1) the question about the identity (0.1) uhhh big enough to come out through
124.SL: But yo- you don't because you have to analyze from conversation, am I right?
125.SS: Yes yes, so I'm thinking of how to lead actually ↓ first (0.3)

Apart from the theoretical framework of the study, supervisors also test their supervisees' knowledge in analyzing the data. The analytical framework of the study is asked how the supervisee analyzes the data collected. For instance, in Conversation 2 the supervisor and the supervisee discuss the analytical framework of the proposal. In turn 48, the supervisor asks, *"So if you're going to, going to analyze the conversational skills, what you want to:"* Then a follow-up question is asked in turn 49 *"how would you do that?"* Such turns (48 and 49) test the supervisee's knowledge how to analyze the conversational skills. The supervisee replies in turn 50 saying *"Uhhh I don't uhh I don't need the conversational skills to:(0.1) what particular things to look at (0.1), I just go (0.1) to see what comes out =."* The supervisee explains that he does not need to look at the conversational skills which contradict to the objectives of his study.

The supervisee's contradictory answers, which shows his being unsure of what he is going to do, trigger the supervisor to ask more questions on conversational skills. This is

evident in turn 51 "*So when you say conversational skills, what do you mean?*" The supervisee replies by saying "*I mean like (0.1) the initial idea I have is to look, does it he like umm uhhh (0.2) topic maintenance, topic initiating*". Such stage is conversation is also refelected in Conversation 2.

Conversation 2

48. SL: So if you're going to, going to analyze the conversational skills, what you want to:
49. SL: how would you do that?
50. SS: Uhhh I don't uhh I don't need the conversational skills to:(0.1) what particular things to look at (0.1), I just go (0.1) to see what is come out =
51. SL: So when you say conversational skills what do you mean?
52. SS: I mean like (0.1) the initial idea I have is to look does it he like umm uhhh (0.2) topic maintenance, topic initiating
53. SL: Uhm
54. SS: The [la-] the lack of uhh speech production in (   ) that like not more than three word or more than five words, something on that in (speech)
55. SL: ↑[so]
56. SL: So whose model is that (0.1) that are you using? (0.3)
57. SS: Umm the one I referred to previous study, if you are: =
58. SL: (   )?
59. SS: Umm (   ) since 2006
60. SL: Di- (0.1) does they have a: (0.1) brief description on how to analy- describe the: conversational skills?
61. SS: The collected data (0.1) uhhh they record and transcribe
62. SL: Uhm
63. SS: Then they see and then they set uhhh which one is topic maintenance and which one is topic initiating ↓and which one is (0.1) uhhh and then they calculate the percentage↑

Similarly in Conversation 7, the supervisor discusses with the supervisee about the analytical framework of the study. The conversation starts with a question from the supervisor in turn 39, *"[so] how would you analyze the, how would you analyze the text from here?"* The supervisor tries to test the knowledge of the supervisee how to analyze the data. The supervisee replies in turn 40 saying "*(   ) it is in the exclusion part, right?*"

which is an answer but in question form. The supervisor replies in turn 41 saying "*Yeah [right]*" which is a confirmation of the supervisee's answer in turn 40. It is clear in turns 39 that the supervisor is evaluating the supervisee's understanding about the analytical framework used in the study.

Conversation 7

39. SL: ↑[so] how would you analyze the, how would you analyze the text from here?
40. SS: (   ) it is in the exclusion part, right?
41. SL: Yeah [right]
42. SS: [you] asking [about the exclusion]
43. SL: ↑[so are you going] to analyze [using(0.2), label] this one as 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 in the example I told you just now, is the the government or the name of the government is is suppressed or like hidden
48. SL: Uhm
49. SS: But the the name could instead s- the families and relatives (   ) people who dead =
50. SL: <u>D</u>o you have on how this how do you do the analysis for
51. SS: Yeah

Out of 10 conversations analyzed, it shows that all conversations include the testing of the supervisee's knowledge about the study particularly the theoretical and anlystical frameworks used. This stage is followed by giving suggestions which is discussed in Section 4.2.3

4.2.3 Giving suggestions

The next stage in the conversational structure is giving suggestions. It is found that in supervisor-supervisee interaction, suggestions are provided after testing the supervisee's knowledge particularly the objectives, research questions, and methodology of the study. At this stage, the supervisors provide helpful suggestions particularly in improving the objectives, research questions, data gathering and data analysis.

In Conversation 1, the supervisor gives suggestions to help the supervisee to improve the proposal. The supervisor mentions in turn 135, "*So perhaps here you would say (0.1) what (0.2) gay (0.2) language (0.2) (   ) language used by in English and d-dominated to portray (0.3) their (0.1) gay =,*" which is a suggestion to the supervisee on what to write in the objectives. Another suggestion is also provided in turn 138, *"So the first question here, what gay (0.2) what language (0.1) used (0.1) by Malaysian gay (0.1) men (0.2) to (0.3) position (0.1) their (0.2) or to construct (0.2) their identities (0.1) in (0.1) a: in English: (0.1) dominated (0.2) interaction"* and in turns 139, 140, 141, 142 and 143. Such occurrence is shown in Conversation 1.

Conversation 1

135. SL: So perhaps here you would say (0.1) what (0.2) ↓ gay (0.2) language (0.2) (
) language used by in English and d- dominated to portray (0.3) their (0.1) gay =
136. SS: Identity =
137. SL: Identity
138. SL: So the first question here, what gay (0.2) what language (0.1) used (0.1) by
        Malaysian gay (0.1) men (0.2) to (0.3) position (0.1) their (0.2) or to construct
        (0.2) their identities (0.1) in (0.1) a: in English: (0.1) dominated (0.2) interaction
139. SL: So that is your first question =
140. SL: Th- the second question now would be (0.2) how: sorry analyze (0.1) how:
        (0.1) gay men (0.4) position (0.2) their (0.2) identities (0.1) in: an interaction

141.SL: So then let us say uhm (0.3) how: ↓the (0.1) Malay (0.2) gay men (0.1)
   position (0.1) themselves (0.1) in (0.2) ↑position their identities (0.7)
142.SL: ↓Ok uhm (0.1) analyze how gay men position their identities (0.4) uhm (0.4)
   through (0.3) um (0.2) position their identities (   ) (0.1) interaction
143.SL: A:nd (0.1) the third one examine (0.2) the reasons (0.1) or (0.10) identities
   (0.1) using (0.1) a: huh ↑examine the reasons for (0.2) choosing (0.1) or using (0.1)
   a:particular language (0.7) to construct (0.2) their id- to construct and position
   (0.4) their identities (0.2) in an interaction in English dominated (0.5) interaction

Supervisors also emphasize their suggestions in the data analysis. In Conversation 5, the supervisor provides suggestion how to analyze the data. In turn 65, the supervisor mentions, *"I think, you know, why why don't you analyze th- the: the dialect ="*which tells the supervisee to analyze the dialect. The supervisee replies in turn 66, saying *"The dialect="*. Then the supervisor asks the supervisee in turn 69, *"You are using which language? Hausa? ="* which is a form of clarification on the language that will be analyzed. The supervisee replies in turn 70 saying, *"Hausa yeah"* which confirms the supervisor's question. In turn 71 when the supervisor approves by saying, *"Ok you can analyze the verb of Hausa language."* More suggestions are provided in turns 86, 88, and 90. A conversation between a supervisor and supervisee is shown in Conversation 5.

Conversation 5

65. SL: I think, you know, why why don't you analyze th- the: the dialect =
66. SS: The dialect =
67. SL: The most (0.1) used dialect
68. SS: So I (   )
69. SL: You are using which language? Hausa? =
70. SS: Hausa yeah
71. SL: Ok you can analyze the verb of Hausa language
72. SS: Ok
73. SL: So for example, you: what are the types of verbs?
74. SS: ok [(   )]
75. SL: [In Hausa] language =
76. SL: What is the function (0.1) of Hausa verbs?

77. SS: Ok
78. SL: How you will use Hausa verb? =
79. SL: What are the: syntactical analyses of Hausa verbs?
80. SS: Uhm
81. SL: You see how? =
82. SL:↑ So you need only: three objectives
83. SS: Ok
84. SL: To to, yeah three objectives
85. SS: Ok
86. SL:↑ First you have to analyze (0.1) the theta roles↓ of this Hausa verbs?
87. SS: Yeah yeah
88. SL: Second objective, you have to analyze (0.1) the: the syntactical the syntax the the (0.1) the morph-syntactical analysis of Hausa verbs
89. SS: Yeah
90. SL: Then the third objective is you have to use the: X-bar theory
91. SS: Ok

Sometimes supervisors provide general suggestions to make the study easier for the supervisee. In Conversation 6, turn 136, the supervisor says, *"I would like you to just to make like make life easier (0.3)"* offering help to the supervisee by giving suggestions. Another suggestion is made in turn 137, *"So try to se- see appraisal (0.3)"*. Then in turn 139, a specific suggestion is done on what to analyze, *"Uhhh can you look, perhaps you can look for any paper that focuses on attitudinal meaning (0.25)."* The supervisor suggests that the supervisee has to read more articles about attitudinal meaning. In turn 144, the supervisor gives more suggestions to the supervisee to follow the article that was suggested earlier, *"So why don't you follow this kind of uhhh (0.3) you follow this kind of uhhh (0.3) research"*. The supervisee replies in turn 145, saying *"Uhm because I looked at the: uhh the: analysis of the data, it's (0.2) it is very (   ) so I do:n't know how: (0.2) to explain (0.2) the analysis in in my paper (0.51)"*. An example of conversation is shown in Conversation 6.

Conversation 6

136.SL: So I would like you to just to make like make life easier (0.3)

137.SL: So try to se- see appraisal (0.3)

138.SL: ↑ But go on with this because I know you have (0.1) you have uhhh spent so much time (0.13)

139.SL: Uhhh can you look, perhaps you can look for any paper that focuses on attitudinal meaning (0.25)

140.SL: Uhhh why don't you (   ) article that you, <u>which</u> article are you really referring with this?

141.SS: Uhm: (0.1) one on (0.1) national anthem, that you gave me

142.SL: Yeah that one is a very good paper

143.SL: So then follow the framework here

144.SL: So why don't you follow this kind of uhhh (0.3) you follow this kind of uhhh (0.3) research

145.SS: Uhm because I looked at the: uhh the: analysis of the data, it's (0.2) it is very (   ) so I don't know how: (0.2) to explain (0.2) the analysis in in my paper (0.51)

146.SL: These are the: epic (   ) nominal group

147.SS: Umm

148.SL: Like loyal, hero, strong process (   ) with attitudinal (0.2) [meaning]

149.SS: [(   )] attribute to relation (   ) (0.6)

150.SL: ↑ So the first uhh analysis is describing attitude (0.1), the second one is (evoking) attitude, (0.1) then the third one would be (0.1) the a- affect (0.5)

151.SL: So there will be three research questions if you (0.1) uhm

152.SS: Ok

It is also evident that out of ten conversations recorded, all conversations show that giving suggestion occurs. This means that during research consultation, it is possible that supervisors give suggestions to the supervisees particularly the objectives, research questions, and methodology of the study. After this stage, it is also found that most supervisees seek some clarification which is discussed in Section 4.2.4.

4.2.4 Seeking for clarification

Seeking for clarification is an important stage in the conversational structure between the supervisors and supervisees. In this stage, supervisees start to ask questions for clarification to the supervisor. As a result, the supervisors provide explanations to the supervisees on what they should do. Moreover, it is also evident in the data that both supervisors and supervisees look for explanations about specific issues encountered in the conversation.

Conversation 1 focuses on the discussion of the research proposal of the supervisee about the construction of identity among homosexuals in Malaysia. The supervisee asks for clarification to his supervisor in turn 200, "*Uhm and so (0.1) so if these would be the questions, so: what about the language aspects?*" The supervisor replies in turn 201 saying, "*The?*" which impliedly asks the supervisee to clarify the last part of the message in turn 200. Then the supervisee replies in turn 202 by saying "*Language aspects, (0.1) because ummm (0.1) looking at the uhhh the focus here you: uhh look into more into identities, what about the languages?*" The supervisee in this context seeks for clarification by asking "*what about the languages?*" Consequently, the supervisor explains the reasons for examining identities in turn 203, "*Because here it's, it doesn't reflect [with the] language itself (   ) language choice =.*" However, the supervisee still seeks for clarification in turn 206, "*Well, would be ma- (   ) heh I was just*". In turn 207, the supervisor directly responds by saying, "*No*" but an explanation is provided in turn 209, "*Because you are looking at [English]*".

Conversation 1

200. SS: Uhm and so (0.1) ↑ so if these ↓ would be the questions, so: what about the language aspects?
201.SL: The?
202.SS: Language aspects, (0.1) because ummm (0.1) looking at the uhhh the focus here you: uhh look into more into identities, what about the languages?
203.SL: Because here it's, it doesn't reflect [with the] language itself ( ) language choice =
204.SS: [um um]
205.SL: But this one would be would be still under discourse analysis
206.SS: Well, would be ma- (   ) heh I was just
207.SL: No
208.SS: Wondering
209.SL: Because you are looking at [English]
210.SS: [English]
211.SL: Yeah dominated
212.SS: ↑ Because I'm referring to: one of you studies before, this is about (0.1) the Christianity, right? =
213.SL: ↑ No that one is different [different from this]
214.SS: [yeah I'm jus- I'm] just the concept of the:
215.SL: Yeah
216.SS: Because here you also looking into the identity uhh but then also will under each identity lo- look into the:(0.1) language aspects in the the conversations or the speech umm like the: verbs and adjective (   ) so I was just wondering [that]

Similar patterns of seeking clarification are found in Conversation 2 where the supervisee asks the supervisor what to do in the conversational skills. In turn 342 the supervisee asks, "*Here should I just uh des- uhh should I just ask and describe the conversational skills based on these three things? =*." The supervisor replies in turn 343, "*Yeah*", which confirms that he should describe the conversational skills based on the three things that the supervisee is referring to. However, the supervisee asks another question in turn 346, "*Do I need to compare to: like for example normal (   )? =*" The supervisor replies in turn 347, saying, "*Oh no no need no need, you just focus on that*". Such straight forward answer from

the supervisor clarifies that there should be no comparison made and advises the supervisee to focus on the specific issue.

Conversation 2

342. SS: Here should I just uh des- uhh should I just ask and describe the conversational skills based on these three things? =
343. SL: Yeah =
344. SS: For (   ) data
345. SL: You you can focus on this only
346. SS: Do I need to compare to: like for example normal (   )? =
347. SL: Oh no no need no need, you just focus on that
348. SL:↑ Because here, you have a lot of things to analyze already here

In Conversation 5, the supervisor seeks for clarification from the supervisee about the style of writing in turn 262, "*But how is the: th- th:- the style of writing?*". Then in turn 263, the supervisor asks a follow-up question, "*English way?*" The supervisee clarifies in turn 264 saying, "*Using English way.*" To further clarify the supervisee's answer, in turn 267 the supervisor tells the supervisee to write a sentence, "*Write, try to write a sentence here*" The supervisee replies in turn 268 saying, "*For example*", then explanations in turns 270, 272, 274, 276, 278, and 280 are provided.

Conversation 5

262. SL: But how is the: th- th:- the style of writing?
263. SL: English way? =
264. SS: Using English way
265. SL: I see
266. SS: English way
267. SL: Write, try to write a sentence here
268. SS: For example
269. SL: I went I uhh I'm going to school (0.13)
270. SS: This (0.1) this one I, this one to, this is I now, this is (0.2) we call it pre-vowel pronoun
271. SL: Ok
272. SS: Pre-vowel pronoun

273. SL: Uhm
274. SS: Because it is replacing the name of person
275. SL: Yes
276. SS: Like pronoun
277. SL: Uhm
278. SS: But we used to call it pre-vowel pronoun, this one now is a tense marker
279. SL: Tense marker
280. SS: Yeah to shown the tense, that is the continuous tense
281. SL: Good
282. SS: This one (   ) this is the name (   ) (0.1) going (0.1) this one, 'makaranta' this is noun that is school (0.4)
283. SL: School
284. SS: This I (0.2) I'm going to school
285. SL: So the the: yeah the agent is in the initial position =
286. SS: Yeah the agent is this one I =
287. SL:↑But this is Hausa standard language?
288. SS: Yeah

After seeking for clarification, it is followed by giving recommendations, which is discussed in Section 4.2.5.

4.2.5 Giving recommendations

After providing clarification, the next stage ofthe conversational structure is giving recommendations. Atthis stage, the supervisors provide recommendation to the supervisees what to do in their studies.

In conversation 1, the supervisor gives recommendation to help the supervisee to improve the proposal. The recommendation is evident when the supervisor said in turn 269, "*So: just focus on that first =*"Then in turn 270, the supervisor further recommends by saying " ↑*Can you do a: uhm the fi- first chapter of your paper?*" The supervisee accepts the recommendation in turn 271 by saying, "*Ok*". Moreover, the supervisor in turn 272

further recommends by saying, "*And submit this, I I need the first chapter so I can see the: real picture of your research*". An agreeable response is found in turn 273 when the supervisee says, "*Ok*". Then the supervisor further recommends in turn 274, "*Including the positioning theory.*" The supervisee replies in turn 275 with minimal response saying, "*Um*". In the following turn the supervisor explains the importance of including position theory by saying, "*So that I can relate this one through your (0.1) uhhh [data] =*".

In Conversation 1, the supervisor gives direct recommendations to the supervisee to follow and highlight the importance of his recommendations in turns 272, 276, 278, and 281.

Conversation 1

269. SL: So: just focus on that first =
270. SL: ↑ Can you do a: uhm the fi- first chapter of your paper?
271. SS: Ok
272. SL: And submit this, I I need the first chapter so I can see the: real picture of your research
273. SS: Ok
274. SL: Including the positioning theory
275. SS: Um
276. SL: So that I can relate this one through your (0.1) uhhh [data] =
277. SS: [data]
278. SL: = Because your data doesn't reflect any language [choice] at all
279. SS: [choice]
280. SS: Ok
281. SL: And doesn't reflect even the language that they use that would reflect who they are
282. SS: Um

In Conversation 2, the supervisor also recommends to the supervisee in turn 357 by saying, "*So perhaps you can look at here (0.1) in (0.1) (   ) conversational skills contribute a lot to the success of the interaction, so how? (0.3).*" The supervisee replies with minimal

response in turn 358 by saying, "*Uhm*". Then another recommendation is made in turn 359, "*Or perhaps you can look at (0.1) uhm you can look at also here, what what are the reasons why (0.1), maybe you can ask them why: why do they used that particular of conversational skills? (0.2)."* More recommendations are given by the supervisor in turns 360 "*So perhaps you can also, it is either you can have this one or you can look at here the: (0.1) uhh you want to (0.1) examine (0.1) the reasons (0.1) for =*" then followed by more recommendations in turns 362 and 363.

Conversation 2

> 357. SL: So perhaps you can look at here (0.1) in (0.1) (   ) conversational skills
>   contribute a lot to the success of the interaction, so how? (0.3)
> 358. SS: Uhm
> 359. SL: Or perhaps you can look at (0.1) uhm you can look at also here, what what
>   are the reasons why (0.1), maybe you can ask them why: why do they used that
>   particular of conversational skills? (0.2)
> 360. SL: So perhaps you can also, it is either you can have this one or you can look
>   at here the: (0.1) uhh you want to (0.1) examine (0.1) the reasons (0.1) for =
> 361. SS: [Particular features]
> 362. SL: = [Using such] (0.1) conversational skills (0.3) and (0.1) gestural features,
>   I think this one is easier, (0.3) in interaction
> 363. SL: So this one would be your: (0.1), so now what you're going to do, if you
>   want to examine (0.1) uhhh (0.1) the reasons, why they use this like, in turn
>   taking they use this kind of convers-, why they use like kind of, you can
>   interview them, why you use like this when when, why do you respond like this,
>   why do you respond like that =
> 364. SS: Oh I interview them
> 365. SL: Yeah
> 366. SS: Ok

Similar pattern is found in Conversation 3, where the supervisor in turn 667 recommends by saying, "*You see, whenever you go for: uhh field work*". The supervisee acknowledges with minimal response in turn 668 saying, "*Uhm*". The supervisor continues to provide recommendation in turns 669, "*Uhm, even with (   ) informants*", and 671, "*Uhh you have*

to be: (0.1) more considerate ha," which specifically provides recommendation for the supervisee to be considerate. The supervisee replies positively in turn 672 by saying, "*Oh ok*", which shows an agreement to the supervisor's point of view.

Another recommendation is uttered by the supervisor in turn 675, "*Uhh not war, loading them with so: many questions*". The supervisee accepts the recommendation in turn 676 by saying "*Ok heh*". However, the supervisor continues giving recommendations to the supervisee in turn 687.

Conversation 3

667. SL: You see, whenever you go for: uhh field work
668. SS: Uhm
669. SL: Uhm , even with (   ) informants
670. SS: Uha
671. SL: Uhh you have to be: (0.1) more considerate ha
672. SS: Oh ok
673. SL: Accommodate you
674. SS: heh Ok
675. SL: Uhh not war, loading them with so: many questions
676. SS: Ok heh
677. SL: Ha
678. SS: Ok ok
679. SL: Yeah out of (   ) (   ) you know some of the: =
680. SS: Yes yes
681. SL: Uhhh (0.1) investigators
682. SS: Umm
683. SL: Uhhh whoever work with them and uhh (0.1) sometime trouble the informants hum
684. SS: Ok ok ok
685. SL: .hhh Especially children, you know, at school level, they will be [hum]
686. SS: [Yes]
687. SL: Yeah, maybe (0.1)↑uhm (0.1) yeah (0.1) .t so that is why, you know, test or a: anything whatever you give, should not exceed uhh (0.1)↓one hour
688. SS: One hour, ok

After giving recommendations, the conversation ends by concluding the conversation. Making convclusion is discussed in Section 4.2.6.

4.2.6 Making conclusion

The last stage in the conversational structure between supervisors and supervisees is making conclusion. This stage concludes the discussion and provides an opportunity for the supervisee to ask questions to the supervisor before ending the conversation.

In Conversation 3, the supervisor concludes by asking in turn 795, "*Anything else*?" Such form of asking a question indicates that the interaction is about to end. The supervisee replies in turn 796 saying, "*O:h thank you for sharing doctor, I'll try to: uhm (0.1) I'll try to: make my (0.1) proposal [more] solid.*" At this stage, the supervisee thanks the supervisor for providing useful insights to improve the study. Furthermore, in turns 799 and 800 the supervisee asks general questions about the proposal which indicates that the consultation is about to finish. The supervisor's responds and provides further comments which are evident in turns 803, 805, 806, 808, 810, and 812 which conclude the conversation. Moreover, the supervisee replies in turn 817, "*Ok (0.1), so when I'm done, I will contact you doctor*", which is a form of leave taking in most formal conversations.

Conversation 3

795.SL:↑Anything else?
796.SS: O:h thank you for sharing doctor, I'll try to: uhm (0.1) I'll try to: make my (0.1) proposal [more] solid

77

797. SL: [Uhm]
798. SL: So: you, yeah you can do that, ok
799. SS: Ok, is it feasible?(0.2)
800. SS: Is it doable?
801. SL: Um
802. SS: What do you think doctor?
803. SL: Ok, yeah sure
804. SS: Ok ok ok heh
805. SL: You can: (0.1) yeah
806. SL: If I (   ) you need any ha
807. SS: OK
808. SL: Changes or uhh ha
809. SS: Ok alright alright hmm
810. SL: Umm reinforcement, you can do that
811. SS: Ok ok
812. SL: But it seems (   ) working (0.1) on it
813. SS: Umm
814. SL: Umm hope you can (0.1) ha
815. SS: Yes yes
816. SL: Add
817. SS: Ok (0.1), so when I'm done, I will contact you doctor
818. SL: Hmm please do, yeah
819. SS: Ok ok
820. SL: Yeah
821. SS: Alright
822. SL: ↓Umm we'll meet hhh↑ha
823. SS: Ok
824. SL: Depend on your: ha
825. SS: Ok, thank you doctor
826. SL: You are welcome
827. SS: heh Ok

Similarly, in Conversation 5, the supervisor signals the supervisee that the consultation is about to end by asking a question in turn 353, "*Do you have any question you want to ask?*"Such question draws the conversation towards the end by asking the supervisee if there is anything that needs to be discussed. However, the supervisee responds in turn 354 by saying, "*NO*". Consequently, the supervisor concludes the conversation by providing the day and date for the next meeting. It indicates that the discussion is finished as shown in

turns 359, "*Ok, (0.1) so anyhow but for sure by Fri-, ok if you want to bring them,↓ bring them on Friday*" and 360, "*So:↑ Friday (0.1)↓ around 10 or 11*".

Conversation 5

353.SL: Do you have any question you want to ask?

354.SS: NO

355.SL: ↑ So Inshallah I'll try uhh uhh (0.1)↓ this is t- this is your telephone

356. SS: Ok

357. SL: ↑ When I'll:↓ ask you to come to bring me, I want to see the books

358. SS: Ok

359. SL: Ok, (0.1) so anyhow but for sure by Fri-, ok if you want to bring them, ↓bring them on Friday

360. SL: So:↑ Friday (0.1)↓ around 10 or 11

361. SS: Ok

362. SL: Ok I'm here, you can show me the books

363. SS: Ok sir

364. SL: Ok, so good luck ha? Thi- this [is a good idea]

365. SS: [ok thank- thank] thank you sir, I'm very grateful

366. SL: It is ok welcome

Conversation 9 also reveals how the interaction between supervisor and supervisee ends by concluding what has been discussed throughout the conversation. In turn 432, the supervisor sums up the discussion by saying "*So that is it then uhhh (0.1) you will see her (0.1) 2 o'clock*". More indicators for ending the conversation in turn 436, "*That we discuss about this and that, (0.1) and if there is any comment from her, let me know:*" which shows that they already discuss everything and askthe supervisee to update him with the comment. In turn 440, "*To set the date for the: (0.1) proposal defense,*" is another indicator that the conversation is about to end since the supervisor starts to set a date for the supervisee's

proposal defense. This can be a clear evidence that they are about to finish the discussion

about the proposal.

Conversation 9

432.SL: So that is it then uhhh (0.1) you will see her (0.1) 2 o'clock
433.SS: 2 o'clock yes =
434.SL: And then discuss similar cases with her
435.SS: Yes
436.SL: That we discuss about this and that, (0.1) and if there is any comment from her,
    let me know:
437.SS: Inshallah
438.SL: Any (0.1) major changes she wants to add, let me know because by next week I
    will talk to the: (0.1) panels
439.SS: Yes Sir
440.SL: To set the date for the: (0.1) proposal defense
441.SS: Sure Inshallah

All the conversations collected and analyszed, the findings of the study show that

supervisor-supervisee's interaction follow the six stages or conversational structure. Such

stages help in organizing the conversation between the supervisor and supervisee during

research consultation. Moreover, such stages are seen to be useful in analyzing the

occurrence of stance markers and stance taking in conversation. In the next Section, the

stance markers are examined according to the stages or conversational structure.

4.3 Stance-taking in supervisor-supervisee interaction

The findings of the study further reveal that in supervisor-supervisee interactions different

types of stance markers are used in different stages or conversational structure. Such stance

markers index the stance taking in the conversation. It shows that in making follow-up,

questioning the knowledge of the supervisee, giving suggestion, seeking for clarification, giving recommendation and making conclusion both supervisor and supervisee use stance markers to index the type of stance they take.

In this section, the stance markers used by both supervisor and supervisee are identified according to the frequency of occurrence in each conversational stage. The study reveals that epistemic stance, deontic stance, attitudinal stance and textual stance occur in the conversation (See Section 3.2.2).

4.3.1 Stance markers in making follow-up

The data show that in the first stage, textual stance markers are prominent as compared to attitudinal stance, epistemic stance and deontic stance. The frequency of occurrences reveal that textual stance markers have 29 occurrences (39.19%) followed by attitudinal stance with 26 occurrences (35.14%) then the epistemic stance with 16 occurrences (21.62%) and lastly the deontic stance with 3 occurrences (4.05%). The frequency of occurrences of stance markers in making follow-up is illustrated in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Number of occurrences of stance markers in making follow-up

ES	DS	AS	TS	Total
16 (21.62%)	3 (4.05%)	26 (35.14%)	29 (39.19%)	74 (100%)

ES – epistemic stance, DS – deontic stance, AS – attitudinal stance, TS – textual stance (see Appendix 4)

Table 4.1 clearly shows that the high frequency of occurrence of the textual stance in the first stage of interaction between supervisor and supervisee emphasize more on the logical organization of talk rather than the degree of assessment or necessity or desirability of the arguments. This is logical because in every interaction it is common that both interlocutors start with logical organization of talk to keep the conversation going.

It is also evident that in making follow-up, the emphasis on the attitudinal stance markers (35.14%) is frequently used. Such frequent use of attitudinal stance reflects that both speakers (supervisor and supervisee) want to maintain a good relationship as they start the conversation (see Section 4.2.1).

4.3.2 Stance markers in testing the knowledge of the supervisee

The second stage of the conversational structure reveals a different result on the occurrence of stance markers in interaction. The findings of the study show that epistemic stance has the highest frequency of occurrences with a total of 40 which is equivalent to 49%, followed by textual stance with 25 occurrences (31%), then the attitudinal stance with 13 occurrences (16%) and lastly, the deontic stance with 3 occurrences (4%). Table 4.2 shows the number of occurrences of stance markers in testing the ability of the supervisee.

Table 4.2. Number of occurrences of stance markers in testing the knowledge of the supervisee

ES	DS	AS	TS	Total
40 (49%)	3 (4%)	13 (16 %)	25 (31%)	81 (100%)

ES – epistemic stance, DS – deontic stance, AS – attitudinal stance, TS – textual stance (see Appendix 4)

The second stage of the conversation, which is testing the knowledge of the supervisee, shows that epistemic stance markers are frequently used. At this stage the interaction focuses on the assessment of the supervisees' knowledge about the topic (see Section 4.2.2). This is evident that the use of epistemic stance markers tries to measure the certainty of the supervisees' knowledge and understanding of the topic being researched as discussed in detailed in Section 4.2.2.

The findings further reveal that the occurrence of epistemic stance markers is followed by the textual stance which is also essential in an interaction to maintain the logical organization of talk as the interaction progresses. The use of textual stance markers at this stage maintains the correct flow of the conversation. On the other hand, it also shows that attitudinal stance has 13 occurrences which reveal that the relationship of the supervisor and supervisee during the interaction is being observed.

4.3.3 Stance markers in giving suggestion

The occurrence of stance markers on the third stage in the conversational structure shows that epistemic stance has higher frequency of occurrence which is 63 (41%), followed by textual stance with 53 occurrences (34%), then attitudinal stance with 23 occurrences (15%) and followed by deontic stance with 16 occurrences (10%). Table 4.3 shows the occurrences of stance markers in giving suggestions.

Table 4.3. Number of occurrences of stance markers in giving suggestion

ES	DS	AS	TS	Total
63 (41%)	16 (10.%)	23 (15%)	53 (34%)	155 (100%)

ES – epistemic stance, DS – deontic stance, AS – attitudinal stance, TS – textual stance (see Appendix 4)

In giving suggestion, supervisors and supervisees use more epistemic stance markers and textual stance markers. The prominence of use of epistemic stance in this particular stage of conversation reflects the importance of certainty when suggestions are impliedly asked by the supervisee and when it is given by the supervisor (see Section 4.2.3). This is expected since suggestions must be firm and certain otherwise it will bring confusion to supervisee. On the other hand, it is also evident that textual stance markers are frequently used which signal that well-organized suggestions must be made. Then it is followed by the attitudinal stance which is essential when giving suggestion that the interpersonal relationship between the supervisor and supervisee must be maintained.

4.3.4 Stance markers in seeking for clarification

In the fourth stage the conversational structure in supervisee and supervisor interaction, it shows that textual stance markers are more frequent as compared to others. Textual stance markers have 31 occurrences (35%) followed by epistemic stance with 24 occurrences (27%), then the attitudinal stance with 21 occurrences (24%) and deontic stance with 12

occurrences (14%). Table 4 shows the frequency of occurrences of stance markers in seeking clarification.

Table 4.4. Number of occurrences of stance markers in seeking clarification

ES	DS	AS	TS	Total
24 (27%)	12 (14%)	21 (24%)	31 (35%)	88 (100%)

ES – epistemic stance, DS – deontic stance, AS – attitudinal stance, TS – textual stance (see Appendix 4)

A different result is found in seeking for clarification in which textual stance has the highest number of occurrences as compared to other stance markers. Such occurrence provides a clear idea that in seeking for clarification the interlocutors are more concerned on the clarity of the message (see Section 4.3.4). Therefore, emphasis on logical organization of ideas and its coherence play an important role. Apart from that, epistemic stance markers are seen to be frequently used and they indicate that clarification is given with certain level of certainty. On the other hand, attitudinal stance is also present to maintain the good relationship between the supervisor and supervisee as the interaction progresses.

4.3.5 Stance markers in giving recommendation

In giving recommendation it shows that epistemic stance markers are frequently used. It shows that epistemic stance marker has 36 occurrences (31%) followed by deontic stance, attitudinal stance and textual stance having 26 occurrences (23%). Table 5 shows the number of occurrences of stance markers in giving recommendation.

Table 4.5. Number of occurrences of stance markers in giving recommendation

ES	DS	AS	TS	Total
36 (31%)	26 (23%)	26 (23%)	26 (23%)	114 (100%)

ES – epistemic stance, DS – deontic stance, AS – attitudinal stance, TS – textual stance (see Appendix 4)

Table 4.5 shows that epistemic stance markers are prominent in giving recommendation. Such use of stance markers is seen to be essential at this stage because when giving recommendation it requires certain degree of truthfulness. Recommendation must be made by the supervisor and must establish an image that thesupervisee will have a complete trust and understanding that what has been recommended could help in improving the research. It also shows that attitudinal and textual stance markers are frequently used and this explains that when giving recommendation, supervisors tend tomaintain a good relationship with the supervisee by not being too imposing and at the same time being clear with the recommendation (see Section 4.2.5). Such analysis is also supported with the frequency of occurrence of the deontic stance at this stage.

4.3.6 Stance markers in making conclusion

The last stage of the conversational structure is making conclusion. At this stage it shows that attitudinal stance has the highest number of occurrence which is 42 (42.86%), followed

by epistemic stance with 24 occurrences (24.49%), textual stance with 19 occurrences (19.38%) and lastly the deontic stance with 13 occurrences (13.27%). Table 4.6 shows the number of occurrences of stance markers in making conclusion.

Table 4.6. Number of occurrences of stance markers in making conclusion

ES	DS	AS	TS	Total
24 (24.49%)	13 (13.27%)	42 (42.86%)	19 (19.38%)	98 (100%)

ES – epistemic stance, DS – deontic stance, AS – attitudinal stance, TS – textual stance (see Appendix 4)

The findings reveal that at this stage attitudinal stance markers have the highest number of occurrences which show that in the conclusion stage, interpersonal relationship between the supervisor and supervisee is given more emphasis. This means that as the interaction comes to an end both interlocutors try to maintain their good relationship (see Section 4.2.6). It is also evident that epistemic stance is frequently used to show some assurance to both supervisor and supervisee. Such assurance is clearly communicated and it is reflected through the occurrences of textual stance markers.

4.3.7 Summary of occurrences of stance markers in supervisor-supervisee interaction

The findings of the study show that epistemic stance marker has the highest frequency of occurrence having 203 occurrences (33.28%) in the entire interaction between supervisor and supervisee. It is followed by textual stance marker with 183 occurrences (30%), then attitudinal stance with 151 occurrences (24.75%), and last the the deontic stance with

73occurrences (11.97%) Table 4.7 shows the summary of occurrences of stance markers in supervisor-supervisee interaction.

Table 4.7. Summary of occurrences of stance markers in supervisor-supervisee interaction

Stages	ES	DS	AS	TS	Total
1- Making follow-up	16	3	26	29	74
2- testing the knowledge of the supervisee	40	3	13	25	81
3- Giving suggestion	63	16	23	53	155
4- Seeking for clarification	24	12	21	31	88
5- Giving recommendation	36	23	26	26	114
6- Making conclusion	24	13	42	19	98
Total	203 (33.28%)	73 (11.97%)	151 (24.75%)	183 (30%)	610 (100%)

ES – epistemic stance, DS – deontic stance, AS – attitudinal stance, TS – textual stance (see Appendix 4)

Table 4.7 shows that epistemic stance markers occur frequently in the interaction. The frequent use of epistemic stance shows that when supervisor and supervisee interact, there is certain level of formality in the interaction in which the discussion is always based on the certainty and truthfulness of the message. This means that epistemic stance is prominent in the interaction.

It is also evident that textual stance marker seems to play an important role in the interaction. This is essential because every time a supervisor discusses to the supervisee, clarity of the message is needed. Since the role of the supervisor is to guide the supervisee then it is always expected that clear and logical messages are deemed to be important.

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

On the other hand, in supervisor-supervisee 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. A detailed analysis and discussion on stance taking and identity construction is provided in the next section (Section 4.4).

4.4 Stance-taking and identity construction in supervisor-supervisee interaction

The findings of the study reveal that supervisor and supervisee take stance in every interaction and such stance indexes certain identities constructed. Such identities are seen to have influenced the various turns in the entire conversation. To analyze the identities

constructed by supervisors and supervisees the conversations are specifically examined in every stage of the conversational structure and the stance taken which enhances the identities constructed.

The analysis of the identity construction is based on the concepts of evaluation and positioning as highlighted by Du Bois (2007) in the Stance Triangle Theory. Moreover, to make the analysis more organized, it is arranged according to the stages of conversation. This means that the occurrence of stance-taking and identity construction are based on the stages of conversations.

4.4.1 Identity of supervisor and supervisee in making follow-up

The identity of supervisors and supervisees vary in different stages of the conversational structure and in every stance that they take in an interaction. When speakers take stance they try to position themselves to show their identities. Such stance taking and identity construction are discussed in the following Sections.

4.4.1.1 Supervisor as mentor and supervisee as mentee

In the conversations recorded between supervisors and supervisees, it is evident that they construct two different identities particularly in the first stage of conversational structure which is making follow-up. It shows that supervisors construct certain identities as people who guide and advise the supervisees about their research. Supervisors position themselves like counselors who start the conversation by asking their supervisees some issues in

conceptualizing the research. In short, they are constructing an identity as mentor as they start the conversation. Such kind of identity is shown in Conversation 5.

On the other hand, supervisees feel that as they start their research they need someone who will guide them. As the conversation starts in supervisor-supervisee interaction, supervisees construct certain identities like a mentee. They provide their supervisors the necessary information including some issues in understanding their topics.

When both supervisors and supervisees construct their identities as mentor and mentee, such identity constructions are evident the way they take stance in every turn of the conversation. As mentor and mentee they try to make the conversation friendly and well-organized (see Section 4.3.2). This is the reason why the use of textual and attitudinal stance markers are oftenly used at this stage. Moreover, as the conversation progresses, the stances of both interlocutors are enhanced through their alignment. Such stance taking and identity construction is further illustrated in Conversation 5.

In conversation 5, the supervisor acts as mentor by asking few questions to the supervisee. The conversation starts with a question in turn 3, "*What kind of project you want to do?*" Such questioning indicates that the supervisor would like the supervisee to think and provide him with the idea on what to research. However, it is evident in turn 3 that the supervisor could not figure out the topic so the supervisee says in turn 4 "*So: anything concerns syntax*". Such response indicates the supervisee's limited understanding about the topic and it also indicates that the supervisee shows that he needs to be guided to

come up with a topic about syntax. But it is evident that the supervisee tries to maintain to be coherent with the supervisor's utterance though the use of textual stance by saying "so..." and in the fifth turn the supervisor said "*ok...*" which is an attitudinal stance markers that shows the solidarity and at the same time it is a form of alignment to the stance taken in the previous utterance (see Section 4.3.2).

In conversation 5, both subjects, the supervisor and supervisee, position themselves as mentor and mentee when discussing the object which is the research. On the other hand, they align themselves through question and answer and by using some 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

Similar pattern of identity construction is seen in conversation 10 where the supervisor guides the student to find a specific topic of research. In turn 1, the supervisor starts the conversation with a textual stance by saying, "*So, you will be working on the (0.2) uhhm (0.1)migration politics*". Such utterance shows that the supervisor makes a follow up about

the research topic. In turns 2, the supervisee replies with a textual stance to be coherent to the supervisor's utterance by saying *"Because I find out phenomenon like some people from Mainland",* and he continues to provide a description about the Chinese from the Mainland in turns 4 and 6.

Both supervisor and supervisee take stance and position themselves as mentor-mentee in this context. The supervisor guides and the supervisee shares his ideas and some issues about his research. Moreover, alignment in the interaction is evident through their frequent use of textual and attitudinal stance markers (see Table 4.1 and Table 4.7).

Conversation 10

1. SL: So, you will be working on the (0.2) uhhm (0.1) migration politics.
2. SS: Because I find out phenomenon like some people from Mainland.
3. SL: Uhm
4. SS: now they want to uhh immigrate uhh immigrate emigrate.
5. SL: [Uha]
6. SS: [Like] uh may be Malaysian uh citizen.
7. SL:Uhm
8. SS: But actually,that is very difficult.
9. SL: Uhm
10. SS: Because there is already gap, ummm involve some religion religious issues and uh also some communism issues.
11. SL: Uhm , [so what is]
12. SS: [Some local] Chinese.

From conversations between supervisors and supervisees, a schematic diagram is illustrated to show the use of stance taking and the construction of identity when making a follow up.
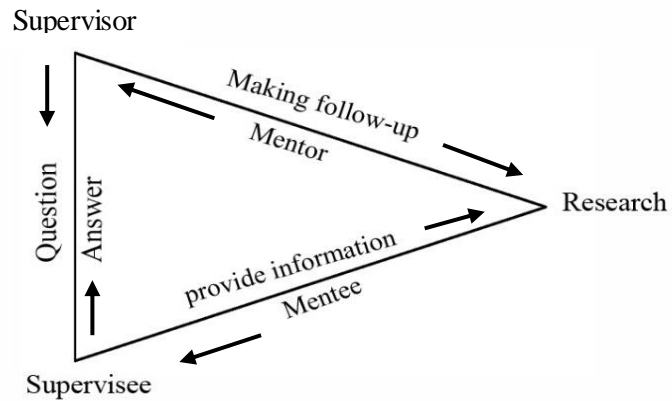
Figure 4.1 Stance Triangle in making follow-up

4.4.2 Identity of supervisor and supervisee in testing the knowledge of the supervisee

In testing the knowledge of the supervisee it is evident that supervisors and supervisees construct their identities which are evident when they take stance. The findings shown in Section 4.2 reveals that epistemic stance markers are commonly used in testing the knowledge of the supervisee. The use of epistemic stance markers indicates the higher use of epistemic stance taking in the second stage of the conversational structure.

In the conversation, it shows that when supervisors test the supervisees' knowledge they both construct their identities as expert for supervisors and neophyte for supervisees.

4.4.2.1 Supervisor as expert and supervisee as neophyte

Supervisors are always concerned whether their supervisees have the full understanding about their research. Supervisors would like to test to what extent the supervisees know about their research. Consequently, supervisors tend to position themselves as expert in the

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field who have the authority to critic and measure the supervisees' understanding about the research. On the other hand, the supervisees also position themselves as neophytes (beginners) in research writing and try to show that they do not have yet the expertise. Such identities become salient in the conversation as the interlocutors take stance and as they align themselves in the conversation. Such identity construction is evident in Conversation 7.

In turn 39, the supervisor starts with textual stance marker "*so*" to maintain the correct and logical flow of conversation then he asks the supervisee, "   *[so] how would you analyze the text from here?*" Such use of Wh-question of epistemic stance marker shows the certainty of the supervisor's question in testing the supervisee's knowledge. The supervisee replies in turn 40, saying *"(   ) it is in the exclusion part, right?"* Furthermore, the supervisor answers in turn 41 using the epistemic stance, saying, "*Yeah [right]*" which confirms the supervisee's answer in turn 40. It is clear in turns 39 that the supervisor is testing the supervisee's knowledge by evaluating the supervisee's understanding about the proposal by asking about how he is going to analyze the text which is evident in turn 41,*"Yeah [right]"*. Saying ,"*yeah,*" which is an epistemic stance indicates that the supervisor has the knowledge and knows more than the supervisee about the analysis. Doing this would indicate that the supervisor positions his identity as a person who is an expert. On the other hand, the supervisee in turn 40 positions himself as person who is neophyte in research.

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 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 in the example I told you just now, is the the government or the name of the government is is suppressed or like hidden
48. SL: Uhm
49. SS: But the the name could instead s- the families and relatives (   ) people who died =
50. SL: Do you have an idea on how to analyze this?
51. SS: Yeah

Similarly, the identity constructed in conversation 6 reveals the position taken by the supervisor as an expert and supervisee as neophyte. For instance in turn 39, the supervisor starts the conversation with an epistemic stance by asking the supervisee "*How would you analyze the attitudinal uhh meanings?*" The supervisee provided information about the analysis in turn 40 saying, "*Uhh um (0.1) first I wo- I would have take up uhhh um (0.4) uhh the text and then*" and turn 41 "*umm (0.1) analyzing it based on umm (0.1) what does (0.1) w- whi- which word is indicated umm shows his attitude towards words (0.1) uh [his ( )]*". The supervisor asks more questions in turn 45, "*[how] will you analyze the author's expression of attitude?*" and the supervisee replies in turns 46, 47 and 48 telling the types of the attitudinal meanings.

The occurrence of each turn in conversation 6 reflects how both the supervisor and supervisee position themselves to construct their identities. The questions made by the

supervisor in turns 39, 43, 45 and 49 show that he positions himself as an expert and try to test the knowledge of the supervisee about the methodological issue of the study since the Wh-questions indicate the certainty of the questions asked. It is also evident that the supervisee is able to align herself by answering the questions asked. However, the problems in the responses reflect the supervisees' lack of full understanding about the topic. Such stance taken by the supervisee reflects an identity of a neophyte researcher.

Conversation 6

39. SL: ↑How would you analyze the attitudinal uhh meanings?
40. SS: Uhh um (0.1) first I wo- I would have take up uhhh um (0.4) uhh the text and then
41. SS: umm (0.1) analyzing it based on umm (0.1) what does (0.1) w- whi- which word is indicated umm shows his attitude towards words (0.1) uh [his (   )]
42. SL: [so when] you talk (0.1) about attitude towards word (0.2)
43. SL: uhh umm when you say analyze the author's expression, what you want to do here?
44. SS: I'll be looking at uhh [how]
45. SL: [how] will you analyze the author's expression of attitude?
46. SS: Uhhum I'll be looking at umm the (0.1) uhhh polarity of the (0.2) of the: um attitude such as um there are (0.4)
47. SS: uhh umm (0.4) there are actually two types of uhh (0.2) two types of umm attitudinal meanings
48. SS: one is uhh direct which is uhh inscribe and everyone is umm (0.1) indirect (0.1) which is (0.1) going to be (0.4)
49. SL: So my question here is that (0.1) what will you, how will you analy- how would you examine the author's expression? (0.6)
50. SL: How would you analyze the author's expression of attitude, the author's expression of judgment? (0.14)
51. SL: So how how are you going to analyze it? =
52. SL: Because I don't think the second to analyze the reason for using may not ab- (0.2), the reason fo- of using attitudinal meanings in the plug (0.7)
53. SL: Because the objective, from the objective you must have a very clear uhm (0.1) understanding (0.7)

At this stage, the construction of identity of both supervisors and supervisees is further illustrated in the triangle. This illustrates how evaluation and positioning help in the construction of identity of both interlocutors. Below is a schematic diagram of the identity constructed by supervisor and supervisee when testing the knowledge of the supervisee.
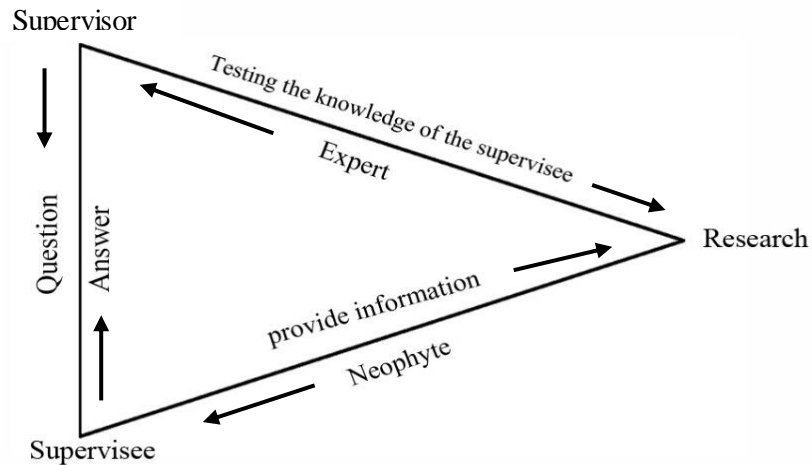

Figure 4.2 Stance Triangle in testing the knowledge of the supervisee

4.4.3 Identity of supervisor and supervisee in giving suggestion

In testing the knowledge of the supervisee in stage 2 of the conversational structure, the supervisor reveals his identity as expert, on the contrary, the supervisee projects an image of a neophyte who lacks the expertise in research. Similar identities are seen in giving suggestion when the supervisor positions himself as knowledgeable in the area that he is supervising and the supervisee constructs an identity of being a learner who tends to just simply absorb whatever the supervisor utters.   Such identities are evident and reflected through the stance that supervisor and supervisee take. The use of epistemic stance in this

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particular stage (see Section 4.2.3) highlights the superior knowledge of the supervisor towards his supervisee. Consequently, the supervisor constructs an identity as knowledgeable and the supervisee as learner.

4.4.3.1 Supervisors as knowledgeable and supervisees as learners

In conversation 8, the supervisor suggested the supervisee what to do in the study. By giving suggestions, he positions himself that he knows the topic. This is reflected in turn 119 when he said, "*so maybe we can have like, come up with a survey (0.2) like with many speakers =.*" In this conversation, the supervisor starts with logic by using textual stance "*so*" then he uses deontic stance, "maybe" and "can" in which he did not impose his suggestion. Other suggestions are done in turns 125, 126, 128 and 129 which further prove the identity that the supervisor portrays.

On the other hand, the supervisee constructs an identity as learner where she simply answers and agrees with what the supervisor has suggested. Such answers and agreeable responses of the supervisee are found in turns 122, 124, 130, 135 and 137. Having such agreeable responses, it indicates that the supervisors and supervisees align themselves in the interaction. Such identity construction is shown in Conversation 8.

Conversation 8

119.SL: so maybe we can have like, come up with a survey (0.2) like with many speakers =

120.SL: I think there are so many speakers of uhhh Malayalam

121.SL:How many you are (   )

122.SS: (   ) about your parents what did they speak [(   )]

123.SL: ↑ [I think] can you add more on

124.SS: the inter[view]

125.SL: ↑[but] the interview is fine that is enough, you say yo- you did ten interviews

126.SL: then perhaps you can ask mo:re on the (0.1) language choi- the [language] that they used

127.SS: [choice]

128.SL: Maybe you can have as many as you can

129.SL: ↑ Just give them ↓ like (0.1) what language did they speak, you know, are you looking to different domains here?

130.SS: Yeah , I did in the interview, I asked them about uhh [home]

131.SL: [which] domain?

132.SS: [Home]uhh social (0.2)uh and work

133.SL: [Home]

134.SL: work (0.1) and?

135.SS and uhhh, yeah home, social and work, these three domains

136.SL: ok, so these are the three domains?

137.SS: Yeah

138.SL: Then you can ask them like (0.1) uhhh what (0.1) what language do they speak? What language do they prefer? Ok what generation are they? So that you can have, because the more you get (0.1) the more (0.1) uhhh the more uhh how would I say uhhm solid your (0.1) your data is

139.SS: Ok

Similar findings are also revealed in conversation 9 where the supervisor constructs an identity as knowledgeable in the field and the supervisee constructs an identity as learner. In turn 181, the supervisor starts with logical reasoning then he made a strong comment by saying, "*So:, I don't like it's just simpl:e (0.1) superficial verbs .hhh and you must go deeply into this.*" Such comment is evident in the epistemic stance, "*I don't like*" which means that the supervisee's understanding of the topic is still not deep. Then a strong suggestion is made in turn 183 saying "*No, you must do the opposite.*" Such epistemic stance taken by the supervisor reflects his full knowledge about the topic.

Despite the strong comments and suggestions, the supervisee makes some agreeable responses in turns 182, 185, 191, 194 and 197 "*Ok*" with no further explanation. It can be observed in the entire conversation that the supervisee tries to align to his supervisor's comments and suggestions as shown in Conversation 9.

Conversation 9

181. SL: So:, I don't like it's just simpl:e (0.1) superficial verbs .hhh and you must go deeply into this
182. SS: Ok
183. SL: No, you must do the opposite
184. SL: Here: make it 80% all types of Sindhi verbs
185. SS: Ok
186. SL: And here never mind you just try ↑ any sentence you write, you can use the: (0.1) tree [diagram] =
187. SS: [tree diagram]
188. SL: = To show how it is different or: [similar]
189. SS: [similar]
190. SL: You see that?
191. SS: Ok
192. SL: And now the only point we didn't discuss is the data, .hhh (0.1)↑ ha data (0.3) (reading the proposal ...↓( ) data collection and data analysis, ↑ data will be collected through ( )) uh here here this now we: (0.1) under under ( )
193. SL: So now is like this (0.2) uhhh you have two options now, (0.1) either you have to look into the news (0.1) ok and you look at the verbs in Sindhi verbs how is it written
194. SS: Ok
195. SL: ↑ Or (0.1) you (0.1) make live interview (0.2)↓ with Sindhi nativespeaker (0.1) .hhh and let him spell let him speak all: I mean of course yo- yo- you don't ask him ok speak all the verbs in Sindhi language, not like this =
196. SL: Uhh what you do, you try to prepare 40 (0.1) or 30 questions, (0.1) ask him the questions
197. SS: Ok

From the conversations analyzed, a schematic digram has been formulated to show how the identity of the supervisors and supervisees are constructed.
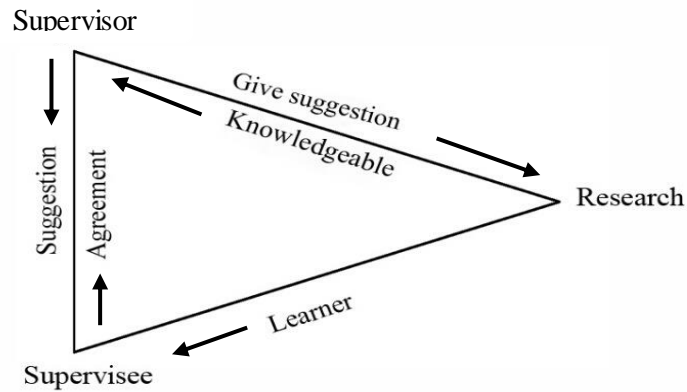
Figure 4.3 Stance Triangle in giving suggestion

4.4.4 Identity of supervisor and supervisee in seeking for clarification

In the fourth stage of the conversational structure in supervisor-supervisee interaction, the supervisor constructs an identity as counselor and the supervisee as counselee. Such identities constructed by both supervisor and supervisee are signaled by the stance they take in the interaction. At this stage, the supervisor makes more logical organization of the conversation to guide properly the supervisee but at the same maintains a strong stance on what has to be done in the study. This is the reason why the use of textual stance and epistemic stance are frequent at this stage (see Section 4.2.4). Such stance-taking and identities are reflected in Conversations 4 and 9.

4.4.4.1 Supervisor as counselor and supervisee as counselee

In conversation 4, the supervisor positions himself as a counselor who clarifies some issues which made the supervisee confused about the topic. On the other hand, the supervisee

positions as counselee by inquiring to the supervisor on what to do in the chosen topic of research. This is evident in turn 577 when the supervisee says, "*Not every paragraph for three objectives?*" who tries to inquire for clarification and explanation from the supervisor. The supervisor replies with an epistemic stance, "*No*" in turn 578 instructing the supervisee not to do so. Then he gives more explanations saying, "*No no it is too messy*". Furthermore, the supervisee asks in turn 602, "*And should I: uhhh (0.1) add some questions to this questionnaire as [(   )]*". The supervisor again replies with an epistemic stance "*Of course*" in turn 603 saying, "*[Of course] because this is uhh (0.1) maybe easy*" such reply shows that the clarification is certain so it does not bring any confusion to the supervisee.

It is also evident in the conversation that there is alignment between the supervisee and supervisor. When both interlocutors reach to the stage of agreeing on what they say it shows that they align themselves. This alignment in evident in turns 577-578, 581-582, 597-598, and 602-603. Moreover, the supervisor and supervisee reach certain agreement in the interaction in turns 598-600, and 605-606 which show an alignment in conversation as shown in Conversation 4.

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 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

Such identities constructed by the supervisor and supervisee are also seen in conversation 9. In the discussion between the supervisor and supervisee where the supervisor starts with textual stance "*But*" to maintain the correct flow of the conversation it is followed by a question from in turn 257, "*But I want to ask you, are the verbs in the dialect (0.1) similar to the verbs in th- standard?*" The supervisee replies in turn 258 saying, "*Uhh (0.1) they are, they are similar*". The supervisor in turn 259 clarifies the supervisee's answer in turn ↑258, "*They are similar? =*". Such utterance indicates that the supervisor wants to confirm if dialect and standard are similar. The supervisee replies in turn 260 with an epistemic stance "*yeah*" to show certainty in confirming his earlier stance that they are similar, "*Yeah they are similar (0.1).*" However, in the following turn, the supervisee uses textual stance to be

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coherent to the supervisor's earlier stance by saying *"but there are some verbs which are completely different"*. Such turn contradicts the supervisee'searlier stance in turns 258 and 260. Then the supervisee starts to give more explanation in turns 263, 265, 267, 268, 270, and 272. However, the supervisor asks in turn 273, *"Uhh so this is dialect? ="*The supervisee replies with epistemic stance to show his certainty in provide clarification in turn 274 saying, *"Yes Sir these two are dialects ="*.

It is evident in the excerpt in conversation 9 that there is alignment between the supervisor and supervisee in turns 257-258, 259-260, 273-1274, and 279-280.

Conversation 9

257. SL: But I want to ask you, are the verbs in the dialect (0.1) similar to the verbs in
        th- standard?
258. SS: Uhh (0.1) they are, they are similar
259. SL: ↑They are similar? =
260. SS: Yeah they are similar (0.1)
261. SS: But there are some verbs which are completely different
262. SL: How many? =
263. SS: But they mean they mean same things =
264. SL: Oh my goodness
265. SS: For example uhhh like this verb (0.19) there different verbs with different
        pronunciation
266. SL: Ok
267. SS: With different spelling, they mean the same one thing that is egg
268. SS: Uhh there is on part in Sind they said ('Batho')
269. SL: Ok
270. SS: ('Batho') and the other part like in uhhhh neighbors of mine, in my my
        province they said ('Ano') (0.2) others they say ('Undo')
271. SL: Uhm
272. SS: See uhh I mean, but in uhhh in standard (0.1) they try to use this one
273. SL: Uhh so this is dialect? =
274. SS: Yes Sir these two are dialects =
275. SL: This noun, isn't it? =
276. SS: ('Batho, Ano', 'Undo') is the: word between we understood by all Sindis
277. SL: Uhm

278. SS: This is standard, these are these two are different dialects
279. SL: ↑ But has the same meaning? Yeah? =
280. SS: Same meaning, (0.1) three of them are they have same meaning =

In the conversations, a schematic diagram is formulated to show how the supervisors and supervisees construct their idnetities as counselor and counselee.
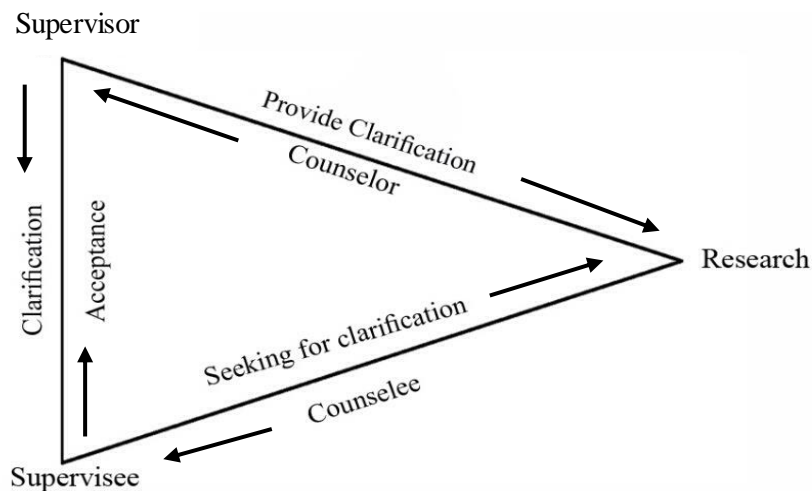
Supervisor

Figure 4.4 Stance Triangle in seeking for clarification

4.4.5 Identity of supervisor and supervisee in giving recommendation

When supervisor gives recommendation to the supervisee, both of them position themselves differently. The way they position themselves are influenced by the stance they take. In conversations 5 and 10, the supervisor positions as controller while the supervisee positions as follower.

The controlling personality of the supervisor is evident in the stance that is taken. It shows that epistemic stance is frequently used at this stage to signal the certainty and

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control of the supervisor (see Section 4.2.5). Consequently, the supervisee takes an identity of a follower because of the strong assertion shown by the supervisor in the conversation.

4.4.5.1 Supervisor as controller and supervisee as follower

From the interaction between supervisor and supervisee particularly in the stage of giving recommendation, it shows that both of them construct certain identities as controller and follower. Such identities are manifested through the stance that they take (see Section 4.2.5).

In conversation 5, the supervisor imposes to the supervisee on what he must do when he goes back. 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 supervisor. Moreover, a stronger stance taken in turn 336 which reflects the controlling identity constructed by the supervisor. On the other hand, the supervisee seems to follow what the supervisor recommends him to do. The supervisee's response in turn 337, *"Ok"* shows that he is constructing an identity who simply follows what the supervisor recommends. Such responses from the supervisee are also evident in turns 340 and 344. Moreover, in turns 338, 339, 341, 342 and 343 the supervisor further constructs an identity that he has the control.

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 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 certain 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

Similar identities are also constructed in conversation 10 where the supervisor constructs an identity as controller and the supervisee as follower. In turns 124, 125 and 126, the supervisor mentions, "*I think that one would sound mo:re realistic for me rather than uhh rather than the first.*", "*Perhaps you can look at here umm, (0.1) how language (0.1) influences (0.2) theemployability (0.4) of Chinese nationals (0.1) in Malaysia,(0.4) so this one would.*" and "*What languages, (0.1) you can look here what languages (0.1) are preferred (0.10) by (0.1) employers in hiring (0.1) Chinese (0.2) national,*" which shows the controlling personality of the supervisor. Such epistemic stance markers "I *think*", "*Perhaps*", and "*what*" (wh-question) which are used in the earlier turns assert the supervisor's certainty of his recommendations and at the same time asserts his identity as a person who has the control on what the student must do. In fact, such identities are also revealed in other turns, particularly in turns 129, 130, 131 and 132. It is evident that in this conversation, the entire discussion is dominated by the supervisor.

However, the overall structure of turns in the fifth stage of the conversational structure shows power relations (Jones, 2008-2009). In this stage, the supervisor is in

charge of the interaction all the time since he has the most turns at this stage. This indicates that the supervisor is exercising his authority towards the supervisee which reveals the identity of supervisor as controller.

Conversation 10

123.SL: And how language actually influences, you know, their employability.
124.SL: I think that one would sound more realistic for me rather than uhh rather than the first.
125.SL: Perhaps you can look at here umm, (0.1) how language (0.1) influences (0.2) the employability (0.4) of Chinese nationals (0.1) in Malaysia,(0.4) so this one would
126.SL: What languages, (0.1) you can look here what languages (0.1) are preferred (0.10) by (0.1) employers in hiring (0.1) Chinese (0.2) national.
127.SL: Right?
128.SL: And you said that it is too difficult for them to be hired, am I right?
129.SL: (0.5) so maybe you can look at on this area.
130.SL: I don't know but it is just my suggestion for you, if you would be interested in that area ok, rather than looking in another uhh in another perspective.
131.SL: So, may be you can look at uhh how (0.2), you know, how language influences the employability of Chinese national?
132.SL: And what languages are actually <u>preferred</u> by employers in hiring this Chinese national.

In the Conversations, a schematic diagram is formulated to illustrate how the identities of the supervisors and supervisees are constructed.
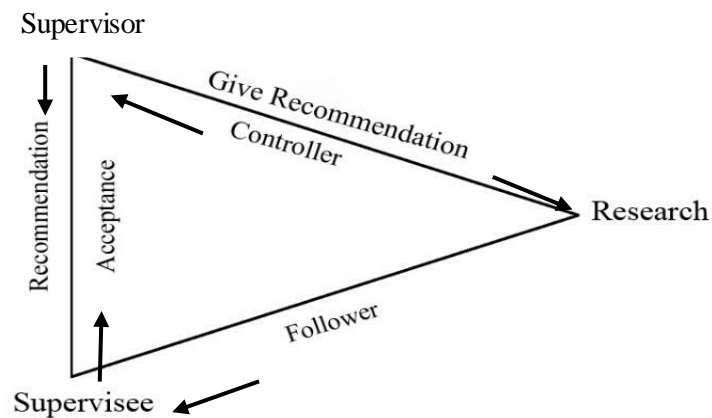
Figure 4.5 Stance Triangle in giving recommendation

4.4.6 Identity of supervisor and supervisee in making conclusion

The last stage of the conversational structure in supervisor-supervisee interaction shows how they ended the interaction and the identities that they construct towards the end of the conversation. From the data, it reveals that the supervisor constructs an identity as responsible to the supervisee's research and the supervisee, on the other hand, constructs an identity of being grateful for the guidance given by the supervisor. Such identities are signaled by the stance they take. It is evident that the use of attitudinal stance has been frequently used at this stage (see Section 4.2.6) which reflects the relationship of both supervisor and supervisee. As a result, supervisor shows the responsibility towards the supervisee and the supervisee's research. Similarly, the supervisee shows grateful attitude or behavior towards the supervisor. Such identities are revealed in conversations 8 and 9.

4.4.6.1 Supervisor as responsible and supervisee as grateful

In conversation 8, the supervisor positions himself as responsible by telling the supervisee what to do in order to finish the study within the stipulated time. This is evident in turns 440, 442, 444, and 445 *"So: I think you need to: you need to: work on with that fast"*, *"So that we have enough time to [re:-]"*, *"Uhhh edit as well because I need to (0.1), I'm trying also to: edit your work ="* and *"Maybe you can, I know if it is uhh if it is (0.1) long then sometimes we: overlook uh quite [lots of things]"*. On the other hand, the supervisee seems to be grateful for the discussion who has been very thankful. Such identity is evident in turns 458

and 459 in which the supervisee utters *"Thank you"* which reflects an attitude of being grateful. The identities constructed by the supervisor and supervisee re shown in Conversation 8.

Conversation 8

440.SL: So: I think you need to: you need to: work on with that fast
441.SS: Uhm
442.SL: So that we have enough time to [re:-]
443.SS: [finish it]
444.SL: Uhhh edit as well because I need to (0.1), I'm trying also to: edit your work =
445.SL: Maybe you can, I know if it is uhh if it is (0.1) long then sometimes we: overlook uh quite [lots of things]
446.SS: [I will give it] to someone for editing
447.SL: Later on, that would be later on once you have done everything, once we have (0.1) fix uhhh everything then (0.1) that is the time that you have to ask someone to uhh go for editing
448.SL: Yeah
449.SS: I need about two weeks because I need to do the questionnaire and only (   )
450.SL: Yeah two weeks Yeah
451.SL: ↑But for the: for the: analysis for the sixty then you go for the: percentage =
452.SL: you don't need to you don't need to really look into like some statistical analysis, just go for the:
453.SS: Percentage =
454.SL: Percentage Yeah
455.SS: And presenting table of
456.SL: Yeah tables
457.SL: Ok
458.SS: Ok
459.SS: Thank you

Similar identities are constructed by both supervisor and supervisee in conversation 9. In turn 436, the supervisor tries to sum up everything that has been discussed, *"That we discuss about this and that, (0.1) and if there is any comment from her, let me know:."* In turn 438, it shows how the supervisor reveals his responsibility to the supervisee by saying, *"Any (0.1) major changes she wants to add, let me know because by next week I will talk to*

the: (0.1) them". On the other hand, the supervisee seems to be grateful particularly in his responses in turn 453 where he says "*Thank you Sir*".

Conversation 9

    436.SL: That we discuss about this and that, (0.1) and if there is any comment from her, let me know:

    437.SS: Inshallah

    438.SL: Any (0.1) major changes she wants to add, let me know because by next week I will talk to the: (0.1) them

    439.SS: Yes Sir

    440.SL: To set the date for the: (0.1) proposal defense

    441.SS: Sure Inshallah

    442.SL: I want you (0.1), at least step one to be clear =

    443.SS: Me to I want so, because I want to work (0.2) almost (0.1) 70% in this year

    444.SL: You mean oh (0.1) you mean uhhh 2014?

    445.SS: Two thousand

    446.SL: Thirteen

    447.SS: Thirteen

    448.SL: Mid

    449.SS: To mid of the fourteen

    450.SL: Yes because once they say ok go ahead, (0.1) ↑finish go ahead, ↓be: (0.1)go in details

    451.SS: Yes Sir

    452.SL: Ok

    453.SS: Thank you Sir

In the Conversations, a schematic diagram is formulated to illustrate how the supervisors and supervisees' identities are constrcuted.
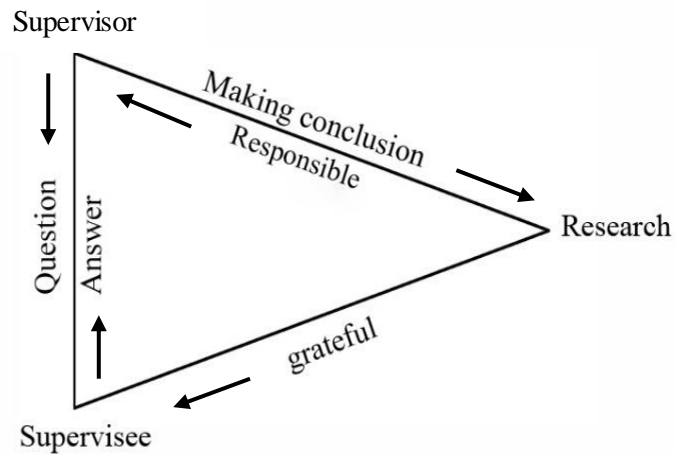
Figure 4.6 Stance Triangle in making conclusion

4.5 Conclusion

The findings of the study show that in supervisor-supervisee interaction, they follow certain stages in the conversational structure. This study proposes that there are 6 stages in supervisor-supervisee interaction such as making follow-up, testing the knowledge of the supervisee, giving suggestion, seeking for clarification, giving recommendation and making conclusion. In every stage, it also shows that different stance takings occur which are reflected by the stance markers used by the supervisor and supervisee. It reveals that epistemic stance markers, textual stance markers, attitudinal stance markers and deontic stance markers are commonly used.

Furthermore, the findings reveal that in every stance that the supervisors and supervisees take, they position their identities. Such identities shift from one stage to another. Generally, the supervisors position themselves as mentor, expert, counselor,

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knowledgeable, controller and responsible. On the other hand, the supervisees position themselves as mentee, neophyte, counselee, learner, follower and grateful.

A detailed summary of the findings of the study, conclusion, and recommendations are provided in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This Chapter discusses the conclusions and recommendations of the study. The first part of the chapter presents the summary of findings which illustrates how the three research questions of the study are answered. Then conclusions are provided followed by the recommendations of the study.

5.2. Summary of findings

This section provides a detailed summary of findings which answers the three research questions such as, (1) what are the stages in conversation or conversational structure used in supervisor-supervisee interaction?, (2) what are the types of stance taking used in every stage or conversational structure in supervisor-supervisee interaction? and (3) what identity/identities do supervisors and supervisees construct when they take a stance in conversation?

5.2.1 What are the stages in conversation or conversational structure used in supervisor-supervisee interaction?

The findings of the study reveal that there are six stages or conversational structure in supervisor-supervisee interaction which occur in order. The stages start by making follow-up, testing the knowledge of the supervisee, giving suggestion, seeking for clarification, giving recommendations and making conclusion. In making follow-up, supervisors usually begin with a question by asking the supervisees about the progress of their studies. In testing the knowledge of the supervisee, supervisors measure and test the supervisees' knowledge and understanding about their research. At this stage, the supervisors would like to know how far their supervisees know the methodological framework of the study. The third stage is giving suggestions where the supervisors provide suggestions to the supervisees to help them to improve their proposals particularly the objectives, research questions, data gathering and data analysis. In seeking for clarification, both supervisors and supervisees seek for explanations about specific issues encountered in the interaction. However, in this stage the supervisees start to look for clarification on specific issues by asking questions to the supervisors. At this stage, the supervisors provide explanations to the supervisees on what they should do. The fifth stage of the interaction is giving recommendations where supervisors start to give and provide recommendations to the supervisees on what to improve their research proposal. The last stage in the conversational structure is making conclusion. This stage of interaction concludes the discussion between the supervisors and supervisee. However, in this stage the supervisors give an opportunity for the supervisees to ask questions about their studies before they end the interaction.

5.2.2 What are the types of stance taking used in every stage or conversational structure in supervisor-supervisee interaction?

To analyze the stance taking there is a need to know the stance markers since they index the stance taken by each interlocutor. Based on the findings of the study, different stages in conversational structure use different stance markers. The findings reveal that textual stance markers are prominent in making follow-up. The frequency of occurrences show that textual stance markers have 29 occurrences (39.19%) followed by attitudinal stance with 26 occurrences (35.14%), the epistemic stance with 16 occurrences (21.62%) and lastly, the deontic stance with 3 occurrences (4.05%).

On the other hand, in testing the knowledge of the supervisee, the findings show that epistemic stance markers have the highest frequency of occurrences with a total of 40 occurrences (49%), textual stance markers with 25 occurrences (31%) followed by the attitudinal stance markers with 13 occurrences (16%) and finally, the deontic stance with 3 occurrences (4%). Similarly, in giving suggestions epistemic stance has higher frequency of occurrence with a total of 63 occurrences (41%), followed by textual stance with 53 occurrences (34%), then attitudinal stance which is 23 (15%) and followed by deontic stance with 16 occurrences (10%).

In seeking for clarification, textual stance markers have higher frequency as compared to epistemic stance, attitudinal stance and deontic stance. Textual stance markers have 31 occurrences (35%), epistemic stance has 24 occurrences (27%), attitudinal stance

has 21 occurrences (24%) and deontic stance has 12 occurrences (14%). However, in giving recommendation the use of epistemic stance markers has 36 occurrences (31%) followed by deontic stance, attitudinal stance and textual stance having 26 occurrences (23%). Lastly, in making conclusion, attitudinal stance markers, have high frequency of occurrences with 42 occurrences (42.86%) followed by epistemic stance with 24 occurrences (24.49%), textual stance with 19 occurrences (19.38%) and deontic stance with 13 occurrences (13.27%).

5.2.3 What identity/identities do supervisors and supervisees construct when they take a stance in conversation?

The findings of the study reveal that through the interaction between supervisors and supervisees, the interlocutors construct different identities when they take stance in every stage of interactional structure.By taking stance, supervisors and supervisees try to position themselves to show their identities.

The findings of the study show that there is an identity shift from one stage to another. However, supervisors and supervisees construct two contrasting identities in every stage of conversational structure. In making follow-up, the supervisors construct certain identity as mentor whereas, supervisees construct an identity as mentee. On the other hand, in testing the knowledge of the supervisee, the supervisors construct an identity as experts in the field of research who have the authority to test and measure the supervisees' understanding about their research while the supervisees position themselves as neophytes

in research writing. However, in giving suggestions, supervisors and supervisees portray an identity as knowledgeable in their areas of expertise. On the other hand, the supervisees position themselves as learners who accept the suggestions from their supervisors.

In seeking for clarification, an identity as counselor is constructed by the supervisors who clarify and explain some issues about the topic that makes the supervisees confused. But the supervisees position themselves as counselee by inquiring to the supervisor on what to do in the chosen topic of research. Whereas, in giving recommendation, the supervisors position their identity as controller who impose to the supervisees on what they should do. On the other hand, the supervisees construct an identity as followers who accept and follow what has been recommended by the supervisor.

Lastly, both supervisors and supervisees construct different identities in making conclusion. The supervisors in this stage position their identities as responsible in which they hold responsibilities on the supervisees' work. On the other hand, the supervisees construct their identities as grateful. They are grateful to supervisors for their guidance and help.

5.3 Conclusions

The findings of the study reveal that in supervisor and supervisee interactions they follow six stages in the conversational structure. In each stage, different stance markers are also found which reflect the various stances taken in every stage. Furthermore, different

identities are constructed by the supervisors and supervisees in each stage. Such identities constructed are salient and indexed by the stance markers that each interlocutor use.

In the conversational structure, it is evident that when supervisors and supervisees interact they follow certain procedure from the beginning to end such as making follow up, testing the knowledge of the supervisee, giving suggestions, seeking for clarification, giving recommendation and making conclusion. These stages are seen to be helpful in making the interaction successful. The success in the conversation is also a product of maintaining good relationship between the supervisees and supervisors. In every stage, it is also evident that supervisors and supervisees do not argue but there is always convergence since the supervisees always accept the supervisors' viewpoint. It can be said that postgraduate students in the Master program do not argue to their supervisors but they just simply accept and agree with their supervisor's ideas. This conforms to the findings of Tracey, Ellickson, and Sherry (1989) who explain that neophyte supervisees, who have experienced writing thesis for first time seemed to follow their supervisors and prefer to have a structured supervision regardless of the topic discussed.

On the other hand, the use of stance markers in the interaction has helped in making the conversation successful. With frequent occurrence of epistemic stance markers in the entire interaction reflects that both supervisors and supervisees are very much particular about the certainty and truthfulness of the information or events during the conversation. This also reflects that the interaction between the supervisor and supervisee can be formal in some instances,however it can be considered as informal in some contexts. The formality

and informality of conversations are evident through the occurrence of textual and attitudinal stance markers.

Furthermore, the findings of the study also emphasize the identity construction. Throughout the data it is clear that in most conversational utterances, the supervisors and supervisees tend to position themselves when they construct their identities. The findings reveal that supervisees construct their identities as Mentor, Expert, Knowledgeable, Counselor, Controller and Responsible while the supervisees construct their identities as Mentee, Neophyte, Learners, Counselee, Follower and Grateful. Such identity construction has also contributed in the success of the interaction. For instance, when supervisors construct an identity as a mentor they are able to provide guidance to the supervisees. When they construct an identity as an expert they are able to assess the supervisees' understanding and knowledge about the topic of the study which resulted in giving suggestions to supervisees to improve their studies. However, by giving suggestions, supervisors construct an identity as knowledgeable who can give suggestions to the supervisees to make their study more valid and reliable. In constructing an identity of counselor, the supervisors are able to a provide clarification about issues that cause confusion for the supervisees. While in constructing an identity of controller, the supervisors tend to impose their recommendation to the supervisees on what they should do about the study. Finally, in constructing an identity of being responsible, the supervisors tend to be responsible about their supervisees' research.

The identities that emerge from the interaction between supervisor and supervisee provide clear explanation on 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 are somehow influenced the way they react or respond to a situation. For instance when the supervisor becomes demanding and controlling then it may limit the supervisees' responses. Consequently, supervisees become a follower and stop to present their own arguments about the study.

The issue on stance-taking and identity construction in supervisor-supervisee interaction provides clear platform in improving the relationship between supervisor and supervisee. Achieving good relationship between supervisor and supervisee may eventually contribute to the success of the supervisee to complete the study on time or earlier.

5.4 Recommendations

This study provides some recommendations for future studies in the area of stance-taking in conversation. Since this study limits its data in the verbal interactions it is recommended that non-verbal communication could be a promising area to study in stance-taking. This means that analysis of stance-taking could also include the non-verbal cues in an interaction and how such non-verbal actions influence the identity constructed by each interlocutor. Moreover, it is also recommended in this study that there is a need to include

the use of modalities in future studies to examine how they enhance the occurrence of

stance-taking and identity construction in an interaction.

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