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Multi-dimensional Analysis, Text Constellations, and Interdisciplinary Discourse

Susan Hunston, Akira Murakami, Paul Thompson and Dominik Vajn

Abstract

Multi-Dimensional Analysis (MDA) has been widely used to explore register variation. This paper reports on a project that uses MDA in an innovative fashion, in order to explore the features of interdisciplinary research discourse in a particular broad academic domain. Firstly, MDA is used to identify dimensions of variation in a corpus of eleven thousand journal articles in the domain of environmental studies, from a mixture of monodisciplinary and interdisciplinary journals. We then focus on the texts published in one journal, *Global Environmental Change*, in the period 1990-2010. This is an interdisciplinary journal and it might therefore be expected that the papers within it diverge in terms of disciplinary approach sufficiently to produce differences that are analogous to register differences. On the other hand, those ‘registers’ cannot be identified on external criteria, as they do not explicitly state their disciplinary derivation, so an alternative approach is required: an inductive approach. Instead of identifying registers on external criteria and comparing them, we use the dimensional profiles of individual texts to identify clusters of texts, here termed ‘constellations’, that share combinations of features and that might therefore be said to constitute a distinct ‘register’. Using this methodology, we have derived six constellations of texts within an interdisciplinary journal, distinguished by their dimensional profile. Analysis of each of the constellations indicates that they consist of texts that have commonalities in their approaches to research approaches, based around: the development of predictive models; quantitative and historical research; discussions of theory and policy; and human-environment studies that focus on individual voices. The identification of these constellations could not have been achieved through an a priori categorisation of texts.

1. Introduction

Since its inception in the 1980s (Biber 1988), Multi-Dimensional Analysis (MDA) has been extensively used to explore register variation. It has two main advantages over other approaches to the study of variation: it makes no a priori assumptions about how registers

will be different from one another, and it can target a large number of features simultaneously, rather than focusing on a few (often more or less arbitrarily selected) features. MDA has proven so successful in demonstrating the dimensions of variation between clearly distinctive registers, such as ‘news reports’ versus ‘telephone conversations’, that its principles have been adopted to show variation between corpora of texts that might be expected to vary in a less extreme way, such as research articles, textbooks and essays written in different academic disciplines (e.g. Biber 2006; Hardy & Römer 2013; Gardner, Biber & Nesi 2015).

The project reported in this paper uses MDA, and combines the methodology central to that tradition with substantial innovation. The corpus is unusually, though not uniquely (see, for example, Friginal & Weigle 2014), broadly homogeneous in topic, comprising research articles published in eleven journals that focus on environmental concerns. As is usual in MDA, factor analysis is used to identify dimensions, and the dimensions are used to compare sub-corpora; in this case, each sub-corpus is one journal. As all the texts are academic in nature, and are concerned with similar issues, a considerable degree of overlap is expected between the sub-corpora. Our purpose in using MDA is to ascertain the degrees of linguistic variation between and within the eleven journals.

The second part of the study overturns the methodological assumption underpinning previous research using MDA, that registers are identified on external criteria and compared. The investigation uses the texts published in only one journal: *Global Environmental Change*. This is a self-proclaimed interdisciplinary journal and it might therefore be expected that the papers within it diverge in terms of disciplinary approach sufficiently to produce differences that are analogous to register differences. On the other hand, those ‘registers’ cannot be identified on external criteria: for example, most of the papers do not advertise themselves explicitly as deriving from one discipline or another. Our aim, then, is to use the dimensional profiles of individual texts to identify clusters of texts, here termed ‘constellations’, that share combinations of features and that might therefore be said to constitute a distinct ‘register’. Using this methodology, we have derived constellations of texts within an interdisciplinary journal, distinguished by their dimensional profile.

The research questions to be addressed in this paper are:

- In a corpus comprising full-length research papers from 11 journals on the topic of environmental studies, what dimensions of variation are observable?
- On the basis of these dimensions, how distinct is each journal? In particular, are those

journals designated ‘interdisciplinary’ demonstrably different from the others?

- When the novel methodology proposed by this paper is applied to the texts in *Global Environmental Change*, what constellations of texts can be observed and how can they be interpreted?

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 Multi-Dimensional Analysis

Register is, as Egbert et al. (2015: 1817) note, ‘one of the most important predictors of linguistic variation’. It has been defined as ‘variation according to use’ (Halliday & Hasan 1990:41) or ‘situationally defined varieties’ (Biber et al. 2015: 13). Multi-Dimensional analysis is a method of comparing registers ‘with respect to sets of co-occurring linguistic features’ (Biber 2006: 178) and is based on the theory that these patterns of co-occurrence co-vary with the ‘functional dimensions of texts’ (Friginal & Weigle 2014, citing Grieve et al. 2010). It is a bottom-up, data-driven form of analysis, that relies on the outcome of factor analysis to identify which bundle(s) of features will distinguish between two given registers. Possibly its most striking insight (Biber 1985; 1988), is that registers appear in different configurations along different dimensions, so that the distinguishing features of registers are indeed multi-dimensional.

As noted above, MDA was first used to distinguish between registers that would be expected to be very different from each other, based on their very different contexts of production and reception. Subsequently its use has been extended. Of most relevance to this paper, it has been used extensively to study variation in academic discourse, for example comparing professional writing in academic disciplines (Biber et al. 1998; Biber 2006; Kanoksilapatham 2007), sub-disciplinary variation (Gray 2013; 2015), student writing in different disciplines (Hardy & Römer 2013; Gardner et al. 2015; Hardy & Friginal 2016), and L2 writing (Friginal & Weigle 2014). These studies use the same methodology as Biber’s original study to derive ‘new’ dimensions, that is, dimensions that are different from the ones proposed in Biber (1988) and that depend on the variation identifiable in the given corpus. For example, Hardy and Römer (2013) identify four dimensions that distinguish between disciplines represented in the MICUSP corpus (2009). Ten disciplines are compared in

relation to these dimensions. The configuration of disciplines is different in each dimension.

It is apparent that MDA may be applied to studies of variation that are more finely-grained than the original register studies. Gray (2013), for example, distinguishes ‘types’ of research article (theoretical, qualitative and quantitative) and considers each type a ‘register’, placing that word in inverted commas: each type is a register in MD terms if not in other terms. Even further removed from archetypal register variation is Friginal & Weigle’s (2014) comparison of L2 texts. The key variables in this relatively homogeneous corpus are: the point in the academic semester at which the texts were written; and the assessment scores that they were given. Friginal & Weigle identify four dimensions and use them to track student progress. Dimension 1, for example, distinguishes ‘involved’ and ‘informational’ writing. As students progress over time, their writing becomes more informational, and the essays with the higher grades are also more informational than involved.

What all the above studies have in common is that a division between registers is made prior to the application of MDA. In other words, the methodology relies on comparison between sub-corpora that have been identified on external criteria. The discipline to which a research article belongs may be identified by the title of the journal in which it is published, for example. Where no external criteria are available, substitutes for these criteria are used to impose sub-corpus divisions. Biber et al. (2015), for example, aiming to produce a ‘corpus-based taxonomy of web registers’, train readers to assign web texts to register categories, and the final categories are based on levels of agreement between readers. Gray (2013, 2015) follows an established ESP (English for Specific Purposes) practice of consulting subject specialist informants (Huckin & Olsen 1984) when deciding which journals to sample for each discipline and also how to distinguish the types of research article. As will be described in more detail below, in designing our research project, we have decided to revise the usual MDA methodology to a new purpose, in the following way. When applying MDA to the journal *Global Environmental Change* we have not taken the prior step of dividing the texts into groups. We have made an alternative use of MDA to derive constellations of texts in a ‘bottom-up’ way (cf. Biber 1989). This, we believe, is in keeping with the data-driven ethos that is at the heart of the MD method.

2.2 Disciplinary variation

In addition to the MDA studies mentioned in the previous section, there has been a plethora

of corpus-based linguistic studies of disciplinary variation. They have been primarily motivated by the needs of Languages for Special Purposes teachers (LSP) and materials developers (particularly in the field of English for Academic Purposes) for more accurate descriptions of language use in specific discourses.

The increasing availability of texts in digital form, and of corpus analysis tools and techniques has led to the uptake of corpus linguistic methods for the investigation of disciplinary variation. While there have been studies of disciplinary variation in spoken genres (for example, Poos and Simpson 2002 or Csomay 2002), the bulk of academic corpus research has focused on written language. Hyland, perhaps most notably, has used a corpus of 240 research articles (1.4 million words) with 30 research papers from each of eight disciplines in the sciences, engineering, social sciences, and humanities, to investigate a range of features including: citations (Hyland 2001a), engagement features (Hyland 2001b) and lexical bundles (Hyland 2008). Other examples of corpus-based disciplinary variation studies are: Hu and Wang (2014) have also looked at citation practices across disciplines, as well as first language, in a corpus of 84 research articles; Groom (2005) explored phraseology in History and Literature reviews and articles; Charles (2006) examined finite reporting clauses followed by that in a corpus of politics and material science theses. As well as studies which focus on variation between disciplines, there have been some that have looked at variation within a discipline, such as McGrath's (2016) investigation of self-mentions in anthropology and history research articles.

In these studies, the concept of discipline has generally been assumed rather than problematised. A rare exception is Mauranen (2006) who observes that disciplines are often defined on institutional criteria with contestation over the hierarchical structuring of disciplinary categories and these vary between cultures and over time. Mauranen chooses to distinguish between two broad disciplinary domains: Natural Sciences & Technology, and Social Sciences & Humanities. These are by no means the only divisions possible. Other academic corpus developers divide the scientific cake into:

- Applied Sciences and Professions; Humanities; Social Sciences; Natural/Formal Sciences (Ackermann and Chen 2013)
- Arts and Humanities; Life Sciences; Physical Sciences; Social Sciences (Alsop & Nesi 2009)

These competing taxonomies suggest that plotting the disciplinary map is far from straightforward. It might in fact be more true to say that, just as disciplines as discrete

organizational units may be a construct of institutions such as universities, so disciplines as discrete discourses may be a construct of the comparative linguistic research carried out on them.

An alternative, inductive approach is taken by Durrant (2015) in his study of four-word bundles in the BAWE corpus (Alsop & Nesi 2009). Rather than first assigning each text to a disciplinary category, Durrant quantifies all four-token sequences in 1588 texts, and calculates the number of sequences shared between each text and the others. He then clusters the texts according to their similarities and arrives at what he describes as ‘emergent disciplinary groupings’ (ibid:6). These groupings do resemble traditional divisions into ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ disciplines (Biglan 1973) but they are derived from the data rather than from a division of the corpus on external criteria. Although we are working with dimensions rather than n-grams, our work has this in common with Durrant’s, that we identify groups of texts in a data-driven way.

3. The Birmingham-Elsevier Environment Corpus

The corpus compiled for this project, the **Birmingham-Elsevier Environment Corpus**, consists of specialized texts amounting to just over 50 million tokens. It comprises papers from the journal *Global Environmental Change* (hereafter, GEC) and from 10 other journals that relate either to the field of environmental science / environmental studies, or to disciplines that themselves are often included in environmental studies (life sciences, economics, social sciences). The journals were selected from those published by our partners in the project, Elsevier.¹ From the perspective of a journal publisher, the high rate of failure of interdisciplinary journals is perplexing and challenging and so there is a need for a better understanding of what constitutes success and failure;² in response to this we selected as the primary object of our study a journal – GEC – that Elsevier UK identify as successful, as it has appeared continuously over more than two decades and has maintained its broad, interdisciplinary appeal. To set this journal in the context of other journals in the same domain and to facilitate a contrast between mono- and inter-disciplinarity, we then identified five monodisciplinary journals and five interdisciplinary ones, in addition to GEC.

Typically, as stated in the previous section, corpus studies of disciplinary variation have selected texts for corpus inclusion by identifying journals that are deemed central to the ‘discipline’, using strategies such as asking specialist informants to identify key journals

(Hyland 2000), or looking at impact factor scores in order to identify the most ‘valued’ journals within a discipline (Giannoni 2010). Prior research on disciplines therefore depends on selectivity to ensure prototypicality in the demarcation of disciplines.

This study breaks with that tradition. Selection appears only on three points: the choice of journals, the time period, and the exclusion of texts within each volume that did not constitute a full-length research article. Otherwise we have included all the research papers published in eleven journals in a given time period (with extra for one journal), in order to capture variation within the complete array. There is no attempt to achieve a corpus of prototypical articles.

We did, however, attempt to include both mono- and inter-disciplinary journals, and here we did use external criteria. To classify and therefore select the journals we used: (i) normalized subject counts in Scopus³ and (ii) the use of a clustering coefficient on citations. In the first step, if a journal is assigned to a larger number of subjects than a typical journal in the same field, it was considered interdisciplinary, while if it belonged to a smaller number of subjects, it was considered monodisciplinary. For the second step, a map of journals was created by Elsevier based on citation relationships in Scopus, such that journals not citing each other are placed further apart than those that do cite each other. On the assumption that papers tend to cite papers in the same discipline, monodisciplinary journals should have most of the citation links nearby. Clustering coefficients reveal how well-connected a journal is in the map and take into account the connections of the other journals to which it is connected. Journals were considered as monodisciplinary if the coefficients indicate that they are connected to the journals that are well-connected to one another, and interdisciplinary if they are connected to journals that are not connected to one another. While these methods are not watertight, it is important to note that our aim was not to define every journal published by Elsevier as either monodisciplinary or interdisciplinary, but simply to have a principled reason for selecting the 10 journals, in addition to GEC, for our corpus. This procedure resulted in the following journals being selected for the corpus alongside GEC: the interdisciplinary journals comprise Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment (AEE), BioSystems (B), Computers, Environment and Urban Systems (CEUS), Environmental Pollution (EP), and the Journal of Rural Studies (JRS); the monodisciplinary journals comprise Advances in Water Resources (AWR), Journal of Strategic Information Systems (JSIS), Plant Science (PS), Resource and Energy Economics (REE), and Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment (TRTE). GEC has been in publication since 1990, and the other journals have been published since 1996 or earlier.

From GEC, the corpus includes all the articles from the first volume (1990/1991) up to Volume 20 (2010), while from the other journals it includes all the articles from the issues published between 2001 and 2010. This difference is because articles before 2000 had to be processed manually (converted from PDF to text using OCR and then checked exhaustively for conversion errors) and there was scope within the project to carry out this procedure for only our main target journal. It is possible that the difference in time span could have affected our results, but given the overall spread of the corpus this is unlikely because the time period is not that large.

The corpus includes full-length research articles and excludes non-research papers such as book reviews. Only the main body text is included; other sections of the research papers such as abstract, footnotes, appendices, tables and figures are excluded. Since mathematical symbols and equations can cause problems in automated feature extraction, they have been replaced with the non-word *EQSYM*. For the sake of reliability in computing the frequency of linguistic features, it was necessary to exclude those papers whose body sections are 2000 words or less (Biber, 1990: 261). As a result, 501 papers (4.3%) were excluded.

Appendix 1 shows the size of the corpus, including the number of papers, the number of tokens, and the average length of paper in each journal in each year. In total, the corpus comprises 11,201 papers with a total corpus size of 51.4 million tokens. It is noticeable that the amount of data varies substantially across journals with an increase over time. In addition to this numerical data, it is important to note that the texts in the corpus do not share conventional forms of organization such as the IMRD (Introduction-Methods-Results-Discussion) model or equivalent – there is considerable variation in the patterns of organization within the corpus. This made it unfeasible to compare equivalent sections, e.g. all Methods sections, across the corpus, which would otherwise have been an obvious way to proceed.

4. Methodology

4.1 Identifying and interpreting dimensions

To perform multidimensional analysis, we first identified the linguistic features to be included in the analysis. The goal at this stage is to include as many potentially important

features as possible (Biber 1985, 1988, 1995; Conrad & Biber 2001). The present study started with a list of over 150 features. Each linguistic feature was identified and its frequency counted with the Biber tagger (Biber 1988). The tagger identifies some features (e.g. demonstrative pronouns) with the aid of part-of-speech tagging, and others (e.g. abstract nouns) by using vocabulary lists. Many were eliminated because they were at a high level of generality and overlapped with the more specific features that were retained. Others were merged to avoid redundancy. A few were eliminated or merged because they did not distinguish between the texts in our corpus. The result of this elimination and merging of categories was a list of 53 features; these are shown in Appendix 2, which shows the normalized frequency (per 1,000 words) and the standard deviation of each feature.

An exploratory factor analysis was then used to identify co-occurrence patterns among the 53 linguistic features.⁴ The process works by identifying systematic patterns of shared variance. The frequency of each linguistic feature varies across texts, so that Feature X may have a high frequency in a certain text but a low frequency in another. This pattern, or variance, is more or less shared by other features. If Feature Y shows a similar pattern to Feature X, the two features have a large shared variance.

This factor analysis was run on the normalized frequency of the linguistic features. Factors were extracted with principal factor solution, in which the first factor captures the largest amount of shared variance, the second factor captures the largest shared variance after the first factor is extracted, and so on. MDA requires the researcher to select the number of factors to be used. We decided on a six-factor solution based on the scree plot (Figure 1) that shows the amount of explained variance, communality values that indicate the extent to which the variance of each feature is captured by the factors, and the factorial structure and its interpretability. A Promax rotation was applied to facilitate the interpretation of each factor. Table 1 shows the inter-factor correlation.

Table 1: Inter-factor correlation

	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Factor4	Factor5
Factor2	0.535				
Factor3	0.311	0.469			
Factor4	0.290	0.312	0.244		
Factor5	0.126	0.100	0.242	0.126	
Factor6	0.200	0.143	0.236	0.105	0.135

Appendix 3 lists the factor loadings for each feature in each factor. Factor loadings are the

correlation between each feature and the factor and they indicate the degree to which a feature is representative of the factor. The factor loading of 0.30 was set as the cut-off point and a feature was retained in the final factorial model only if its loading was above the threshold. In common with standard practice in MDA, if a feature loaded over 0.30 in more than one factor, it was retained only in the factor on which it loaded highest. This practice ensures that the factors are entirely discrete.

Table 2 shows the resulting factorial structure. The factors were then interpreted as dimensions, using as input for the interpretation both the positively and, where relevant, negatively loaded features in each factor. Papers that are highly positive or negative on each factor were then subjected to contrastive reading by the research team. We break with MD tradition in presenting the dimensions here only in outline, for reasons of space. Exemplification will be reserved for the more innovative stage of analysis, the Text Constellations (see Section 5.2 below). In each case our interpretative mnemonic for the dimension will be given together with a summary of significant features.

Table 2 Factorial Structure

Feature	Loading	Feature	Loading
Factor 1		Factor 3	
abstract noun	0.729	second person pronoun and possessive	0.866
indefinite article	0.712	contraction	0.757
present tense verb	0.687	third person pronoun and possessive except <i>it</i>	0.604
stance noun in other contexts	0.595	nominal pronoun	0.462
determiner + stance noun	0.583	<i>that</i> deletion	0.424
definite article	0.555	<i>to</i> complement clause controlled by verbs of desire, intention, and decision	0.328
activity verb	0.446	group noun	0.316
likelihood verb in other contexts	0.383	<i>wh-</i> clause	0.305
first person pronoun and possessive	0.347		
stance noun + prepositional phrase	0.332	Factor 4	
process noun	0.318	word length	0.663
cognitive noun	0.305	attributive adjective	0.654
past tense verb	-0.665	coordinating conjunction – phrasal connector	0.630
perfect aspect	-0.398	topical adjective	0.624
		<i>to</i> complement clause controlled by stance nouns	0.331
Factor 2		Factor 5	
adverb	0.689	<i>that</i> complement clause controlled by communication verb	0.547
<i>be</i> verb	0.608	communication verb in other contexts	0.522
predicative adjective	0.589	communication verb	0.457
conjunct	0.535	<i>that</i> complement clause controlled by mental, factive, or likelihood verb	0.371
modal of possibility	0.490	place noun	-0.381
subordinating conjunction	0.481		
epistemic adjective	0.474	Factor 6	
modal of prediction	0.461	common noun	0.893
demonstrative pronoun	0.375	nominalization	-0.789
sum stance adverb	0.335		
modal of necessity	0.323		
passive voice	-0.360		

Dimension 1: system-oriented vs action-oriented

Factor 1 includes the largest number of features. Past tense and perfect aspect verbs are negatively loaded; present tense is positively loaded, as are determiners and abstract nouns, including stance nouns, process nouns and cognitive nouns. Personal pronouns and activity verbs are also positively loaded. Our interpretation is that high-scoring papers are oriented

away from action and time and towards a description of systems, models or abstract concepts whereas low-scoring papers are oriented toward actions (what the researcher, or human agents, did at particular times). The labels ‘system-oriented’ and ‘action-oriented’ capture the difference between papers that are not time-specific and are about abstractions and ideas rather than about actions and those that are clearly located in time and report on actions that have been taken.

Dimension 2: explicit vs implicit argumentation

Positively loaded features include modals (possibility, prediction and necessity) and adverbs of various kinds, including stance adverbs and conjuncts. Papers that score highly in this dimension are notable for the degree of explicitness about the relations between propositions, and the author’s stance. For example, clauses may be explicitly linked using conjunctive adverbs. The labels ‘explicit argumentation’ and ‘implicit argumentation’ capture the author’s concern, or lack of it, for guiding the reader’s interpretation. Passives are negatively loaded in this dimension: the passive voice is traditionally interpreted as impersonal (the absence of explicit agency) which is consistent with non-explicit argumentation.

Dimension 3: informality

The features with a high loading in this factor are associated with spoken, conversational English. These include contractions, *that*-deletion and personal pronouns. There are no negatively-loaded features. The journals (JRS and JSIS) that have a relatively high mean score on this dimension (see Figure 2) feature papers that report surveys and interviews with individual members of the public. In most cases, it is the inclusion of verbatim reports of spoken discourse in the written articles that accounts for the presence of these features. We therefore use the label as a shorthand for the inclusion of transcriptions of others’ voices.

Dimension 4: conceptual discourse

This dimension is characterised by positively loading features only: word length, attributive adjective, coordinating conjunctions (connecting phrases), topical adjectives, and to-complement clauses that are controlled by stance nouns. Higher average word length in a text indicates greater informational density (Biber, 1988). Attributive adjectives provide conceptual elaboration and topical adjectives (which are also predominantly attributive) are used for classifying concepts (examples include *political*, *public*, *social*, *national*). Phrase connectors are used by writers to list, qualify, compare and contrast.

Dimension 5: text-focused vs site-focused

The positively loaded features in this factor are all connected with reported discourse and suggest a plurality of voices, or multiglossia. Papers with a high positive score on this dimension incorporate a variety of voiced opinions in their exposition and are thus focused on other texts (a distinction needs to be drawn here between the ‘voices’ of other authors/researchers and the spoken ‘voices’ in Dimension 3, which are verbatim reports of what people have said). There is only one negatively loaded feature, place nouns. Our corpus contains a substantial number of papers that describe events and situations in specific geographical locales. Papers with a focus on places rather than on text have a high negative score on this dimension.

Dimension 6: non-research world vs research world

Factor 6 is somewhat curious, in that it consists of only two features, one positively and one negatively loaded. We would normally exclude from consideration a dimension with only two features. In this case, however, one of the features is ‘nominalisations’, which are known to be a distinctive feature of academic discourse. It has been argued that nominalisation is a feature of mature writing, with instances becoming relatively more frequent as fields of study progress and gain maturity (Halliday and Martin 1993). We therefore considered this dimension worth retaining. While there is some difficulty in aligning Halliday’s view of nominalisation with the ‘nominalization’ tag,⁵ our qualitative analysis of relevant papers confirms a distinction between entities existing independent of the research process (‘common nouns’) and those construed by that process. Although we recognise the anomaly of labelling any research article with ‘non-research world’, the two dimension labels provide a useful shorthand.

In identifying these dimensions, we have answered the first of our research questions. The six dimensions were then used to compare the journals in the corpus. The results are reported in Section 5.

4.2 Identifying constellations

The method described above follows standard MD procedure to derive dimensions of variation. We wished also, however, to use the dimensions to identify constellations of texts

that share dimension profiles. Unlike previous studies, where registers are identified in advance and then compared using the dimensions, our method uses the dimension scores of each individual text to arrive at the component ‘registers’ or sub-corpora of our corpus. In this way we can establish, in a data-driven way, the degree and the nature of diversity within that single interdisciplinary journal, working inductively in a similar fashion to Durrant (2015).

To do this, we clustered individual GEC papers into the groups that share similar patterns of dimension scores (cf. Biber, 1989). More specifically, we first z-transformed the dimension scores of GEC papers within each dimension so that the scores were comparable across dimensions. The normalized frequency of each feature was first standardized to a z-score, a value with the mean of zero and the standard deviation of one. After computing these, dimension scores for each paper were calculated by summing the z-scores of the positive features in the dimension and subtracting the z-scores of the negative features. We then ran a hierarchical agglomerative cluster analysis with squared Euclidean distance and the Ward clustering method. The resulting dendrogram (Figure 3) suggests that a range of numbers of clusters could be supported. Three is the most obviously optimum number but we wished to have, in the initial stages, at least, a more fine-grained and therefore informative set of clusters, and so selected six for the investigation (shown with dotted lines). Each cluster corresponds to a number of papers in GEC that are similar in terms of their dimensional profile.

To avoid a confusion of terminology, we have appropriated the term ‘text constellation’ to refer to the groups or clusters of papers thus identified. There are 118 papers in constellation 1, 169 in constellation 2, 61 in constellation 3, 95 in constellation 4, 35 in constellation 5 and 146 in constellation 6 (see Figure 4). Each paper in the corpus has been annotated with its constellation number, allowing us to investigate the constellations as sub-corpora in Sketch Engine (Kilgarriff et al. 2014). Figure 3 also shows how the constellations relate to each other. The most distinctive constellation, with the highest tree-branching, is constellation 1. The constellations with the most similarity are constellations 3 and 6, and constellations 5 and 4. These four constellations together are distinguished from constellation 2.

Figure 4 shows how the dimensions map on to the identified constellations. Since the values are standardized, zero represents the grand average and is indicated by dashed lines in the figure. From Figure 4 we can see that constellation 2 has values that are closest to average across four of the six dimensions, while constellations 3 and 5 have values that diverge considerably from the average. Constellation 3 has a fairly narrow range of values along each

dimension, suggesting papers that are relatively homogeneous, while constellation 5 has a broader spread in at least three dimensions, suggesting greater variety between papers. Some constellations with different average scores in one dimension nonetheless show overlap, such as constellations 4 and 6 with respect to dimension 6. What Figure 4 enables us to do is to identify the dimension features of each constellation, and also to visualise the degree of difference between the constellations.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Dimension Scores and the 11 Journals

In Section 4.1 we have addressed the first of our research questions. The second question asks how distinct each journal is in its dimensional profile, and also whether interdisciplinary journals are distinct from monodisciplinary ones. To this end, we first applied the dimensions to the corpus in a conventional way, by comparing the dimensional profiles of the various sub-corpora. In this part of our study, the papers from each of the 11 journals comprised a sub-corpus. Comparing the dimension scores of the journals stands as a test of the validity of the dimensions; each journal might be expected to be distinctive to some extent. It also acts as a ‘register’ description of each journal, characterising it in terms of its location on each dimension. This allows us to test the degree of heterogeneity in each journal and to compare monodisciplinary and interdisciplinary journals.

The first step in this part of the study is to calculate where each paper is located along each dimension. For this purpose, dimension scores were calculated, representing the saliency of each paper in each dimension. A high dimension score shows that the paper has relatively high frequency of the positive features included in the dimension. In order for the features to be comparable, the scores were first z-transformed; the calculation included only the features listed in Table 2.

Table 3 Results of ANOVA and Tukey HSD on Dimension Scores

	Dimension 1	Dimension 2	Dimension 3	Dimension 4	Dimension 5	Dimension 6
ANOVA result	$F(10, 11190) = 2434.9$	$F(10, 11190) = 749.1$	$F(10, 11190) = 1027.1$	$F(10, 11190) = 340.1$	$F(10, 11190) = 480.9$	$F(10, 11190) = 1282.6$
<i>p</i> value	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001	< .001
Effect size (η^2)	0.685	0.401	0.479	0.233	0.301	0.534
Non-significant pairs	(MD) JSIS - (ID) CEUS	(MD) TRTE - (ID) CEUS	(MD) TRTE - (ID) CEUS	(ID) EP - (ID) AEE	(MD) TRTE - (ID) EP	(MD) JSIS - (ID) B

(Tukey HSD)	(MD) TRTE - (ID) GEC	(ID) JRS - (ID) GEC (MD) JSIS - (ID) GEC (MD) JSIS - (ID) JRS	(MD) AWR - (ID) EP (MD) PS - (MD) AWR	(MD) JSIS - (ID) AEE (MD) TRTE - (ID) AEE (MD) JSIS - (ID) B (MD) AWR - (ID) CEUS (MD) JSIS - (ID) EP (MD) TRTE - (ID) EP (ID) JRS - (ID) GEC (MD) TRTE - (MD) JSIS	(ID) JRS - (ID) GEC (MD) AWR - (ID) GEC (MD) TRTE - (ID) GEC (MD) AWR - (ID) JRS (MD) TRTE - (ID) JRS (MD) TRTE - (MD) AWR (MD) PS - (MD) JSIS	(ID) GEC - (ID) CEUS (MD) REE - (ID) CEUS (MD) REE - (ID) EP (MD) AWR - (ID) GEC
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The next step is to compute the mean dimension score for each journal. Comparison of these scores reveals the differences between the journals along each dimension. Figure 2 shows the mean dimension score and the standard deviation of each journal in each dimension, and Table 3 presents the results of analysis of variance (ANOVA) and post-hoc Tukey HSD tests. Since in all the dimensions the vast majority of journal pairs turned out to be significantly different in their mean dimension scores, the table lists only the pairs whose mean dimension scores were NOT significantly different from each other.

There are 11 journals, meaning that there are 55 pairs of journals altogether. If a dimension was completely unsuccessful at distinguishing between journals, a list of close to 55 pairs would appear under that dimension in Table 3. If a dimension was completely successful, then no journal pairs would be listed under that dimension. Table 3 shows that neither is the case, but also that, given the large number of total possible pairs, all the dimensions are relatively successful. As can be seen in the table, dimension 1 is the most successful in distinguishing between journals, as only two pairs are not distinguished by the dimension. Dimensions 2, 3 and 6 are the next successful. Dimension 4 is the least successful, with 9 pairs of journals failing to show significant difference and only one journal (REE) not appearing in any of the pairings. If we follow the fortunes of our target journal, GEC, it is similar to TRTE in dimensions 1 and 5, to JRS in dimensions 2, 4 and 5, to JSIS in dimension 2, to AWR in dimensions 5 and 6, and to CEUS in dimension 6. This suggests that dimension 5 is the least successful in distinguishing this journal from the others (three pairings involving GEC appear under this dimension) and that dimension 3 is the most successful.

The corpus design (Section 3 above) specified a distinction between monodisciplinary and interdisciplinary journals. Previous research has explored differences between disciplines (Section 2). Although there is much less research on interdisciplinary discourse, we might

speculate that interdisciplinary journals on environmental topics will demonstrate some consistent feature that would distinguish them from monodisciplinary journals on the same topic. They might, for example, take a distinctive stance towards their mixed readership. Alternatively, given that the articles in interdisciplinary journals might be supposed to be written in ways appropriate to their own discipline, we might expect more diversity and less distinctive consistency in interdisciplinary journals than in monodisciplinary ones. Counting how many pairs each journal enters into, shown in Table 4, there is some variation, from TRTE (MD) showing a lack of distinction in 11 pairs and PS (MD), B (ID) and REE (MD) showing a lack of distinction in only 2 pairs each. The results of Multidimensional Analysis, therefore, do not make a clear division between monodisciplinary and interdisciplinary journals, as Table 4 shows, where for example, three monodisciplinary journals (TRTE, JSIS and AWR) show a lack of distinction while two (PS, REE, monodisciplinary) are highly distinct.

Table 4: Comparison of monodisciplinary and interdisciplinary journals

	TRTE	GEC	JSIS	AWR	JRS	CEUS	EP	AEE	PS	B	REE
MD	11		9	8					2		2
ID		10			7	6	6	3		2	

The second research question also asks about the degree of heterogeneity within each journal: that is, the extent to which papers in a journal share similar patterns of the dimensions of variation identified through MDA. An additional procedure was carried out to determine this, based on classification and clustering analysis. A machine learning algorithm called ‘random forests’ (Breiman, 2001) was employed to predict the journal of each paper based on the dimension profile of the paper. If the model can accurately classify a paper into the journal it was taken from, it suggests that the paper has a similar dimension profile to that of the journal as a whole. The random forests algorithm first produces a large number of tree-type classifiers on bootstrap samples (i.e. a randomly selected sample of original data) by using a subset of predictors. Each tree models the relationship between dimension profiles of individual papers and the corresponding journals. Random forests then uses the models to generate predictions (Kuhn & Johnson, 2013).

The random forests procedure showed that the total out-of-bag prediction accuracy was 71.9%. This means that in total 71.9% of all the papers were accurately classified into the journals they were published in. This is significantly above chance ($\chi^2(1) = 3823.42, p$

< .001, $\phi = 0.413$), with the chance being the probability that all the papers are categorized into the largest category (EP; 30.6%). The value of 71.9% is high, considering that the algorithm had 11 journals to choose from. Thus, we can conclude that the distinct dimensional profile of each journal generally applies to individual papers.

This, however, does not apply to all the journals equally. Table 5 presents the confusion matrix of the random forests classification and shows the number and the proportion of the papers in each journal that are classified in each journal. We can tell from the table that some journals, such as AWR, B, and EP, have high classification accuracy (> 80%), whereas others, such as CEUS, REE, and TRTE, have low accuracy (< 40%). This suggests that some journals have, as it were, a distinctive ‘house style’ while others do not.

Table 5. Results of the random forests classification.

Observed Journal	Predicted Journal											Classification Error	
	AEE	AWR	B	CEUS	EP	GEC	JSIS	JRS	PS	REE	TRTE		
AEE	# of papers	999	40	46	23	461	52	2	13	65	4	13	41.9%
	%	58.1%	2.3%	2.7%	1.3%	26.8%	3.0%	0.1%	0.8%	3.8%	0.2%	0.8%	
AWR	# of papers	6	932	4	35	93	31	0	0	0	17	19	18.0%
	%	0.5%	82.0%	0.4%	3.1%	8.2%	2.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.5%	1.7%	
B	# of papers	47	0	858	0	0	0	18	11	28	1	0	10.9%
	%	4.9%	0.0%	89.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.9%	1.1%	2.9%	0.1%	0.0%	
CEUS	# of papers	19	87	4	123	21	71	0	2	1	20	16	66.2%
	%	5.2%	23.9%	1.1%	33.8%	5.8%	19.5%	0.0%	0.5%	0.3%	5.5%	4.4%	
EP	# of papers	105	97	2	15	2897	30	0	0	274	1	8	15.5%
	%	3.1%	2.8%	0.1%	0.4%	84.5%	0.9%	0.0%	0.0%	8.0%	0.0%	0.2%	
GEC	# of papers	33	55	0	34	57	393	0	15	1	14	28	37.6%
	%	5.2%	8.7%	0.0%	5.4%	9.0%	62.4%	0.0%	2.4%	0.2%	2.2%	4.4%	
JSIS	# of papers	2	0	34	0	0	0	109	22	0	0	1	35.1%
	%	1.2%	0.0%	20.2%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	64.9%	13.1%	0.0%	0.0%	0.6%	
JRS	# of papers	20	0	14	3	4	57	18	214	0	0	1	35.3%
	%	6.0%	0.0%	4.2%	0.9%	1.2%	17.2%	5.4%	64.7%	0.0%	0.0%	0.3%	
PS	# of papers	69	7	19	1	461	3	0	0	1344	0	3	29.5%
	%	3.6%	0.4%	1.0%	0.1%	24.2%	0.2%	0.0%	0.0%	70.5%	0.0%	0.2%	
REE	# of papers	3	55	2	22	2	39	1	1	0	82	11	62.4%
	%	1.4%	25.2%	0.9%	10.1%	0.9%	17.9%	0.5%	0.5%	0.0%	37.6%	5.0%	
TRTE	# of papers	20	60	1	29	61	48	1	1	4	9	102	69.6%
	%	6.0%	17.9%	0.3%	8.6%	18.2%	14.3%	0.3%	0.3%	1.2%	2.7%	30.4%	

In order to test the magnitude of variation within and between journals, the dimension score was z-transformed within each dimension, and a multiple regression model was constructed that models the standardized dimension score of each paper in each dimension as

a function of dimension, the journal the paper was taken from, and their interaction. The results showed that the model explains 43.8% of the variance ($F(65, 67140) = 807.4$; $p < 0.001$; adjusted $R^2 = 0.438$). This suggests that more than half of the total variance is attributed to within-journal variation. Thus, while journals distinguish dimension scores to a certain extent, there is considerable variation within each journal as well, which could be explained by Gray's (2013; 2015) observations that journals can contain variation not only of discipline but also of research paradigm (qualitative, quantitative or theoretical).

5.2 *The Text Constellations in Global Environmental Change*

The second part of our methodology (Section 4.2) addresses the third of our research questions, by establishing and interpreting what we have called text constellations, that is, groups of articles in the journal *Global Environmental Change* that share a dimensional profile. This section discusses in some detail the characteristics of those constellations. Each of the constellations should represent a distinctive type of paper in GEC. In practice, because of the varying degrees of similarity and overlap, it is easiest to demonstrate difference between the most widely distinguished constellations and then to describe the others in relation to them. For this reason, we begin with a detailed description of constellations 1, 5 and 3. Figure 4 shows constellations 1 and 5 as being visually the most different from each other and so the most easily distinguished and contrasted. The figure also shows 5 and 4 as being similar to each other, and 3 and 6. For this reason, constellation 3 is added to this initial description as representing a second pair of constellations. We describe these constellations (1, 3 and 5) first via the dimension profiles in 5.2.1 below, and then via phraseological evidence in 5.2.2. We then proceed to discuss the other constellations (5.2.3).

5.2.1 Constellations 1, 5 and 3: dimensional profiles

In describing these three constellations we rely for the most part on the features occurring on the relevant dimensions. For example, references to 'degree of informality' reflect an interpretation of the positively weighted features on dimension 3 (contractions, use of pronouns, *that*-deletion and so on). In some cases, however, scrutiny of many papers in a constellation (by reading the articles that came closest to the mean profile and that could therefore be said to be prototypical of that constellation) has led to the identification of other recurring foci that do not appear in any of the dimensions. For example, many of the papers in constellation 5 articulate an antagonistic stance towards a purely 'scientific' approach to

studying environmental change. Examples are given below. Similarly, many of the papers in constellation 1 express concern and pessimism about likely future environmental changes, and their consequences, in the locations they have studied. Again, examples are given below. In neither case is this attitudinal information retrievable from the factor/dimension loadings.

The examples given below are taken from a broad diachronic range. These examples are inevitably selective. The aim is not to demonstrate typicality via the examples; typicality or representativeness of the features identified has been demonstrated through the multidimensional analysis and consequent identification of the constellations.

A dimension-led description of each constellation follows.

Constellation 1: site- or target- specific narrative and quantification

This constellation scores low on dimensions 1, 2, 3 and 5 and high on dimension 6 (see Figure 4). This suggests: a concern with action or events rather than with system; use of implicit rather than explicit argumentation; a relative absence of features associated with informality; a focus on space and place rather than on text; and a concern with the non-research world. This might be summarised as a relative prioritisation of the physical world over the world of ideas, combined with a relative lack of concern to explain steps in argumentation to the reader. The papers belonging to this constellation tend to focus on specific sites of interaction between people and the environment (e.g. forest, coastal cities, individual countries or regions), often coupled with specific influences on environmental change. Scrutiny of papers in the constellation showed that most of them give quantified data about changes in aspects of the environment and construe human societies as abstractions defined by environment-related activity. In spite of this apparently ‘de-humanised’ approach, most papers also attach value judgements to predictions about climate change and environmental loss.

Focus on place: *Vegetation in the Great Basin prior to domestic grazing can be broadly discerned from the journals and diaries of early European-descent travellers through the Great Basin.* 1996_Knapp

Implicit argument (statements without explicit indices of relationship between propositions): *Predicted yields from the multiple regression function are compared with simulated yields from the CERES-Wheat model at Almeria in Fig. 7. These functions could be used if.... The quadratic and Mitscherlich-Baule functional forms were tested* 2000_Iglesias

Focus on quantity: *...it involved the creation of five major reservoirs that have flooded 9675 km of boreal forest and two major river diversions totalling -1600m.3/sec, about twice the flow of water diverted out of the Churchill River.* 1995_Rosenberg

Abstracted human action: *A growing urban and middle-class segment of the national population could also mean changing perceptions of the forest.* 1999_Mather

Value judgements and predictions: *At present, however, it seems only too likely that by very soon after 2000 all but the most inaccessible parts, and a few reserves, of the rich forest environment ... will have been irreparably destroyed* 1990_Brookfield

Constellation 5: personal voices

This constellation is distinctive in that the spread of scores between the dimensions is greater than those of the other constellations. It scores high on dimensions 1, 2, 3, and 5 and low on dimensions 4 and 6. This suggests: a focus on system rather than action; a concern to make arguments explicit; a relatively high proportion of features associated with informality and with a text focus; a concern with the research world. In summary, there is a focus on the abstract but also on engagement with a number of voices and with explicit argumentation.

The papers belonging to this constellation deal with human perspectives on the environment, including perception studies, and also with social perspectives of science. This is a smaller constellation than constellation 1, with only 45 papers.

Focus on system: *Vulnerability arises through particular levels of exposure to underlying socio-economic changes and to climate-related impacts flowing from the different scenarios.* 2000_Lorenzoni

Person-centred methods: *Of the physicist trio, two were interviewed in person, and showed themselves to be remarkably frank. It was not possible to interview NAME, wherefore I resorted to numerous persons who knew him.* 2008_Lahsen

Informality: *Ok, this object is cool – actually it is toxic when burned, but we don't care anyway, as we don't exactly know what effects we cause.* 2001_Stoll-Kleeman

Explicit argumentation: *Because empirical concepts are open textured, For instance, aquatic damage from acid deposition can be characterized in several ways. Moreover, the choice of a reference pH value can ... Still another consideration...* 1995_Herrick

Constellation 3: modelling

This constellation scores high on dimensions 1 and 6 and relatively low on dimensions 2, 3 and 4. This suggests: a concern with system rather than action but a complementary concern with the non-research world; relatively little use of explicit argumentation; little use of features connected with informality or conceptual discourse; relatively little text focus. It contrasts with constellation 1 mainly in respect to dimension 1. In other words, constellation 3 is more system-oriented whereas constellation 1 is more action-oriented. It contrasts with constellation 5 with respect to dimensions 3 and 5 in particular, implying that it has fewer features associated with informality and with textual interaction. The papers in this constellation are mostly about the activity of modelling environment change.

Below are two examples of constellation 3 demonstrating the interactions between the physical world (e.g. *CO₂-fertilization; carbon emissions*) and the world of mathematical projection (e.g. *are converted to concentrations; two alternatives...system*).

Focus on system: *STAGGER, where appropriate, uses revised model parameters.... The primary enhancement in STAGGER compared to STUGE is the inclusion of a CO₂-fertilization feedback effect which ensures a balanced carbon cycle at the start of the model projections in 1990.* 1994_Rotman

Focus on the non-research world: *We discuss two alternatives for a domestic system of carbon emissions trading. Option I caps carbon at the point of production. Option II is a “downstream”, “combustor”, or “end-user” system that controls carbon at the point of fuel combustion.* 2000_Holmes

The examples and descriptions above suggest that the three constellations do indeed occupy different spaces in the research world. Constellation 1 is the most ‘science like’, reporting empirical work. Constellation 5 is the most ‘social science like’, reporting social and political attitudes and responses to environmental change. Constellation 3 is the most mathematical and in some cases articulates a mixed method of working.

5.2.2 The other three constellations

As noted above, the greatest similarity measures shown in Figure 4 are for constellations 3 and 6, and for constellations 4 and 5. In this section, constellation 6 will be described in comparison with 3, constellation 4 in comparison with 5, and constellation 2 will also be described. These descriptions are carried out in relation to the dimension profiles shown in Figure 4.

Constellation 6 ('modelling human beings') is similar to constellation 3 in terms of dimensions 1 (high in both) and 4 (low in both). It is also similar to constellation 5 in terms of dimension 2 (high in both). It contrasts with constellation 1 in all dimensions except 4. The dimensional profile suggests: a focus on system rather than action; a concern for explicit argumentation; a focus on text but not on conceptual discourse. Like constellation 3, these papers explore models and uncertainty, but the models have a more human focus, as shown in these examples:

Imagine a set of actors, each owning definite quantities of various goods. These actors meet on a market place, where an auctioneer proposes an arbitrary price scheme for these goods.
1996_Jaeger

Given the technical difficulties and expense of monitoring carbon stock changes at the farm level, incentives may need to be based on activities rather than upon measured changes in the soil. Decoupling incentives from carbon accounting would allow for incentive payments to focus on those practices that have the highest environmental benefits. 2000_Subak

Constellation 4 ('researching people'), as noted, is somewhat similar to constellation 5. Both constellations score relatively high on dimensions 3 and 5. Both score low on dimension 4. They are distinguished in respect of dimension 1 (where constellation 4 scores low and constellation 5 scores high) and dimension 6 (where constellation 4 scores high and constellation 5 scores low). This suggests that constellation 4 will be more action-oriented than is constellation 5 (more concerned with the process of research itself), and more concerned with the world of things (common nouns) rather than abstractions (nominalisations). In practice, constellation 4, like constellation 5, focuses on people, and includes histories of academic and political approaches to issues of environmental change as well as surveys of public attitude.

The following two examples from this constellation illustrate the focus on action, and also the interaction with human subjects:

A panel of five expert climatologists was selected and assembled to develop future climate scenarios and their controls. The experts were individually asked to identify and explain each of the current (1993) climatic controls 1995_Miklas

Respondents were also asked to choose up to three actions, from a list, which they thought would best tackle climate change. 2008_Pidgeon

The final example shows the reflection upon the history of research into environmental change:

The scientific community has repeatedly claimed that it will be able to provide more certainty in future in order to improve the rational basis for policy, but reveals ever more uncertainties as the timespan needed for reducing them, once proposed for the 1990s, now extends further into the next century. 1994_Boehmore-Christiansen

Finally, constellation 2 ('theory') is the largest constellation in the journal, with 169 papers. Possibly as a result of the size factor, most of the dimension scores are around the average, and slightly above the scores in constellation 1. However, the constellation scores relatively high on dimension 4 and low on dimension 6. This suggests that the constellation will be action-oriented but will also be discursive, with an emphasis on building an argument around other researchers' contributions. Some papers in this constellation construct a history of research into environmental change, others address theoretical stances taken by various schools of thought, while others conduct more traditional meta-analyses of existing data.

Focus on action: Just as SCOPE began its activities, UNESCO established its Man and the Biosphere (MAB) programme in 1971... In some countries, one committee guided research within both programmes; other countries established a committee for each. 1990_Price

Focus on research paradigms: Proponents of the pluralist paradigm see increasing social differentiation as the central societal process. By this it is meant that the division of labor increases as industrialization proceeds and as society becomes more complex. 1995_Sunderlin

Meta-analysis: In a recent application of meta-analysis in the field of land-cover change, Geist and Lambin (2001) ... examined 152 cases of tropical deforestation ...

6. Conclusions

This paper has described the application of MDA to a corpus of eleven thousand journal articles in the domain of environmental studies. It has identified six dimensions that account for variation in that corpus and has shown how these dimensions map on to the 11 journals in the corpus. It has also applied MDA in a novel way, segmenting the holdings of one journal (GEC) into groups or constellations of texts, identifying sub-corpora on internal rather than external criteria. The paper has made the argument that the constellations group texts together that have commonalities in their approaches to research – their concern with developing predictive models (3 and 6), for example, with discussion of theory and policy (2), or with a focus on individual voices in human-environment studies (4 and 5).

A set of six dimensions was used in the MDA. It could be argued that the resulting dimensions were weak, with few distinctive linguistic features (Dimension 6 had only two features). The corpus of research articles, however, had low degrees of variance compared to a general corpus of both spoken and written language (as in Biber 1988), and we elected to use a model that, while low on linguistic features, had potential for a more fine-grained analysis than would have been possible with, say, a three-dimension model. This choice has been justified, we propose, by the resulting constellation model that we obtained for GEC, and the plausibility of the groupings that emerged using this inductive approach.

Gray (2015) identifies three broad research paradigm ‘registers’ and argues persuasively that discipline is only one factor contributing to variation. The journal that we have focused on, GEC, is an interdisciplinary journal with contributions from researchers from different disciplines, working in a range of contexts, and the research papers do not necessarily fit into neat categories. In our project we have included all the papers, without filtering, and it may well be that the boundaries between categories are fuzzy. The six constellations that emerged from the MDA feature, to differing degrees, orientations towards theory, qualitative and quantitative paradigms, but they also reflect a range of research approaches to the study of human-environment relationships that differ in their foci and, interestingly, in attitudes (see 5.2.1 above). The identification of these constellations could not have been achieved through an a priori categorisation of texts.

Endnotes

- 1 We are grateful to the research department of Elsevier UK, who helped in the planning and execution of the project, including providing access to all the journals used in our corpus.
- 2 Personal communication with Andrew Plume, Elsevier UK.
- 3 <http://www.scopus.com/>
- 4 Professor Douglas Biber carried out the tagging process and the exploratory factor analysis, and advised on the number of factors.
- 5 Nouns tagged by the Biber tagger as ‘nominalizations’ are identified only by suffixes such as ‘-tion’. While these do identify genuine nominalisations, there are some false hits and not all nominalisations are identified by this method.

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Appendix 1 Distribution of papers and words across journals and volumes in the Birmingham-Elsevier Environment Corpus

Journal	1990-2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	Total
(ID) AEE												
# of papers	NA	100	135	167	128	211	180	195	168	204	230	1,718
# of words	NA	450,224	552,046	663,835	582,108	878,896	814,139	863,241	734,046	941,407	1,082,516	7,562,458
# of words/paper	NA	4,502.2	4,089.2	3,975.1	4,547.7	4,165.4	4,523.0	4,426.9	4,369.3	4,614.7	4,706.6	4,401.9
(MD) AWR												
# of papers	NA	60	81	96	88	99	136	171	137	140	129	1,137
# of words	NA	373,384	561,695	473,464	463,247	530,785	783,637	1,043,230	767,990	816,940	753,378	6,567,750
# of words/paper	NA	6,223.1	6,934.5	4,931.9	5,264.2	5,361.5	5,762.0	6,100.8	5,605.8	5,835.3	5,840.1	5,776.4
(ID) B												
# of papers	NA	56	71	97	80	92	73	179	126	97	92	963
# of words	NA	266,989	272,275	473,091	359,780	361,259	348,078	723,932	600,616	475,765	445,618	4,327,403
# of words/paper	NA	4,767.7	3,834.9	4,877.2	4,497.3	3,926.7	4,768.2	4,044.3	4,766.8	4,904.8	4,843.7	4,493.7
(ID) CEUS												
# of papers	NA	31	27	33	31	33	45	36	39	44	45	364
# of words	NA	170,584	156,511	176,674	203,589	187,928	272,849	200,025	230,231	262,909	281,975	2,143,275
# of words/paper	NA	5,502.7	5,796.7	5,353.8	6,567.4	5,694.8	6,063.3	5,556.3	5,903.4	5,975.2	6,266.1	5,888.1
(ID) EP												
# of papers	NA	212	253	241	261	309	410	412	485	423	423	3,429
# of words	NA	790,382	958,450	935,911	1,027,702	1,228,764	1,612,679	1,625,895	1,913,762	1,695,297	1,724,649	13,513,491
# of words/paper	NA	3,728.2	3,788.3	3,883.4	3,937.6	3,976.6	3,933.4	3,946.3	3,945.9	4,007.8	4,077.2	3,940.9
(ID) GEC												
# of papers	223	23	23	25	35	33	35	39	71	49	74	630
# of words	1,327,336	142,014	129,388	133,554	201,174	192,181	212,481	257,378	487,880	321,434	503,778	3,908,598
# of words/paper	5,952.2	6,174.5	5,625.6	5,342.2	5,747.8	5,823.7	6,070.9	6,599.4	6,871.5	6,559.9	6,807.8	6,204.1
(ID) JRS												
# of papers	NA	31	30	28	31	31	34	32	35	39	40	331
# of words	NA	272,790	233,709	235,935	262,570	260,924	282,678	279,948	302,590	327,429	342,738	2,801,311
# of words/paper	NA	8,799.7	7,790.3	8,426.3	8,470.0	8,416.9	8,314.1	8,748.4	8,645.4	8,395.6	8,568.5	8,463.2
(MD) JSIS												
# of papers	NA	16	13	21	17	18	14	18	16	14	21	168
# of words	NA	106,342	108,322	128,549	129,081	137,405	106,239	142,483	130,959	106,981	168,096	1,264,457
# of words/paper	NA	6,646.4	8,332.5	6,121.4	7,593.0	7,633.6	7,588.5	7,915.7	8,184.9	7,641.5	8,004.6	7,526.5
(MD) PS												
# of papers	NA	73	201	247	300	293	208	188	140	148	109	1,907
# of words	NA	230,938	641,962	784,457	996,029	981,897	746,419	702,373	524,547	568,328	439,553	6,616,503
# of words/paper	NA	3,163.5	3,193.8	3,175.9	3,320.1	3,351.2	3,588.6	3,736.0	3,746.8	3,840.1	4,032.6	3,469.6
(MD) REE												
# of papers	NA	20	18	18	18	19	20	17	30	23	35	218
# of words	NA	106,778	114,082	106,469	114,232	98,190	115,046	97,932	176,658	126,039	226,084	1,281,510
# of words/paper	NA	5,338.9	6,337.9	5,914.9	6,346.2	5,167.9	5,752.3	5,760.7	5,888.6	5,480.0	6,459.5	5,878.5
(MD) TRTE												
# of papers	NA	23	24	24	27	27	34	45	42	50	40	336
# of words	NA	107,707	114,157	116,773	135,696	119,193	145,836	175,004	154,222	203,476	169,419	1,441,483
# of words/paper	NA	4,682.9	4,756.5	4,865.5	5,025.8	4,414.6	4,289.3	3,889.0	3,672.0	4,069.5	4,235.5	4,290.1
Total												
# of papers	223	645	876	997	1,016	1,165	1,189	1,332	1,289	1,231	1,238	11,201
# of words	1,327,336	3,018,132	3,842,597	4,228,712	4,475,208	4,977,422	5,440,081	6,111,441	6,023,501	5,846,005	6,137,804	51,428,239
# of words/paper	5,952.2	4,679.3	4,386.5	4,241.4	4,404.7	4,272.5	4,575.3	4,588.2	4,673.0	4,749.0	4,957.8	4,591.4

Notes. ID = interdisciplinary journal; MD = monodisciplinary journal; AEE = Agriculture, Ecosystems & Environment; AWR = Advances in Water Resources; B = BioSystems; CEUS = Computers, Environment and Urban Systems; EP = Environmental Pollution; GEC = Global Environmental Change; JRS = Journal of Rural Studies; JSIS = Journal of Strategic Information Systems; PS = Plant Science; REE = Resource and Energy Economics; TRTE = Transportation Research Part D: Transport and Environment

Appendix 2: The 53 features used in the multidimensional analysis

Feature	Example	Mean	SD
word length		5.23	0.20
<i>that</i> deletion	<i>I think he went to . . .</i> vs. <i>I think that he went to . . .</i>	0.34	0.42
contraction	<i>isn't, he's</i>	0.11	0.61
present tense verb	<i>argues, indicates</i>	46.32	18.58
second person pronoun and possessive	<i>you, your</i>	0.07	0.51
demonstrative pronoun	<i>This suggests . . .</i>	1.84	1.31
first person pronoun and possessive	<i>I, our</i>	4.01	4.60
<i>be</i> verb	<i>is, were</i>	1.19	1.04
nominal pronoun	<i>someone, everything</i>	0.56	0.59
modal of possibility	<i>can, may, might, could</i>	5.22	2.57
<i>wh-</i> clause	<i>I believe what he said.</i>	0.12	0.22
preposition	<i>in, on</i>	140.36	13.01
attributive adjective	<i>an interesting finding</i>	68.01	13.91
past tense verb	<i>examined, demonstrated</i>	30.57	14.93
third person pronoun and possessive except <i>it</i>	<i>she, his</i>	2.97	3.05
perfect aspect	<i>The study has shown . . .</i>	4.24	2.22
coordinating conjunction – phrasal connector	<i>review and test</i>	2.32	1.46
nominalization	<i>realization, establishment</i>	62.87	38.74
adverb	<i>very, socially</i>	27.87	6.28
modal of prediction	<i>will, would, shall</i>	1.59	1.88
modal of necessity	<i>ought, should, must</i>	0.84	0.95
conjunct	<i>however, therefore, thus</i>	5.51	2.27
predicative adjective	<i>The finding is impressive.</i>	5.55	2.11
passive voice	<i>It was assumed that . . .</i>	25.82	7.14
communication verb in other contexts	<i>the study informs us of . . .</i>	6.66	4.79
likelihood verb in other contexts	<i>it appears to be true</i>	4.90	3.39
stance noun + prepositional phrase	<i>expectation of</i>	2.12	1.35
determiner + stance noun	<i>the wish</i>	0.83	0.89

definite article	<i>the</i>	17.75	6.08
indefinite article	<i>a, an</i>	60.39	16.97
common noun		74.17	17.81
proper noun		14.53	7.52
<i>that</i> complement clause controlled by communication verb	<i>the finding suggests that . . .</i>	1.53	1.07
<i>to</i> complement clause controlled by verbs of desire, intention, and decision	<i>we decided to</i>	0.40	0.54
<i>to</i> complement clause controlled by verbs of modality, causation, and effort	<i>we managed to</i>	0.74	0.69
<i>to</i> complement clause controlled by stance nouns	<i>our desire to</i>	0.44	0.64
sum stance adverb		1.80	1.10
process noun	<i>development, research</i>	19.27	7.72
cognitive noun	<i>analysis, reason</i>	5.82	3.68
abstract noun	<i>emergency, respect</i>	24.44	11.61
concrete noun	<i>sculpture, eye</i>	20.30	12.19
place noun	<i>river, factory</i>	7.30	7.15
group noun	<i>government, committee</i>	0.88	2.05
topical adjective	<i>public, social</i>	2.19	3.37
activity verb	<i>control, shake</i>	16.00	4.41
existence verb	<i>appear, reflect</i>	7.05	2.78
subordinating conjunction	<i>because, if, until</i>	5.21	2.14
epistemic adjective in other contexts	<i>probable cause</i>	3.27	1.88
communication verb	<i>say, ask</i>	4.38	2.12
stanceN_other_context	<i>in all probability</i>	5.66	3.97
<i>that</i> complement clause controlled by factive or likelihood noun	<i>despite the fact that . . .</i>	0.36	0.42
relative clause	<i>a hypothesis that we propose</i>	4.95	2.59
<i>that</i> complement clause controlled by mental, factive, or likelihood verb	<i>we believe that . . . , I hope that . . .</i>	3.66	1.68

Appendix 3 Factor loadings

Feature	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	Factor4	Factor5	Factor6
word length	-0.060	-0.128	-0.265	0.663	0.239	0.024
that deletion	0.054	0.029	0.424	-0.059	0.240	-0.040
contraction	-0.043	-0.163	0.757	0.010	-0.056	-0.086
present tense verb	0.687	0.289	0.086	-0.027	-0.015	0.068
second person pronoun and possessive	-0.061	-0.194	0.866	-0.045	-0.038	-0.103
demonstrative pronoun	0.182	0.375	0.187	-0.045	-0.009	-0.015
first person pronoun and possessive	0.347	0.051	0.285	-0.218	0.100	0.084
<i>be</i> verb	0.030	0.608	-0.112	-0.050	0.086	0.037
nominal pronoun	0.119	0.043	0.462	-0.061	0.043	0.006
modal of possibility	0.202	0.490	-0.139	-0.029	0.079	-0.011
<i>wh-</i> clause	0.091	0.094	0.305	0.027	0.095	0.044
preposition	-0.287	-0.103	-0.079	-0.101	-0.047	-0.012
attributive adjective	0.151	-0.038	-0.125	0.654	-0.208	-0.235
past tense verb	-0.665	-0.205	0.038	-0.168	0.222	-0.040
third person pronoun and possessive except <i>it</i>	-0.110	0.066	0.604	0.275	0.098	0.010
perfect aspect	-0.398	0.074	0.201	0.163	0.179	-0.022
coordinating conjunction – phrasal connector	-0.061	-0.077	0.130	0.630	-0.053	-0.156
nominalization	0.121	-0.101	-0.074	0.243	0.006	-0.789
adverb	-0.248	0.689	-0.009	0.102	0.000	-0.094
modal of prediction	0.157	0.461	0.082	0.057	-0.003	0.028
modal of necessity	0.275	0.323	0.028	0.117	0.020	-0.045
conjunct	0.033	0.535	-0.089	-0.061	0.141	-0.002
predicative adjective	-0.035	0.589	-0.135	-0.158	-0.075	-0.126
passive voice	-0.013	-0.360	-0.175	-0.287	0.246	-0.206
communication verb in other contexts	0.194	-0.175	0.028	0.027	0.522	0.021
likelihood verb in other contexts	0.383	0.010	-0.114	0.010	0.003	-0.140
stance noun + prepositional phrase	0.332	0.101	-0.008	0.153	0.081	-0.102
determiner + stance noun	0.583	0.004	-0.061	-0.096	0.101	-0.174
definite article	0.555	0.020	0.086	-0.065	0.056	0.078
indefinite article	0.712	-0.096	0.012	-0.233	-0.224	-0.098
common noun	-0.102	-0.243	-0.202	-0.002	-0.051	0.893
proper noun	-0.223	-0.255	-0.037	-0.218	0.201	0.030
<i>that</i> complement clause controlled by communication verb	-0.143	0.119	0.085	0.017	0.547	-0.004
<i>to</i> complement clause controlled by verbs of desire, intention, and decision	0.153	0.088	0.328	0.256	0.048	0.054
<i>to</i> complement clause controlled by verbs of modality, causation, and effort	0.202	0.028	0.188	0.148	0.191	0.100
<i>to</i> complement clause controlled by stance nouns	-0.035	0.072	0.192	0.331	0.157	0.009
sum stance adverb	-0.212	0.335	0.134	0.003	-0.023	-0.088
process noun	0.318	-0.184	-0.100	0.155	0.189	0.075
cognitive noun	0.305	0.023	-0.008	0.176	0.226	-0.169
abstract noun	0.729	-0.055	-0.067	0.164	0.003	0.099
concrete noun	-0.266	-0.069	-0.113	-0.218	-0.084	-0.019
place noun	0.026	-0.003	0.072	0.290	-0.381	0.081
group noun	-0.109	-0.021	0.316	0.292	-0.054	0.020
topical adjective	-0.028	0.034	0.227	0.624	-0.077	-0.016
activity verb	0.446	-0.220	0.178	-0.195	0.038	-0.022
existence verb	0.281	0.086	0.017	0.050	0.206	0.100
subordinating conjunction	0.097	0.481	0.073	-0.257	0.039	0.052
epistemic adjective	0.013	0.474	-0.098	0.021	-0.023	-0.023
communication verb	0.222	0.012	0.188	0.080	0.457	0.033
stance noun in other contexts	0.595	0.002	-0.030	0.038	0.118	-0.182
<i>that</i> complement clause controlled by factive or likelihood noun	0.111	0.272	0.013	-0.005	0.227	-0.028
relative clause	0.296	0.148	0.184	0.169	0.096	0.098
<i>that</i> complement clause controlled by mental, factive, or likelihood verb	0.018	0.222	0.029	-0.242	0.371	-0.090

Figure 1: Scree plot

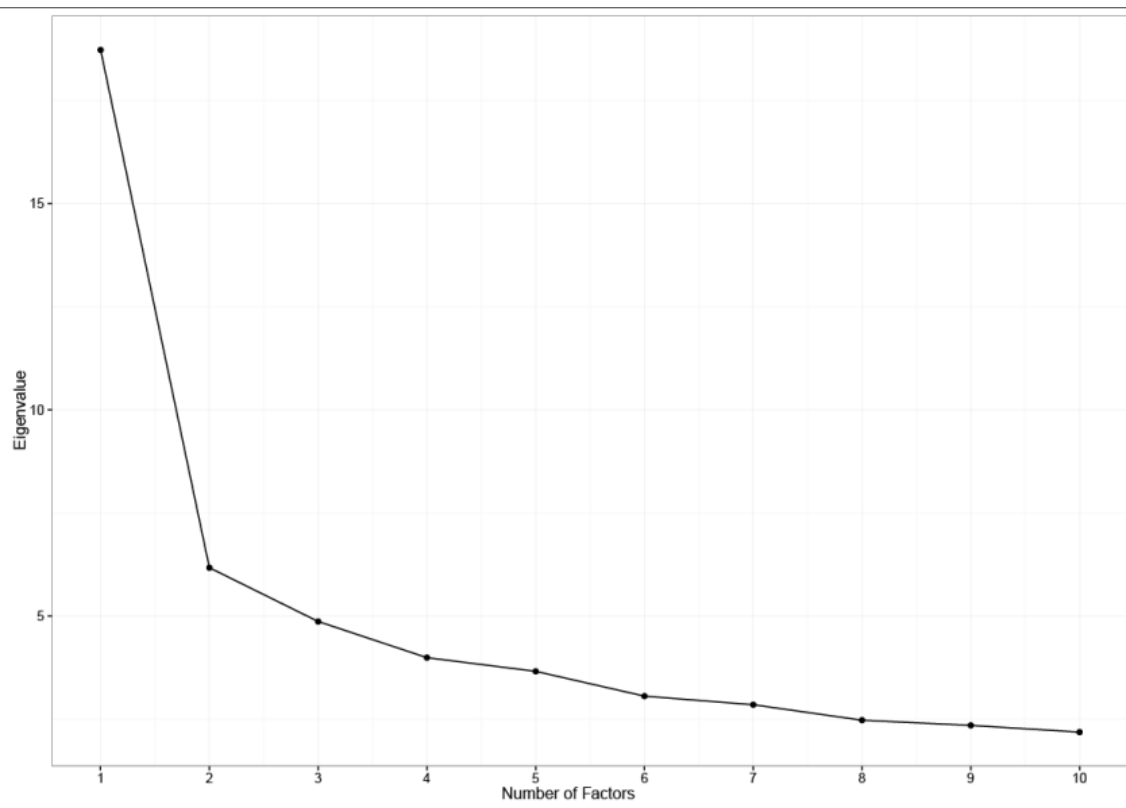


Figure 2. Mean Dimension Score and Standard Deviation of Each Journal in Each Dimension.

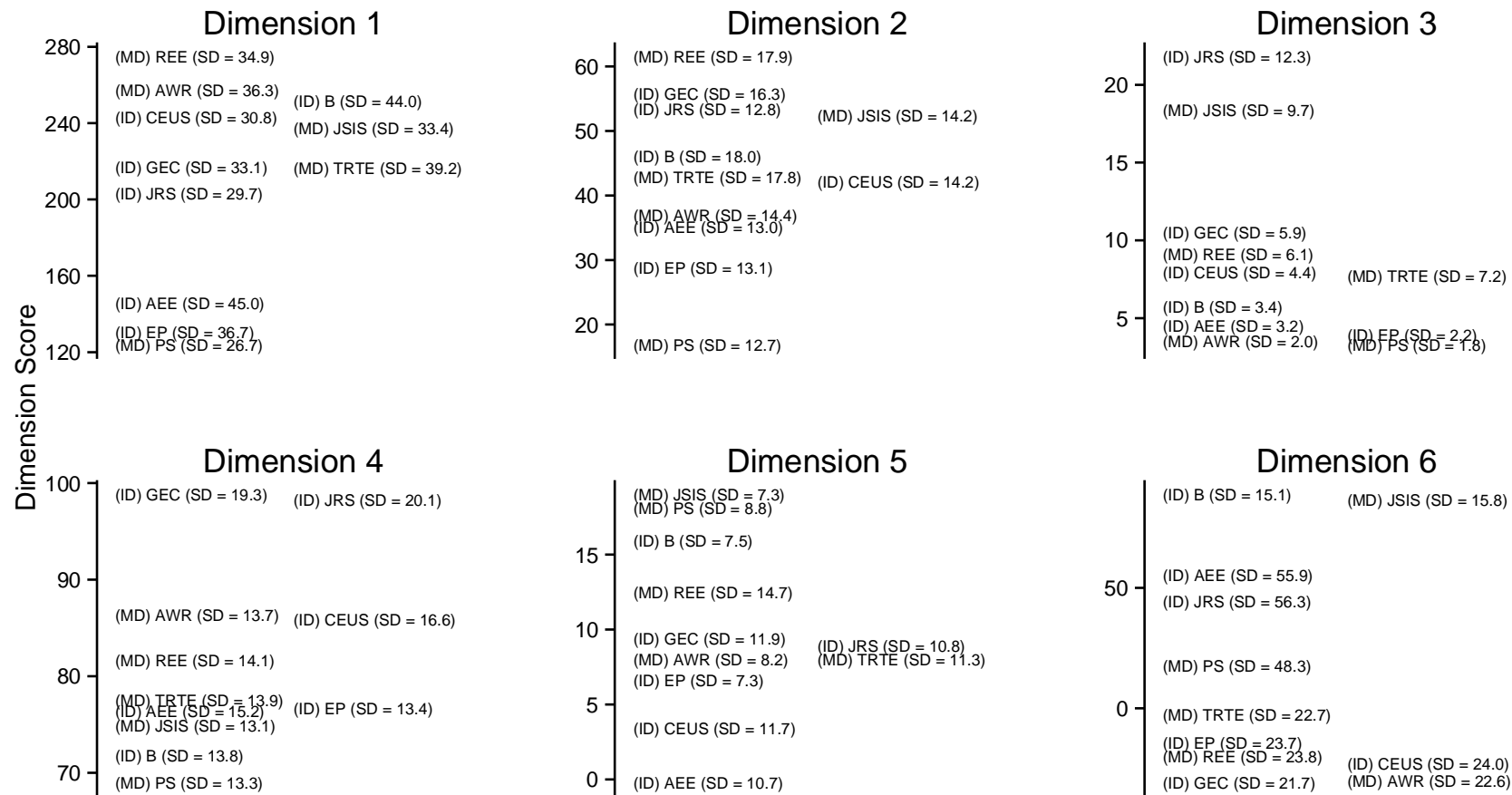


Figure 3. Dendrogram and Constellations

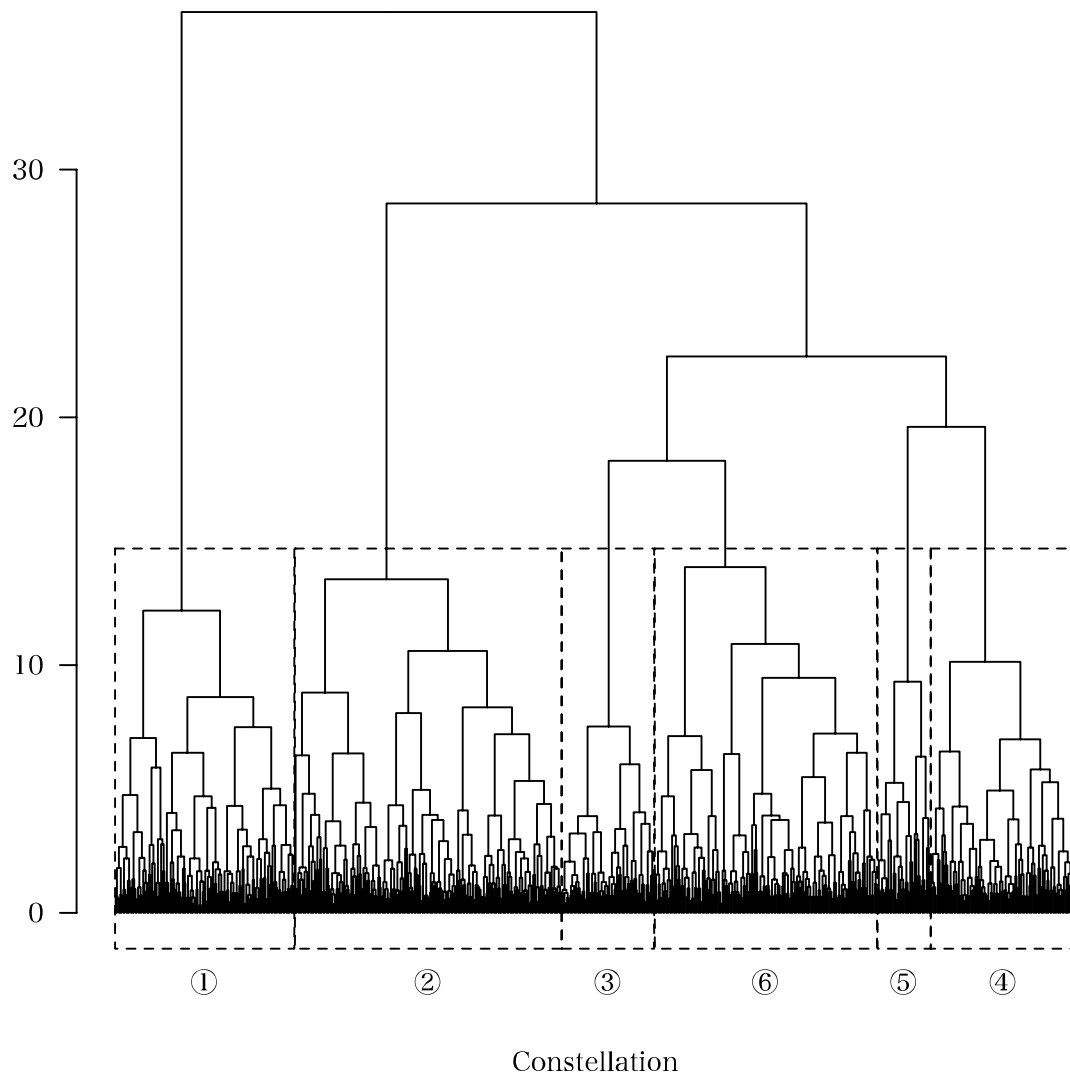


Figure 4. Standardized Dimension Scores of Each Constellation

