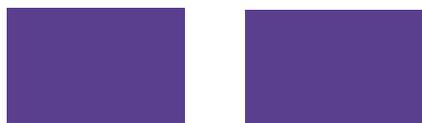


THE FORMS AND FUNCTIONS OF
MODAL VERBS IN SECTIONS OF THE
ENGLISH TOURISM RESEARCH ARTICLES



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Domínguez Morales

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The forms and functions of modal verbs in sections of the English tourism research articles

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SUMMARY

The tourism research article (RA) has not been the focus of many studies. This volume offers a description of the genre in terms of section, besides an analysis of the most used language features in each section of the RA. Among these are the presence of modal verbs. Precisely, the goal of this work is to describe their use, meaning and functions in a corpus of the "introduction" and "conclusion" sections of the RA in tourist studies. The compilations included texts from leading journals in the area. The method of inquiry includes corpus linguistics tools to analyze texts as well as specific examples to show how these forms behave in the RAs. The analysis of context is also essential in order to identify the exact meanings of modal verbs, and for that reason visual inspection of each sample is mandatory. The discussion of the evidence obtained is accounted for by studies in the domain of functional linguistics. The conclusions show that formal variation exists in the introduction and the conclusion sections. This also applies to their meanings. Dynamic modality is attested to be more recurrent in the introductions and epistemic modality is preferred in the concluding sections. The functions performed by these modals are varied to feature interpersonal and textual cues in the elaboration of meaning in the RA.

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INTRODUCTION

The research article in the field of tourism studies has not been a focus of attention for many researchers (Lin & Evans 2012), despite being a discipline that represents a major area of economic development for many countries (Benkraiem et al. 2020: 25). Another issue, however, is the language study that has been carried out using other textual genres related to the tourism register, either centrally or tangentially as part of an interdisciplinary study. In this regard, the work of Yui Ling Ip (2008), Chinanard (2008), Sulaiman (2014) and Carretero & Zamorano-Mansilla (2015) on promotional texts such as the brochure; Suau-Jiménez (2007; 2016) on tourism websites stand out; Lin and Evans (2012), Dolnicar & Chapple (2015), Aluthman (2018) in academic writing texts; and Ahmed (2015), Sabila & Kurniawan (2020), Álvarez-Gil & Domínguez-Morales (2018) specifically in the abstract (summary) genre of these academic texts.

The aforementioned works give a clear idea of the social and economic impact of tourism studies. The reality is, as noted in Álvarez-Gil (2022), that tourism research provides organizations, whether public or private, with relevant information for the improvement of the activity, which translates into recommendations that are often provided in the conclusions of these works. It is understood, therefore, that there is a direct relationship between the progress of the industry and empirical research, which, in turn, indicates the interest in scholarly periodicals. It follows that the macrostructural as well as the microstructural form of the scientific article should be analyzed and precisely described for didactic purposes for present and future scholars in the discipline.

Although numerous works have been carried out on specific aspects of the language of tourism as mentioned above, to date there is only one work that covers the genre of the scientific article in tourism; this is Álvarez-Gil (2022). In this work, a formal analysis of the genre is included in a section structure, following the terminology in Martin (1984). The study is complemented with an analysis of the recurrent lexical-grammatical structures in each of the sections of the scientific article and the lexical and syntactic variables that characterize the text within the scientific register, both in terms of complexity and the level of elaboration exhibited by the language used in these works. In addition, the authors draw attention to the use of a number of grammatical structures which appear in the sections with an indication of their significant variation in each section. These structures, as the paper points out, are intended to indicate the authors' perspective, among other things. Thus, one can find in these structures modal verbs, intensifying and mitigating elements, uses of passive voice, conditional structures and *that* evaluative clauses.

My working hypothesis is that modal verbs present different functions in the sections called “introduction” and “conclusion” of the research article in tourism inspired by the communicative interest in each of them. Thus, the main aim of this paper is to analyze modal verbs, their meanings and the existence of variation in the aforementioned sections of the scientific article in a corpus of these sections in the discipline of tourism; these texts have been extracted from journals in the field and with a notorious impact index in the field. Modal verbs reflect the speaker’s point of view, as noted in Palmer (2001) and Biber et al. (1999). That said, this volume raises the following questions:

1. Which modal verb forms are the most frequently occurring in these sections of the academic article,
2. What modal meanings are most frequent in the introduction and conclusion and whether the variation is significant; and, finally,
3. What are the functions of modal verbs in the introduction and conclusion?
4. What functions do these modal verbs fulfil in each of the sections?

For this, corpus linguistics tools are used to manage and consult the texts and to extract actual examples that illustrate the forms, semantic categories and functions found in the texts studied. However, since context is fundamental to the identification of modal meanings, part of the analysis of the texts requires direct visual recognition of each case. The role of context in specifying the meaning of a given modal verb has been described previously (Alonso-Almeida 2015a). The same modal verb can indicate different meanings, so that, without the help of context, it would be unreasonable to expect an accurate categorization of these verb forms. In other words, the categorization of modal verbs through an automatic labelling process would not yield results, as current software in corpus linguistics cannot analyze the semantics and pragmatics of the forms being analyzed accurately and reliably. The semantic flexibility of modal verbs makes them unique, but this also means that we must pay special attention to selecting appropriate contexts so as not to err in identifying the meanings that these forms represent. Similarly, the categorization of the pragmatic functions that these modal forms have in each case in texts cannot be automated.

This does not mean that the use of computer tools is not useful in this work. On the one hand, a manual search for modal verbs would be time-consuming and error-prone, as some forms could be left behind. On the other hand, automatic searches allow retrieving all cases for a given query, which may include the modal verb with one or more concurrent forms. In addition, the search software supplies each of the forms found in its co-text, which improves the analysis. These computerized searches ease the calculation of statistics on the frequency of forms per section to detect the existence of variation. All this justifies the use of a joint methodology to retrieve and reliably categorize modal verbs.

This book is structured in five chapters, in addition to the references included at the end of the work. In this first chapter, the research justification for the study of modal verbs in research articles is presented within a textual genre perspective that specifies the functions of the sec-

tions of these texts. The second chapter describes the concept of modality. The definition of this term used in the analysis of the modals found in the corpus is proposed here. Furthermore, the modal typology in which these verbal forms are classified is explained, as well as the modal mechanisms to frame the type of those analyzed in this volume. Related to the concept of modality is a description of the concepts of objectivity, subjectivity and intersubjectivity, which figure out the perspective of the speaker and the way in which he/she relates to the text and to the truthfulness of what he/she expresses. These terms show, among other things, whether the information provided in a text stands for a single or shared point of view and explain why one modal device has been used as opposed to others. Also in this chapter, the tourism research article is described and characterized as a textual genre from a systemic-functional perspective. For this purpose, related concepts such as text type, textual genre and register are defined. From the application of these, a structure of the scientific article in tourism is deduced which is also based on a specific use of language with a series of recurrent and typical expressions in each of the sections. Many of these expressions seem to be directly related to the function of each section.

Chapter three is devoted to methodological issues and the compilation of the corpus. An initial section is devoted here to methodological issues in the construction and use of the body of work, and the statistical methods deployed in the analysis of the data. In chapter four, modal verbs in the introductions and conclusions of the tourism research article are analysed. A classification and a discussion of the results are presented. Here, not only modal forms and meanings in the texts studied are described, but also the modal functions fulfilled by these modal verbs are included. Finally, conclusions are offered. In addition, the main contributions of this work and their relevance to the genre of the scientific article are set out, specifying the degree of variation between introductions and conclusions and the motivations for such variation. This is completed by a section devoted to the presentation of ideas for future research with texts of tourism research articles. At the end of this chapter, the references cited in this volume and an appendix with the bibliographical references of the corpus are provided.

LINGUISTIC MODALITY. THE TOURISM RESEARCH ARTICLE AS A TEXTUAL GENRE

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the aim is to show a definition of modality which will be followed in the analysis and interpretation of modal verbs obtained by computerized interrogation of a corpus of introductions and conclusions of scientific articles in the tourism register. Here, a semantic classification of modality will be given, following Palmer (2001), van der Auwera and Plungian (1998) and Nuyts (2001), among others. The study of modal verbs, and modality in general, in specialised texts is not really new, as confirmed by the existing literature (cf. Giltrow 2005; Efstathiadi 2010; Cheng & Cheng 2014; Alonso-Almeida 2014; Ge 2015; Carrió-Pastor 2017; Álvarez-Gil 2018). The novelty of my study lies mainly in the selection of two fundamental sections of the research article for its reception and impact as a scientific contribution, namely the introduction and the conclusion, and my interest in tourism texts to see (functional) variation.

As already expressed in Álvarez-Gil and Domínguez-Morales (2018), the research article in tourism is by far one of the least explored. Since the texts that are compiled belong precisely to this type of articles, an analysis of this genre in the field of tourism is also presented, following the description made by Álvarez-Gil (2022). This characterisation is useful for identifying the "introduction" and "conclusion" sections in these articles. For this purpose, the systemic-functional language theory, according to Halliday and Matthiessen (2013; 2014), will be used as a framework in my analyses. Along with the study of textual genre, aspects related to register will be explained, in addition to the text types that make up textual genres.

The upcoming section encompasses a definition of modality, which arises from previous studies in the field. A modal taxonomy is offered, according to semantic criteria, which will be used in the classification of the data. Each of the categories involved in the selected threefold taxonomy is described with examples drawn from actual sources. In the subsequent section, I define the research article as a genre after outlining issues related to all the above-mentioned concepts of text type, genre and register in functional theory, which allows for the characterisation of the texts analysed in this study of modal verbs.

2.2. Linguistic modality: definitions, categories and functions

Some definitions of modality in the scholarly literature are as follows,

Palmer (2001: 1): Modality is concerned with the status of the proposition that describes the event.

Gotti y Dossena (2001: 10): In particular, modality enables the locutor to make important strategic choices over very subtle gradable scales for the conveyance of attitudinal aspects associated to one's degree of commitment to such issues as possibility, obligatoriness, ability and so on. Indeed, the concepts of 'necessity', 'possibility', 'probability' and 'impossibility' are at the core not only of linguistic studies but also of modal logic, and have been a topic of central interest and intense study since classical times...

From a linguistic point of view, modality is a complex concept to categorise and qualify in its different forms. There are various ways in which a speaker may add an overlay of meaning to the neutral semantic value of the proposition. One of these is mood; indeed, as remarked by Palmer (1986: 21), "the distinction between mood and modality is [...] similar to that between tense and time", in so far as mood is a morphosyntactic category of verb forms, expressing the degree or kind of reality assigned to a sentence. Several moods are to be distinguished, the three basic types being indicative, imperative and subjunctive.

Narrog (2005: 186)/(2012: 6): Modality is a linguistic category referring to the factual status of a state of affairs. The expression of a state of affairs is modalized if it is marked for being undetermined with respect to its factual status, i.e. is neither positively nor negatively factual.

Portner (2009: 2): Modality is the linguistic phenomenon whereby grammar allows one to say things about, or on the basis of, situations which need not be real.

Saeed (2016: 134): Modality is a cover term for devices which allow speakers to express varying degrees of commitment to, or belief in, a proposition.

Rocci (2017: 3): Modality is the semantic category associated with the basic human cognitive ability of thinking that things might be otherwise, that is thinking of alternatives: situations other than what is the case. Modality refers generally to the linguistic means that allow "one to say things about, or on the basis of, situations which need not be real" (Portner 2009: 1, emphasis is ours).

Alonso-Almeida y Álvarez-Gil (2020: 62–63): Modality is the term used in linguistics to refer to the expression of a speaker's evaluation of an event in terms of such notions as probability, possibility, obligation, permission and necessity, among other more fine-grained attitudes towards the propositional content framed by the modal particle.

These definitions show the different views that exist among linguists who approach this concept. It is therefore a term that can represent different realities, but all approaches agree that modality serves to qualify the meaning of a linguistic process. One of the most interesting aspects is what is modalised, as noted by Alonso-Almeida and Álvarez-Gil (2020). On the one hand, Palmer (2001) and Saeed (2016) speak of propositions while Portner (2009) and Rocci (2017) refer to situations, Alonso-Almeida and Álvarez-Gil (2020) call them events, and, finally,

Narrog (2005, 2012) prefers to use the term state of affair. It is relevant, then, to point out here the technical meaning of the concepts proposition and state of affairs, as the term situation is more obvious. Thus, these two elements are defined in the field of linguistics as follows:

PROPOSITION

The word 'proposition' is used in pragmatics in a technical sense which comes from logic and philosophy. The term can be defined by the claim that every statement that is either true or false expresses a proposition. For example the statement that 'All men are equal' expresses the proposition that all men are equal.

The same proposition can be expressed in different languages: 'Elephants are scared of mice' and 'Les éléphants ont peur des souris' express the same proposition (Allott 2010: 156).

STATE OF AFFAIRS

Phenomena, events, situations, states of affairs are commonly supposed to be genuinely-in-the-world, and even Strawson admits events are so. Yet surely of all of these we can say that they are facts (Vendler 1967: 122)... It seems to me, therefore, that states of affairs due to human action can be viewed in two ways. Inasmuch as they are considered in connection with the actual or possible intention of the agent we are inclined to speak of them as results. If, however, they are considered in abstraction from such intention, we prefer to call them consequences (Vendler 1967: 161).

In a simple way, we may say that proposition refers to the true or false expression of meaning in the field of logic-semantics, while the term state of affairs refers to a fact, which can be the result or consequence of human action. In this work, given that modality is studied in modal verbs, it seems appropriate to use the term proposition, since they respond to the same philosophical nature of language.

After this explanatory note, and going back to the definitions of modality given above, it is worth highlighting in all of them their evaluative and qualifying use of the proposition which the modal particle accompanies in order to specify it. Thus, the speaker's perception according to that proposition is captured in that modal form to express, for example, obligation or probability, as the case may be. This evaluative aspect of modality implies that its analysis can be framed within what are called perspective studies or, in English, stance, as noted in Alonso-Almeida (2015b: 2):

Stance indeed refers to different phenomena in language, and so it is generally the umbrella term for notions, such as *epistemic stance* (Finegan 1989), commitment (Caffi 1999; Caffi 2007; Del Lungo Camiciotti 2008), mitigation (Martín-Martín 2008; Alonso-Almeida 2015a), reinforcement or strengthening (Brown 2011), intensification (González 2015), authority, involvement and hedging (Hyland 2005a; Hyland 1998), assessment (Goodwin 2006), modality and evidentiality (Chafe 1986; Chu et al. 2011; Fairclough 2004; Marín Arrese 2009; Carrió-Pastor 2012; Pic & Furmaniak 2012; Goodwin 2006), affect (Martin 2000; Martin & White 2005), and vagueness in language (Cutting 2007).

In some cases, as in Saeed (2016), the definition of modality includes the notion of the speaker's commitment to the truthfulness of the proposition expressed, which may include a certain

gradation, as noted in this source. Gotti and Dossena's (2001) definition also specifies the difference between modality and mood, the latter being morphosyntactic and reflecting aspects of the reality referred to in the proposition. An example would be the use of the imperative to express order as opposed to the use of the subjunctive to show hypotheses regarding the possible realisation of the action being described. In addition to mood, other linguistic elements communicate modality such as verbs or modal verbs and clitics, as Palmer (1986: 33 ff) points out. In short, what this author is asserting is that modality can manifest itself both morphologically and through lexical devices. The case of modals, as Aikhenvald (2004) states, is halfway between grammar and lexicon.

As we have seen, several aspects are included in the definitions given at the beginning of this section, which reflects, in addition to the multiplicity of approaches, the terminological diversity with respect to these aspects, e.g. event and fact. It is logical, therefore, that some simplification is proposed to allow the analysis of the data offered in the corpus. Thus, this concept is defined for the purpose of this research as follows:

Modality is the term used in linguistics to refer to the expression of a speaker's evaluation of an event in terms of such notions as probability, possibility, obligation, permission and necessity, among other more finegrained attitudes towards the propositional content framed by the modal particle (Alonso-Almeida y Álvarez-Gil 2020: 63).

In this context, the term evaluation is understood in the sense expressed by Hunston and Thompson (2000: 5):

evaluation is the broad cover term for the expression of the speaker or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about. That attitude may relate to certainty or obligation or desirability or any of a number of other sets of values. When appropriate, we refer specifically to modality as a sub-category of evaluation.

The notion of meaning is a criterion for the classification of modality, as will be explained in the next section.

2.3. Semantic classification of modality

The way in which modality can be categorised varies according to the schools of thought and the scholars who make these classifications. However, Lyons' (1977) semantic classification into epistemic modality and deontic modality seems to be among the most widely accepted and is maintained by Palmer (1986: 19). The same split classification is found in Biber et al. (1999: 485), but the categories are called intrinsic modality and extrinsic modality, which they define as follows:

Each modal can have two different types of meaning, which can be labeled intrinsic and extrinsic (also referred to as 'deontic' and 'epistemic' meanings). Intrinsic modality refers to actions and events that humans (or other agents) directly control: meanings relating to permission, obligation, and volition (or intention). Extrinsic modality refers to the logical status of events or states, usually relating to assessments of likelihood: possibility, necessity, or prediction.

Palmer (2001) makes another classification that distinguishes between propositional modality and event modality. The former includes epistemic modality (to be explained in section 2.3.1), and evidentiality, which refers to the source or mode of information. The latter phenomenon has been frequently studied in these last decades (cf. Chafe 1986; Willett 1988; Leavitt, Chafe & Nichols 1991; Lazard 2001; Plungian 2001; Viechnicki 2002; Boye & Harder 2009; Mushin 2013; Haßler 2011; Alonso-Almeida 2015a; Greco 2018) and which is analysed as a mechanism indicating the speaker's point of view with respect to the information offered. This type of modality will not exactly be the subject of study in this paper, although mention will be made below of a specific type of these mechanisms called inferential evidentiality which van der Auwera and Plungian (1998) identify as deontic necessity.

Event modality expresses an attitude towards the information supplied and is divided into deontic modality and dynamic modality which relate to meanings of obligation and ability, respectively, among others. In this study, a tripartite categorisation is used where these types are included together with epistemic modality, i.e.: epistemic modality, deontic modality and dynamic modality. However, before proceeding further, it seems appropriate to echo other types of modal meanings frequently mentioned in the literature. These are existential modality and alethic modality, according to von Wright (1951). Existential modality, which refers to modes of existence, is not to be considered, as Palmer (1990: 6) points out, since this aspect is to be found in the other modalities. An example of this type of modality given in Palmer (1990: 110) is the following, where might existential presents a usage close to would, as highlighted in the same source:

In those days we might go for a walk through the woods.

Similarly, Palmer (1990: 6) acknowledges that the alethic modality represents a "main concern of logicians, but it has little place in ordinary language". In his example,

John is a bachelor, so he must be unmarried.

where must has an alethic value, since, following Alonso-Cortés (2008: 256), this type of modality moves in parameters of probability and necessity. Along the same lines as existential modality, it is more useful in philosophical logic, but it is understood that it does not have the same effect in natural language, as Palmer (1990) says.

2.3.1. Epistemic modality

Epistemic modality relates to "matters of knowledge or belief on which basis speakers express their judgements about state of affairs, events or actions" (Hoye 2008), and, furthermore, "[...] applies to assertions and indicates the extent to which the speaker is committed to the truth of the proposition" (Bybee, Perkins & Pagliuca 1994: 179). This makes it clear that this type of modality is frequently associated with the idea of truth with respect to the propositional information being modulated, as can be seen in the following cases:¹

¹ En la descripción de los tipos de modalidad de esta sección, los ejemplos se han tomado de Álvarez-Gil y Domínguez-Morales (2018).

Changing the climate and weather conditions of any destination **may** affect the tourists' comfort and travel decisions, and due to the changing demand pattern and tourist flows, tourism businesses and host communities suffer. Cancellation of any trip due to bad weather causes dissatisfaction and those affected may avoid visiting the destination again (Mahnas 2016).

Sharing conservation revenue with communities surrounding parks **could** demonstrate the link between ecotourism and local communities' economic development, promote a positive view of land restitution involving parks, help address skewed distribution of income in the vicinity of parks and act as an incentive for local communities to participate in conservation even more (Dikgang y Muchapondwa 2017).

In the first example, the verb *may* has a clear function of mitigating propositional content, as the authors seek to provide information that is believed to happen in the future. In this text, the authors show that there is a likelihood that aspects such as changing weather conditions will have a consequence on the decision to go on a holiday trip. It could also be the case that *may* is used here as a negative politeness strategy to avoid imposing on its readers (Alonso-Almeida 2014; Alonso-Almeida 2015a; Carrió-Pastor 2017). In the case of the verb *could* in the second example, it suggests that there is an unspecified probability that sharing conservation revenues with local communities will produce benefits for the industry and for each specific community.

A special case of epistemic value is called epistemic need by van der Auwera and Plungian (1998) which represents an intermediate modal space between what is possible and necessary according to a given reality, as in the following self-authored example:

She **must** have been crying. Her eyes are red and watery.

Here, the verb *must* designates an inferential reasoning whereby the author presents the propositional content as a conclusion according to the contexts selected in the interpretative process; this is also considered evidentiary inferentiality, which Alonso Almeida (2015c), in his interpretation of the use of *seem* and *parecer* in modern medical texts before 1700, describes as a mechanism indicating the role of the speaker with regard to the elaboration of information. In the author's words, this mechanism shows that the "information has been constructed upon the consideration of evidentiary variables that lead the speaker to make a particular claim" (Alonso-Almeida 2015c: 130).

As suggested above, modal verbs may denote the authors' willingness to mitigate the propositional content of the speech act, which is related to the expression of doubt, or the absence of absolute certainty, and linguistic politeness. As noted in Alonso-Almeida (2015a: 37), "mitigation is indeed a complex linguistic concept", as it depends, in part, on the context in which it takes place, as well as the intention of the speaker in signalling the desire to mitigate the harshness of his or her assertion. In principle, mitigation takes place through epistemic structures such as those discussed here, although Alonso-Almeida (2021) claims that this ability to attenuate the content of the proposition is not exclusive to this type of modality and includes dynamic forms as well, as will be seen below.

In the scientific literature, epistemic structures with attenuating value are also known in English by the term hedging, so epistemic modal verbs would fit as mechanisms capable of reducing the illocutive force of the proposition (Hyland 1998; Vassileva 2001; Hu & Cao 2011; Carrió-Pastor 2014; Alonso-Almeida & Carrió-Pastor 2016; Moskowich & Crespo 2019; Flores 2020).

To a considerable extent, this function of attenuating propositional content follows a tradition of academic writing that aims to avoid both the imposition of point of view and confrontation on the grounds of disagreement. In this sense, it is related to the concept of linguistic politeness explained in Brown and Levinson (1987), although, as Alonso-Almeida (2015a: 38) says, with respect to this relationship between epistemic and politeness, the relationship cannot be understood as a basic principle of correspondence in all cases:

Indeed the hedging function of mitigation is one of the commonest pragmatic meanings of modality in context, although it is by no means the only one (Hu and Cao 2011; Hyland 1998; Vassileva 2001). For this reason and contrary to the parallelism between mitigation and politeness put forward in Brown and Levinson (1987: 42), politeness should not be readily inferred from the use of epistemic modals, and certainly not from the use of evidentials in discourse.

Politeness is based on the concept of face which is defined as “the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself” (Brown and Levinson 1987: 61). The objective would be to protect this public image, which would give rise to positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies. In the case of the former, their use is intended to avoid, as far as possible, using language that compromises the good image of the person listening or reading. In the case of the latter, these strategies avoid imposing a point of view in order to avoid a reaction on the part of the listener or reader, which would jeopardise the good image of the listener or reader. In this sense, mitigation would present information stripped of absolute certainty, so that different degrees of certainty with respect to the propositional content would be understood, even to the point of referring to doubt, even if the person reading or speaking is certain of what he or she is saying or writing.

These questions raised about politeness and the absence of imposition form an essential part of the discussion on the modal verbs found in the corpus presented in Chapter 4.

2.3.2. *Deontic modality*

Deontic modality relates 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: 43). As Collins (2009: 22) points out, deontic modality

Occurs when the factors impinging on the actualisation of the situation referred to in the utterance involve some type of authority – as when a person or a set of rules or a social convention is responsible for the imposition of an obligation or a granting of permission.

Deontic modality is characterised by the obligation or necessity to carry out an action following a deontic force which may be internal or external to the speaker, as exemplified in the following fragments with *should*, *will* and *must*:

The results of the research help to provide a better understanding of the conditions needed to develop and manage sustainable tourism in post-conflict environments. In so doing, it **should** be possible to make better policy decisions, with particular reference to social and urban interventions on planning, design and entrepreneurship (Farsari 2018).

There is a need for detailed and comprehensive legislation protecting the rights and needs of disabled tourists, particularly in view of Dubai's successful bid to host Expo 2020. This need **will**, no doubt, be fulfilled in light of the recent announcement that Dubai will enact its own disability law intended to make the emirate fully accessible to persons with disabilities (Morris y Kazi 2014).

For golfers to 'enact' golf, in its current form, tied to designated playing fields (Ceron-Anaya, 2010), a material landscape **must** first be 'appropriated for one use and thus unavailable for others' (Klein, 1999: 214) (Kang et al. 2018).

The use of *should* in the first example reflects the authors' view of how things are necessarily deemed to be as expressed according to the evidence presented in the research that has been carried out. The strong effects that this modal can bring in terms of obligation are mitigated by the use of *be possible* after the modal verb. Similarly, in the case of *will* in the second example, it shows the speakers' firm position with respect to the propositional content, which is further reinforced by the adverbial *no doubt*. In the last example, the modal *must* clearly shows the sense of obligation regarding the performance of the action described in the proposition, which includes the adverbial *first*, stressing the need for this action to be done and for it to be done in the order indicated.

In this sense, the deontic modality is presented as suitable for the expression of authority in the academic article, as Álvarez-Gil (2021a: 261) explains:

The functions of modal verbs driven by these notions of necessity and possibility contribute patently to the elaboration and presentation of knowledge. This includes the idea of academic authority, which stands vital in technical accounts of natural phenomena. Authority, however, is more positively on a par with expertise than with imposition... Deontic modals are contextually justified to indicate perceptions of mild obligation, desirability, volition, advisability and recommendation in the form of prescribed directions to achieve a particular goal. Precisely, the use of directives modulated by means of modal verbs, indicating necessity slightly attenuates a directive that could have been construed with an imperative form.

In the discussion of the results of the analysis of modal verbs in the corpus of introductions and conclusions of scientific articles, it will be noted that one of the functions of the deontic forms is to show the conviction of the authors in the formulation of information, so that through notions of necessity, desire or advice, among others, the authors' opinions about the content of the articles are expressed in the formulation of the article.

2.3.3. *Dynamic modality*

Dynamic modality is actually a complex term, as it is often confused with epistemic modality, as both types refer to what is possible, although the possibility referred to is of a different nature. Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pastor (2017: 279) define dynamic modality as follows:

In dynamic modality, conditions are internal, and it involves senses of willingness and ability on the part of the speaker or writer. Dynamic modality refers to the potentiality of the speaker to develop an action, whether this potentiality be internally or externally motivated, as the enabling circumstances are external or internal.

According to Alonso-Almeida (2015d), dynamic modality appears often in technical-scientific texts and suggests that this type of modality “is used even when the context implies assurance” (Alonso-Almeida 2015d: 404). He warns that this assurance and confidence in the realisation of the event described in the proposition is achieved by considering the capabilities of a particular object or person, so that rather than a modulatory effect, it would show factuality. This is seen in the following example where the use of *will* illustrates how the authors are aware of what their work can contribute to the food industry and which they identify as a fact and which they therefore mark by *will*.

The article **will** be of value to practitioners, researchers, policy makers and other stakeholders involved in the food industry (Taylor et al. 2015).

There is a tendency to confuse dynamic modality and epistemic modality because of the difficulty of deciding what kind of possibility is referred to in each example. The context is fundamental for this, as it will be easy to figure out in this way whether it is a possible fact due to a quality or a hypothesis. Moreover, one of the elements that lead to confusion is the possibility of expressing politeness, avoiding the imposition of the point of view, through dynamic modality, which is normally done with epistemic elements. This idea is taken up in Alonso-Almeida’s (2021) study of dynamic modal verbs:

Entre las formas más usadas para significar cortesía están *may* y *could*, probablemente como extensión de sus equivalentes epistémicos... La función pragmática de los modales dinámicos es principalmente manifestar cortesía mediante la atenuación del contenido proposicional para evitar imponer el punto de vista de los hablantes. La modalidad dinámica, que se refiere a una posibilidad basada en la disposición y el potencial para realizar una acción, se basa en esta característica para conseguir este efecto mitigante, pues se presenta a menudo la información aportada como una perspectiva y no como un hecho constatado. En esta línea, se entiende, y es la idea que he tratado de defender en este trabajo, que la modalidad dinámica en el corpus de trabajo persigue con frecuencia mostrar la identificación del papel del hablante en la elaboración de la información, ya sea por referencia a características internas o externas de los participantes (Alonso-Almeida 2021) ‘Among the forms most commonly used to signify politeness are *may* and *could*, probably as an extension of their epistemic equivalents... The pragmatic function of dynamic modals is primarily to manifest politeness by attenuating propositional content in order to avoid imposing the speakers’ point of view. The dynamic modality, which refers to a possibility based on the willingness and potential to perform an action, relies on this feature to achieve this mitigating effect, as the information supplied is often presented as a perspective rather than as an established fact. Along these lines, it is understood, and this is the idea I have tried to defend in this paper, that the dynamic modality in the corpus work often aims to show the identification of the speaker’s role in the elaboration of the information, either by reference to internal or external characteristics of the participants.’

2.4. Modal devices

Several devices are involved in the expression of modality, and these include morphological and lexical elements. Among the former are the indication of tense, aspect and mood. Modal verbs

are at the intersection between grammatical meaning and lexical meaning, as Aikhenvald (2004) points out, and have the capacity to show the speaker's perspective. Purely lexical items are, for example, nouns and adjectives, although they are not the object of analysis in this work. All these are described in this section.

2.4.1. Tense, aspect, and mood

Comrie defines tense as the "grammaticalised expression of location in time" (1985: 9), which means that a language can encode through morphological features the time at which a given action takes place. In the examples *Me quedo en casa para comer con Inés* and *Me quedé en casa para comer con Inés*, the time in which each event takes place is expressed by the use of the desinences *-o* and *-é*, for the first person singular of the present and the past, respectively. In other words, the verb tense has a deictic value.

The relationship between tense and aspect, as Hogeweg, de Hoop and Malchukov (2009: 1) point out, is not extraordinarily complex, although the proximity between these two concepts is evident. While tense shows when a certain action is carried out, aspect can nuance the way in which an action is carried out, even if it is the same verb tense, as can be seen in these examples: *I am writing a monograph on English modal verbs* and *I am writing a monograph on English modal verbs*. It is clear that, while both events take place in the present tense, there is a certain perspectivisation in the use of the present tense *escribo* and the progressive *estoy escribiendo*, which will be defined by the context determining the choice of one or the other utterance. The use of aspect also makes it possible to show that an action is completely finished, even if there is a connection with the present tense, as can be seen in *I have written a monograph on modal verbs in English* and *I am being published by a London publisher*.

The *mode* can be captured by morphological elements and serves to show hypothesis as opposed to factual fact in the description of a reality, as is evident from Huddleston's (1984: 80) words:

Mood is then used for an inflectional system of the verb where the contrasts between the terms characteristically involve factuality vs non-factuality, assertions vs non-assertions, main clauses vs subordinate clauses.

Bearing in mind the above definition of modality, the connection of mode with modal verbs can be seen, except that the former is a grammaticalized phenomenon. Saying *I wouldn't make that recipe without help* is not so far removed from *I can't make that recipe without help*, although the perspective is conceptualised morphologically in the former case and by a modal verb in the latter. Modal verbs are discussed in the next section.

2.4.2. Modal verbs

In English, there are nine core modal verbs, as noted in Biber et al. (1999: 483), namely: *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *shall*, *should*, *will*, *would* and *must*. These authors establish a relationship between modals forming pairs according to a grammatical value based on the expression of time: *can* and *could*, *may* and *might*, *shall* and *should*, *will* and *would* (1999: 485). However, despite

this use with a late medieval origin, the past forms of these verbs have different pragmatic functions, among them, the mitigation of the propositional content as a politeness strategy, since it avoids imposing the speaker's criterion, as happens with *could* in *These results obtained from this study could help us understand the reasons for the lack of visitors in the islands last summer*. In this example, the whole proposition is attenuated by the use of the modal verb which indicates the likelihood that what is expressed will be fulfilled. Of course, *could* would not be a past tense form in this case. Yes, it would be in the example *The island could host the summer music fest last year, and it was a complete success*, where the modal form indicates past tense.

In addition to the verbs mentioned above, there are others which are called peripheral modals or marginal modals, although they are often referred to as *semi-modals*. These are: *need (to)*, *ought to*, *dare (to)*, and *used to*. As can be seen, one of the aspects that stands out in the semi-modals with respect to the core modals is the possibility that the former can be followed by *to* plus infinitive, while the latter can be followed by an infinitive verb without *to*. Similar to the semi-modals is a third group of idiomatic expressions with modal meaning (Biber et al. 1999: 484): *have to*, *had better*, *be supposed to*

According to Denison (1993: 292 ff), the description of modal verbs in English can be based on morphological, syntactic and semantic criteria, which result in the following parameters:

- a. Modal verbs do not have finite forms and therefore it is not possible to find forms like **to may* and **to can*.
- b. Temporal distinction may occur in these forms, as explained above, but these past tense expressions may have a contextual meaning and do not represent past tense.
- c. Modal verbs do not have a third person singular ending of the present indicative, i.e. the forms **she cans*, **he mays*, **he musts*, **she wills* are not acceptable.
- d. Many modal verbs have contracted forms in their negative form (*can't*, *won't*, *mustn't*), and some even show reduced phonological forms in the form of a clitic, such as *'ll*, *'d*, instead of *shall/will* and *would*, respectively.
- e. These verbs do not have imperative forms.
- f. Modal verbs are followed by infinitives without *to*: *She may stay*.
- g. Modal verbs affect the entire propositional content of the clause in which they appear: *MAY [She stay]*.
- h. From a dialectal perspective, it may happen that there is more than one modal verb in a row, as is the case in some variants in the North of England and Scotland, where we can find cases of double modal: *So I say - you won't can't read it lass* (example taken from Tagliamonte (2013: 24)),

- i. as operators, share a set of properties known by the acronym NICE: (a) they can be negated by the use of *n't/not*, (b) they can perform subject-verb inversion, (c) they admit elision of propositional content, i.e. they have a coda function, as in.

A. *Can you come with me?*

B. *Bof course, I can*, where the use of *can* in the answer allows the elision of propositional content, and (d) *can* be used in questions of emphatic polarity.

One way of showing modality is through lexical mechanisms, as Facchinetti, Krug and Palmer (2003: vi) point out: "Modality is realized by linguistic items from a wide range of grammatical classes, covering not only modal auxiliaries and lexical verbs, but also nouns, adjectives, adverbs, idioms, particles, mood and prosody in speech". A clear case of lexical strategies for modulating propositional content are what are known as hedges in English in the sense proposed in Hyland (1994) and which specify epistemic meaning. Mur-Dueñas (2011: 3070) defines this concept as: "features which limit the writer's full commitment to what is stated in a proposition, and which may be the result of certain pragmatic conventions in academic writing". Examples would be the use of the matrix *It is likely that...* or the adverb *Probably...* which attenuate the content of the proposition they accompany.

Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 176) refer to these mechanisms as *lexical modals*, which they illustrate and define as follows:

We use this term for items expressing the same kind of meaning as the modal auxiliaries, but which do not belong to the syntactic class of auxiliary verbs. It covers adjectives like *possible, necessary, likely, probable, bound, supposed*, adverbs like *perhaps, possibly, necessarily, probably, certainly, surely*, verbs like *insist, permit, require*, and nouns like *possibility, necessity, permission*, and similar derivatives.

In these words, it can be seen that words with modal content are related to the semantic fields of probability, possibility and necessity. The latter includes meanings of obligation and permission, which are complementary in that the notion of permission can indicate the absence of obligation or prohibition, as in *Students are allowed to come in now to the exam theatre*. Here the notion of permission follows from the absence of prohibition of access to the examination venue.

2.4.3. Objectivity, subjectivity and intersubjectivity

Modality is understood as a subjective aspect, as noted by Hyland (1997, 1994, 2002) and Carrió-Pastor (2014) and Carrió-Pastor and Calderón (2015), among others. However, scientific language has always been characterised by the claim of objective communication of the advances that have been made in a specific field. However, the very conception of objectivity implies the idea of subjectivity, as far as an objective communication would imply the absence of a conceptualiser who would be responsible for the formulation of the content, as is also explained in the following:

It has been argued that, in the objective point of view, the speaker or the writer intends (or pretends) to describe things as if there were no subject of consciousness behind the utterance (Almeida & Ferrari 2010: 112).

Taylor and Littlemore (2014: 12) show through the example *The cat is sitting on the mat* that objectivity poses a number of problems, for what exactly are the references that a given speaker makes when using the terms *cat* and *mat*. Is it, for example, in the case of *mat*, a type of carpet or, better, a type of mat? When the preposition *on* is used to talk about a location, it can indicate different positions in which the cat would be. With this, it is evident that objectivity seems difficult to communicate as there are degrees of adaptation of meanings to personal contexts, as well as degrees of perspectivisation of content to suit the speaker's own communicative needs.

From the above, it can be deduced that there is subjectivity in the expressions expressed by the speakers through which a certain point of view is manifested, as can be seen in *This year the English team could be the winner*. The difference between *The cat is sitting on the mat* and the last example is the use of the modal particle *could*, by which the subjective view of the speaker is made explicit and linguistically codified. Uncertainty is expressed by stating a hypothesis that is likely to occur in the future.

Lyons (1994: 13) summarises subjectivity in these terms:

...locutionary subjectivity is the locutionary agent's (the speaker's or writer's, the utterer's) expression of himself or herself in the act of utterance: locutionary subjectivity is, quite simply, self-expression in the use of language.

Here the role of the speaker and the expression of his or her point of view in the formulation of the propositional content becomes clear. In Langacker's (1999; 2009) cognitive grammar, subjectivity coincides exactly with the perspective on the [re]construction of the scenario in which the event alluded to takes place, in which the conceptualiser observes *off-stage* the reality described, whereby it has to be *subjectively* constructed.

On the other hand, the confluence of several cognitive systems responds to an intersubjective interpretation of the information provided. Zlatev et al. (2008: 1) define intersubjectivity as "*the sharing of experiential content (e.g., feelings, perceptions, thoughts, and linguistic meanings) among a plurality of subjects*" (emphasis added). Thus, intersubjective information comes from the concurrence of the perspective emanating from the different participants in the communicative exchange:

Just as all language use can be said to be subjective in a general sense, it is intersubjective in a general sense, reflecting the impact of the speech situation which not just involves a speaker but a communicative relationship between speaker and hearer (Cuyckens, Davidse & Vandelanotte 2010: 14).

In this work, these concepts, in particular subjectivity and intersubjectivity, are central to the interpretation of the uses made of modal verbs, as the autonomous or collegial expression of point of view has an impact on pragmatic effects to indicate, among other things, degrees of

linguistic politeness (through the mitigation of propositional content) or the expression of authority through the reinforcement brought about by the recurrence of point of view.

Given that this study covers an analysis of modal verbs in the scientific article in the tourist register, a description of the genre is relevant in order to contextualise the analysis of the modal verbs in the following section.

2.5. The tourism research article as a genre

As mentioned above, this section aims to give an account of the form of the tourism research article. Despite what may appear to be the importance of tourism research for global economies, the tourism research article has not enjoyed much attention in textual criticism studies from the point of view of genre, as Lin and Evans (2012) point out. Before addressing the structure of the article, a contextualisation of the theoretical underpinnings is necessary, following systemic-functional theory. This description is important for the correct identification of the sections corresponding to the introduction and the conclusion of the articles, which will be explained later in this book, as they are part of the body of work for the analysis of modal forms.

2.5.1. *Text type, genre, register in the context of systemic-functional theory (SFT). Description of concepts*

Text types, genre and register have been studied within the framework of functional and systemic-functional linguistics, as can be seen in the work of Martin (1984), Halliday and Hasan (1985) and Moessner (2001), among others. These theories have been applied to studies of academic and professional writing genres (cf. Swales 1990; Bhatia 1993; Azar 2012; 2013; 2014; 2015). The definition of the first concept mentioned above, text types, depends on the approach (functional, structural, social, psychological, etc.) used to define it. In this paper, a functional approach will be used, so, following Biber (1988: 70), text types refer to "groupings of texts that are similar with respect to their linguistic form, irrespective of genre categories". Biber and Finegan (1989), in agreement with Werlich (1976), identify the following text types: descriptive, narrative, expository, argumentative and instructional. The text types provide information about the linguistic structures associated with each of them. Biber (1988) lists a number of these structures which function as markers of text types. These include nominal forms, adverbs of time, proforms, adjectives, lexical specificity, modal verbs, nominal forms, lexical verbs and adverbs, among other morphological, syntactic and lexical structures.

Since these are formal linguistic elements, their use will be directly related to the type of text in question. Hence, a narrative text will have as its main characteristic, for example, a specific use of verb tenses in the past or present tense, depending on the perspective intended in the narrative. In general, we will say that a certain set of features is specific to one or other type of text and therefore characterises it. Obviously, this has relevant pedagogical implications for language learning, but also for the learning of specialised languages and, in particular, for academic writing. We could say that, in the case of the research article in tourism, as it is made up of several types of texts depending on the author's intentionality at each moment of his work,

modal verbs would in principle be a formal characteristic of the argumentation which would be established both in the discussion of the data and in the general conclusion to the work presented, as we shall see in the following chapter.

Another example of this type of article, as Álvarez-Gil (2022) points out, is the use of the past to express objectivity that occurs in the narrative texts included in the description of data collection, where episodic accounts of how the research process was carried out are given in great detail. This is seen in the following example taken from a tourism research article that has been used to draw the introductions and conclusions of the corpus. Here, we can see the “narrative style” that Álvarez-Gil (2022) mentions as characterising the article in tourism, as will be explained in the following section (the bold in this example are editorial). Here we can precisely see the use of the past tense to relate the method procedure that has been used in a very explicit way as opposed to the more condensed form that research articles in linguistics, for example, usually present. In the same example, the use of the present tense is used exclusively to show a characteristic or a generality, as in “Romanians are not generally comfortable with being recorded” in the below example.

Interviewing was undertaken in Romanian by two ‘teams’: the first comprised two of the authors (a Romanian woman and a British man). Both were Romanian speakers and both were broadly similar in age to the research participants. Moreover, having lived through the socialist period, the Romanian researcher had shared the broader experiences of the interviewees. The second team comprised a young, male Romanian research assistant and one of the authors (a British man who does not speak Romanian). Feminist/ gender research stresses reflexivity on the part of the researcher (Pritchard, 2014; Tickner, 2005) and we must recognise our positionality in relation to our research participants. In particular, the women that we spoke to may have been uncomfortable about discussing their experiences of working in tourism with strangers, some of whom were both men, and not Romanian. However, most proved very willing to talk about working in tourism under socialism. Indeed, they were visibly more comfortable when it was apparent that we wished to discuss the socialist past rather than the contemporary state of tourism at the Black Sea. Only one issue - surveillance by the state authorities - provoked discomfort in some participants, and we did not pursue this issue in such cases. The interviews lasted between 20 and 45 minutes and, since Romanians are not generally comfortable with being recorded, we made notes which were subsequently written up into a more detailed account. These were then analysed using standard qualitative coding methods (Dumbrăveanu et al. 2016: 156-157).

As far as textual genre is concerned, it has a social and functional dimension, as a genre has a specific mission. A note has the mission to leave a quick message to someone or to oneself. An instruction manual aims to instruct on how to do something. Speakers of a given language can recognise these linguistic facts and interpret them. There are many definitions of genre, but they all point to this social and communicative aspect of textual genres, as can be seen in the one provided by Biber (Biber 1988: 170) when he says that genre categories “are determined on the basis of external criteria relating to the speaker’s purpose and topic; they are assigned on the basis of use rather than on the basis of form”. From this it follows that intentionality is fundamental in the configuration of a genre and also the subject matter. However, for some authors (cf. Alonso-Almeida 2008), topic is no more related to the concept of register, which we

will see below, than to that of textual genre. Indeed, the research article itself is a genre regardless of the field it serves, the genre has among its peculiarities to mark the informative structure in which it is developed and should influence the lexical issues that may be more characteristic of the type of text or, better, of the register, as has been pointed out.

Gender functionality, purpose, social dimension and structure are also part of the definition of this concept proposed by Swales (1990):

Genre is a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale of the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choices of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience (Swales 1990: 58).

For this author, the structure of genres is configured according to a series of *moves* and *steps*, following the terminology of Swales (1990). As for Martin (1984: 25), he uses the term *stage* in his definition of textual genre: "a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture". I will translate the term "stage" in this paper as "section" because it is a term widely used in the literature on textual genres and, particularly, in relation to scientific articles. Eggins (1994: 41) establishes two types of descriptive genre structures according to the concept of section (or *stage*). The first of these is called *generic structure potential*, which includes all the possible sections that can be found in a textual genre, and the possible order of these is often indicated by a circumflex to indicate the fixed order of a section in the given sequence or an asterisk to indicate the existence of a random order of a certain section with respect to the rest in the sequence; the use of parentheses means that a section is optional. The second is the *actual generic structure* and refers to the sequence of sections of a particular genre example. In the case of research articles, the structure presented by an article is its actual generic structure and the sum of the actual generic structures of several articles results in the *potential structure of a genre*.

Genres may differ in terms of register, as may be the subject or discipline on which they are written. Thus, articles may deal with engineering, geography, medicine, history, psychology or linguistics. However, as will be noted below following the results on the study of the *research article* genre in the discipline of tourism in Álvarez-Gil (2022), the "discipline" variable may justify variations in terms of the presence of sections in an article and also in terms of the use of language. In systemic-functional linguistics, the term *register* is defined as follows:

A register is a functional variety of language (Halliday, McIntosh & Stevens 1964; Halliday 1978) - the patterns of instantiation of the overall system associated with a given type of context (a situation type).⁸ These patterns of instantiation show up quantitatively as adjustments in the systemic probabilities of language; a register can be represented as a particular setting of systemic probabilities. For example, the future tense is very much more likely to occur in weather forecasts than it is in stories (Halliday & Matthiessen 2014: 29).

Register relates to three metafunctions, according to Halliday (1985a), which are ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational metafunction concerns the expression of experiences and content. Interpersonal metafunction concerns the way in which actions are carried out and the relationship that exists between the participants in a communicative exchange. Finally, textual metafunction concerns the construction of the text and the relationships between the parts of the textual fabric. There are three register variables (Halliday 1985b): field, mode and tenor. Flowerdew (2013: 12-13) defines these concepts of systemic linguistics as follows:

- a. Field: "the purpose of the communication and what it is about";
- b. Mode: "how the language is organised and functions in the interaction, for example, whether it is written or spoken or some combination of the two (as in various electronic modalities, whether it is expository, or didactic or persuasive, and so forth"; and.
- c. Tenor: "the relations between the participants in the text".

Field is related to ideational metafunction, mode to textual and tenor to interpersonal, which is resolved in a series of lexical and grammatical decisions in the production of a text.

2.5.2. The research article in tourism. Structure of the article

The scientific article is a textual genre in that it has a specific structure, which is identifiable to the scientific community, and fulfils a specific function. Swales (1990: 93) defines genre as:

a written text (although often containing non-verbal elements), usually limited to a few thousand words, that reports on some investigation carried out by its author or authors. In addition, the RA will usually relate the findings within it to those of others, and may also examine issues of theory and/or methodology. It is to appear or has appeared in a research journal or, less typically, in an edited book-length collection of papers.

Following the functionalist model, the research article in tourism published in scientific journals has as its field of study facts related to tourism and the hotel and catering industry. The tenor is made up of the researchers themselves, other researchers, students, entrepreneurs and politicians, all of them with a desire to study and/or improve activity in the sector. Finally, the mode is written in publications in paper and/or electronic format.

The generic form of the tourism research article has not received much attention from scientific critics, as noted by Lin and Evans (2012) who argue the high structural variability of scientific discourse as one of the main stumbling blocks that researchers encounter in order to accurately define genre in this register. Álvarez-Gil (2022) has uncovered the form of the tourism research article by analyzing the actual genre structures of 74 articles, all of them taken from high-impact journals in the field, and it is this work that will serve as a model for me to describe genre in this study.

Although these authors also found great variation in the use, appearance and distribution of the sections, their generic potential proposal includes 6 of them. This organisational pattern presents a single section that always appears, i.e. the introduction, while the rest are optional, either

because they do not appear or because they are subsumed within others without the possibility of segmenting them. Thus, the potential would be as follows, using the English terminology used by the authors, but which we translate in figure 1:

Introduction ^ (Approach) ^ (Research Design) ^ (Results) ^ (Discussion) ^ (Conclusion)

Figure 1. Generic potential of the tourism research article, according to Álvarez-Gil (2022).

In his study, Álvarez-Gil (2022) found that all the texts had a compulsory introduction, although not all of them indicated this fact with a section title in line with their content. The next most common sections were the *approach*, *conclusion*, and *discussion*, in that order. The *results* and *design* sections appeared less often, less than half of the times.

The functions of these sections were described in Álvarez-Gil (2022). Thus, the *introduction* is used to (a) state the motives and justification that lead to the proposed study, (b) show the objectives, (c) state the study hypothesis, and (d) state the theoretical foundations and methods used. The *approach* has the functions of (a) describing the theoretical background of the research conducted and (b) describing similar research activity in tourism. The *research design* section is concerned with describing how the research activity was carried out. As for the *results*, this section aims to summarise the main conclusions of the analysis of a data set.

The *discussion* section aims to (a) interpret the possible meanings of the data obtained from the analysis of the results in the context of the theoretical framework, (b) supply inferences in the light of the results, (c) offer concluding remarks, "especially in cases where a proper conclusion stage is not included", as Álvarez-Gil (2022) points out. In the case of the conclusion (*conclusion*), its functions are (a) to describe the main contribution(s) of the work, (b) to show the author's perspective with respect to the observed data and within the existing knowledge, (c) to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the research being presented, (d) outline directions/statements for future research, and (e) the epilogue (*postlude*), although only one case occurs, according to the authors, its main function is to provide relevant and unexpected information obtained after the completion of the paper and the research being discussed.

Some sections are clearly shown by headings that have certain coincidences with those used by Álvarez-Gil (2022) to name the sections. However, as noted in the same work, the tourism research article does not always use sections that clearly show the function they stand for; on the contrary, "some section headings in some of the examined cases may describe descriptive of the content to the extent that headings become very creative and original". Some examples in this sense are the following for the discussion section, which show the variation that exists for the same section, whether the word "section" is included, as in the following cases taken from tourism research articles:

The familiar foreigner (Tchoukarine 2016: 393).

Discussion: the gaze as arbiter in a 'liquid modern world' (Hocking 2016: 376). Residents' attitudes towards Chinese tourists in Niseko (Nelson & Matthews 2018: 224).

As indicated above, the sections of a research article are not always easy to distinguish, as it depends on the authors and the divisions they think appropriate, unless there is a rigid editorial policy that requires a specific structure of the article. One of the ways in which Álvarez-Gil (2022) justify and recognise the generic sections is through the use of specific lexical and morphological patterns, which are explained in the following section with examples taken from the same articles used to form the corpus of introductions and conclusions and whose references are found in an appendix of this work.

2.6. Conclusion

In this chapter, the linguistic aspects that will assist the analysis of the modal verbs presented in the fourth chapter of this work have been presented. To this end, the notion of modality has been reviewed and clarified, which is followed in this study and which, as I have pointed out above, has as its purpose the evaluation of the modulated proposition, so it would be a device of perspectivisation, as has been pointed out in the scientific literature (cf. Papafragou 1998; Closs Traugott 2003; Efstathiadi 2010; Kirkham 2011). This evaluation can have different communicative effects and varies according to the context and the meanings of the modal verbs used. The concepts of objectivity, subjectivity and intersubjectivity have also been described, which will allow me to explain some uses of modal verbs found in the introductions and conclusions of scientific articles in the discipline of tourism.

Furthermore, a description of the scientific article in tourism as a textual genre has been carried out. For this reason, the structure of the research article in tourism is described following the theoretical model of systemic-functional linguistics, whereby this configuration is shown in terms of stages. The organisational pattern of the genre in tourism has been described in Álvarez-Gil (2022), which forms the first approach to the research article in this field. In their work, these authors show the macrostructure of the genre by means of a sample of articles that were each segmented autonomously in order to correctly identify the sections. Following this study, seven sections are evident, of which only the introduction appears in all the articles analysed. The rest of the sections do not always appear as such in the selected samples, as manifested in the generic potential offered by these authors.

A fundamental part is the characterisation of the sections in terms of their functions and the language used, which will be especially useful in the identification of the texts that has been carried out for the corpus, as will be seen in the next chapter. While all the sections seem to have specific functions, the discussion and the conclusion share some of them. This is probably because some articles do not present these two sections at the same time, so that the functions of the discussion are assumed in the conclusion and vice versa.

METHODOLOGY AND CORPUS

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a description of the working corpus and the method followed for the textual compilation and modality analysis in this work. To ensure that the texts composing the corpus of introductions and conclusions have been correctly found, a language analysis of all sections of the tourism research articles selected for compilation is carried out. This would justify all the inclusions of the sections called “introduction” and “conclusion” in the corpus, since they all respond to functional and lexico-grammatical criteria, applying the criteria set out in Álvarez-Gil (2022), as described in an earlier chapter.

That said, the structure of this chapter is as follows. In Section 3.2, the working method is described and the corpus for the analysis of modal verbs is presented in Section 3.3. In section 3.4, specific language patterns associated with each section of the research article structure are shown with concrete examples drawn from the full articles from which the introductions and conclusions that form the working corpus for the analysis of modal verbs in chapter 4 have been drawn.

3.2. Method of analysis

The analysis of modal verbs in this paper is based on the forms found by computer analysis in a corpus of introductions and conclusions in tourism research articles, as explained in the introduction. These sections extracted from tourism articles to compile our corpus have been converted into readable plain text for use with the *CasualConc* (Imao 2020) tools for computer analysis of these texts. The set allows the search for modal forms according to the string *can/ could/ may/ might/ might/ must/ will/ would/ shall/ should/ should* according to each of the sections of the articles considered here. The number of words in the introductory material of the scientific articles is 100,363, and another set of 83,156 words corresponds to the concluding material of the scientific articles. To compare the results, the data have been normalised to 10,000 words.

The identification of the introduction and conclusion sections in the selected documents was carried out using the information in Álvarez-Gil (2022), and most of the texts included the names

of the sections, so the degree of reliability is high. In those cases where the term “conclusion” has been used together with “discussion”, we have made sure that the contents included are exactly those corresponding to a conclusion. The corpus query by section using the lexico-grammatical templates described in section 3.4 has returned the examples below, thus justifying the division of the sections made.

As for the method used to obtain the data on modal verbs, the string *can/ could/ may/ might/ might/ must/ will/ would/ shall/ should/ should/ should in CasualConc* has been introduced in order to obtain the concordances with these forms in the introductions and in the conclusions. In addition, these modal verbs have been classified according to the modal meanings found in these texts. These meanings have been found following the description given in the theoretical framework section in the second chapter for the categories of epistemic, deontic and dynamic modality.

As mentioned above, context is crucial for the identification of the modal meanings and the pragmatic function played by the verbs in each of the sections of the scientific article analysed in this study. In this sense, von Stechow (2006: 22-23) argues that “modal expressions have in of themselves a rather skeletal meaning and it is only in combination with the background context that they take on a particular shade of meaning (such as epistemic or deontic)”, although they “are not entirely subject to the whims of context but impose their own preferences as to what kind of modal meaning they would like to express”. Following these ideas, in the analyses, the frequency of occurrence of modal forms appearing in the introductions and conclusions of the scientific article in tourism is reported. These occurrences of modal verbs are presented first as a whole and then for each form detected. To evaluate the existence of variation between the sections and the actual effect of this variation, the statistical analysis called *t-test* will be used, which shows whether such variation is significant in two sets of data. With these data, Cohen's *d* is calculated, which shows three effect sizes, namely (a) small: $d \leq 0.2$, (b) medium: $d \leq 0.5$, and (c) large: $d \leq 0.8$.

For the calculation of variation, in the case of modal meanings, the *log-likelihood* (LL) statistical test is used, whose values for each modal form can be calculated with the *Log-likelihood and effect size calculator* which is freely available at <http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html>. This calculator requires the unstandardised frequency data for each section and per modal verbs together with the total number of words in the corpus per section. This LL test works well for determining the effect of variation between two groups of variables in small corpora, as in the case of our corpus of introductions and conclusions of scientific articles, which does not exceed 200,000 words.

This is, together with the approach developed in this chapter on the structure of the research article in tourism, the method used for the analysis of modal verbs in the corpus of introductions and conclusions in Chapter 4. The analyses of the texts allow the statistical calculations necessary to obtain quantitative conclusions that serve as a basis for a qualitative analysis of the results, as will be seen in the following chapter.

3.3. Methodology of textual compilation: Corpus of research article introductions and conclusions in tourism

The introductions and conclusions that serve as the basis for this study are based on a set of 160 research articles found in journals published between 2015 and 2018 with a score of more than nine points in the ICDS (*Secondary Composite Index Broadcasting*) visibility index, which can be consulted in MIAR (<http://miar.ub.edu>). Such an index shows that a journal with nine ICDS points or more is bound to appear as listed in several international databases. The relevance of this criterion for the choice of journal articles in our corpus is that it ensures, firstly, that the journal enjoys prestigious recognition and, secondly, that the journal is widely distributed in the scientific community for which its contents are intended. In principle, journals with this minimum level of ICDS classification are understood to have recognised research standards that ensure quality in editing and content.

In this work, the journals *Journal of Travel Research*, *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, *Tourism Economics* and *Tourist Studies* have been selected to extract the texts, as they meet this criterion of visibility. Since the aim of the study is to analyze modal verbs in English, this will be the language of the texts to be compiled. This does not mean that the authorship will come from a native speaker and, therefore, with English as L1. Even if they use some geographical variety of English, there is a tendency for the criterion to be 'native' as opposed to 'non-native'. However, this differentiation is almost always justified by surnames because of a lack of real knowledge of the identity of the person who bears the surname. Thus, someone whose surname is Smith is assumed to be educated in English, even if that person has this surname by chance descent from a person of Anglo-Saxon origin, but this person, however, has been brought up in a country whose L1 is not English and his or her exclusive contact with this language is as an L2. On the other hand, no one can claim that a person whose surname is Fernandez did not grow up in Australia and is a second- or third-generation immigrant, so his or her L1 would be English. As highlighted in Tribble (2017: 34), a surname cannot really indicate whether or not English is a speaker's L1. He adds that what "can identify, however, are shared features of lexis, grammar, and discourse convention, which clearly show that the texts are grounded in specialist academic written genres".

Even in the case of non-native speakers, most journals require the article to be edited by an L1 speaker before publication, and these articles may result in a mixture of idiolects in which it is not always possible to distinguish identity with certainty. On the other hand, discipline expertise seems to override the native/non-native distinction, as Römer's (2009, 99) findings suggest: 'when we deal with advanced-level academic writing, we actually move beyond the native/non-native distinction and that, in this context, experience or expertise is a more important aspect to consider than nativeness'. Thus, Mauranen (2018: 113, 116) says that, in fact, the notion of idiolect is more appropriate and reliable in text descriptions. In the light of the above, therefore, we have preferred to analyse the language without taking the origin of the speakers for granted.

That said, the composition of our corpus of introductions and conclusions would be as follows, as shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Corpus.

Year	Number of articles	Journals	Stage	Word count
2015	15	Journal of Travel Research	Introducción	100.363
2016	58	Journal of Vacation Marketing		
2017	37	Tourism Economics	Conclusión	83.156
2018	50	Tourist Studies		

Logically, the extraction of specific sections from a research article in tourism first requires a characterisation of this genre that reliably allows the identification of these sections for functional and linguistic reasons. For this reason, following the characterisation of the scientific article in tourism in the context of the systemic-functional theory in chapter 2, a recognition of the sections contained in the selected research articles is carried out in order to extract the introductions and conclusions. The bibliographical data of these texts are included in the appendix of this book. The reference to the texts in the corpus (introduction and conclusion) follows the format of the authors' surnames followed by the year of publication and preceded by a number in brackets. In the case of examples referring to the rest of the sections of the research article (approach, design, analysis, discussion), but which do not form part of the working corpus, they are also referenced by including the page of the fragment.

3.4. Language and sections of the research article

In order to characterise and identify the sections that form part of the compiled corpus, the lexical and/or grammatical formulae that Álvarez-Gil (2022) have recorded as distinctive for each section of the research article will be applied, although this only represents a very small part of the description of the genre made by these authors. With this test, the intention is to confirm beyond any doubt the suitability of the selected texts as introductions and conclusions. Thus, the examples corresponding to the introductions and conclusions in this section are from the corpus, which is why they are highlighted by consecutive numbering, as explained above. With this, they are distinguished from those which serve to illustrate the other sections and which are taken from the same articles from which the introductions and conclusions have been extracted, but which do not form part of the textual compilation used in the analysis of modal verbs. Overall, a characterization is achieved in terms of the form of the research article according to language use, as well as ensuring that the texts included as introductions and conclusions in the compilation made are such.

Many of the formulas that have been identified as characterizing the genre of the research article in tourism clearly reflect the function of its component sections. In the introduction, for

example, there are formulas that state the aim of the research article, such as (a) *The (ADJ) (aim/purpose/point) of (the/this article/study) is to INF*, as in examples (1) to (5) and (b) *This article's central purpose is to INF*, as in (6).

1. **The aim of this article is to present** a case study scenario for the future of hotels in larger cities that serve this new community of global citizens (Lub et al. 2016).
2. **The key purpose of the research is to provide** a tool to better explain consumers' intention to book tourism products online (Sahli and Legohérel 2016).
3. **The purpose of the article is to examine** how theoretical understandings of authenticity, staging, and negotiation play out in on-line communities of travel reviewers who have reported on their touristic experiences of "hill tribe" attractions in northern Thailand (Walter 2016).
4. **The purpose of this study is thus to analyze** the patterns of household expenditure on tourism in different life stages using the national household survey data for China (Lin et. 2015).
5. By analysing the narratives of individuals undertaking a geotour, **the aim of this article is to explore** the experiential dimension of geotourism (Aquino, Schänzel & Hyde 2018).
6. **This article's central purpose is to extend** conceptualizations of existential authenticity by showcasing its scalar dimensions (Gillen 2016).

There are other expressions in the introduction related to the presentation of the topic or objectives, but these contain a lexical communicative verb of the SPEAKING type, or an experiential verb of the LOOK type in Dixon's (2005) classification, which is followed by Alonso-Almeida and Álvarez-Gil (2021). These expressions are *The/This article focuses on...*, *The article has X goals...*, *This/ Our article addresses...*, *The article presents...*, as seen in the following examples:

7. **This study focuses** on music-making on the island, examining ways in which resident musicians negotiate the particular set of circumstances created by Fernando de Noronha's reliance on the tourist economy (Fitzgerald & Reis 2016).
8. **The research focuses** on the ways the tourist experience is communicated in this particular context (Wang and Alasuutari 2017).
9. **Our article addresses** a significant issue in tourism policy that connects to the nature and future of its markets (Taznelli and Korstanje 2016).
10. Subsequently, the article presents the main results and conclusions and gives suggestions for a future research agenda (Hernmann et al. 2017).

11. **This article thus addresses** the increasingly important role of social media in creating and changing the identity of place and person, while illustrating the power of discourse in the maintenance of place identity (Weatherby & Vidon 2018).
12. Therefore, **this article presents** a comparative qualitative empirical perspective, exploring how, and in which ways, tourists involve this kind of identity-work in practice during their visits to music-related locations (Bolderman & Reijnders 2017).

Similarly, expressions with verbs such as discuss, conclude, and report (Dixon 2005) are used in the formulas This article argues/ explores/ examines/ shows/ demonstrates..., (In this article,) we argue/ approach/ explore/ focus (ADV) on/ (shall) examine/ theorise/ demonstrate..., (In this article,) we argue/ approach/ explore/ focus (ADV) on/ (shall) examine/ theorise/ demonstrate..., This/The article draws on..., and This/The article proposes/ concludes.... These all relate to the intention to show and mark the empirical nature of the research article, as well as the cognitive processes that occur in the argumentation, as shown in the following examples:

13. **This article explores** some of these effects, as identified by Niseko residents, and for reasons outlined below unpacks their responses to two specific tourist groups: those from Australia and China (Nelson & Matthews 2018).
14. **In this article, we shall examine** what kind of a gateway Iceland represents by focusing on how it is promoted as a tourism destination aimed at stopover visitors... (Lund, Loftsdóttir & Leonard 2017).
15. By investigating one popular rock climbing destination-Red River Gorge, Kentucky, USA-**this article demonstrates** that mobilities invite encounters with and enactments of place such that travel rhythms, everyday rhythms, and natural rhythms coalesce, interrupt, and even emerge anew (Rickly 2017a).
16. **The article first draws on** and engages with the theoretical background, then provides the methodological approach and empirical analysis of the study, and concludes with discussion and further research (Bui and Wilkins 2017).
17. **We argue that** locally situated responses to globally imposed troika policies (see Robertson, 1995 on 'glocalisation'), point to a radical alteration in the country's image as a tourist destination (Taznelli and Korstanje 2016).
18. **The paper concludes with** a discussion of the implications of the findings for management practice and future research (Song et al. 2018).

Finally, in this section, a series of lexico-grammatical formulae are used that refer to the structure of the research article, namely *The article is structured...*, *The article has X (parts/sections)...* and *The article is organised...* Some examples of these structures are as follows:

19. **The article is organised** as follows (Liston-Heyes & Daley 2017).

20. **This article has four parts** (Torabian & Mair 2017).
21. **This manuscript is structured** as follows (Rojas-Méndez and Michael J Hine 2017).
22. **This article has seven sections** including the previous introduction (Nilsson and Tesfahuney 2018).

In the approach, the formulas used contain, as Álvarez-Gil (2022) points out:

a number of impersonal matrices containing effective or epistemic nuances (cf. Marín-Arrese 2009) that signal epistemological information along with the authors' stance towards the information that they either want to highlight... or provide epistemic justification for... using the matrix 'it is evident that...'

These are: It is necessary to... (clarify/ interact/ differentiate/ develop/ use), It should be noted that CONTRIBUTION/EVIDENTIAL, It is evident that..., as exemplified below.

23. Before considering the particularities of tourism in Niseko though, **it is necessary** to develop a clearer understanding of the 'people impacts' of tourism (Wolf, 1977) and the more recent research field of resident attitudes to tourism (Nelson & Matthews 2018: 216).
24. However, **it should be noted** some tourism scholars have explored these issues, and their work helps to set the stage for more critical investigations of travel policies and their implications for mobility (Torabian & Mair 2017: 20).
25. **It is evident** that the microeconomic modelling of tourism expenditure has been dominated by researchers from developed countries/regions, with a very strong concentration in the USA and the UK (Lin et al. 2017: 102).

Other expressions in this section are used to refer to the field of study or even to associations between disciplines or aspects to be taken into account in the research. These expressions are... *in DET (ADJ) field of (inquiry/tourism/research).... and...the relationship between (FIELD/ITEM) and (FIELD/ITEM)...*:

26. Destination image has been studied **in the field of tourism** for more than 35 years (Salvatierra & Walters 2015: 74).
27. Perhaps, the most significant theoretical evolution **in the field of heritage studies** is the recognition that heritage is fundamentally a dynamic and empowering process (Lundberg, Ziakas & Morgan 2018: 92).
28. Few studies have looked into the relationship between accommodation space and family group dynamics, and spatiality, that is, lived and felt space (Van Manen, 1990) as a theme is absent in family tourism research (Schänzel & Lynch 2016: 137).

As this section is an exposition and description of theoretical positioning, it is not unusual to find definitions of terms that are introduced by the formula *X (BE) defined (as/in)*:

29. Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick (2012) proposed that a memorable tourism experience has been operationally defined as a tourism experience positively remembered and recalled after the event has occurred (Lee 2015: 159).
30. For philosophers, the notion of luck has been defined in various ways which presumes three conditions (Zerva 2018: 234).

The research design section, as Álvarez-Gil (2022) point out, presents expressions that include nouns related to the method such as *analysis, data, interview, method* and verbs that refer to research processes such as *conducted, designed, performed, focused on, carried out* and *transcribed*. The adjective premodification of the noun *data* presents lexemes such as *anonymous, digital, empirical, formal, incomplete, initial, multimodal, qualitative, rich, statistical, visual* and *ethnographic*, as in the following examples:

31. The **empirical data** were collected from consumers at different spa hotels in four major spa regions of Taiwan during July-August 2013 (Shiu 2018: 31).
32. The **statistical data** for the micro-level analysis were derived from the annual reports of the studied hotel chains for the year 2010 (Mendieta-Peñalver et al. 2018: 14).
33. Through visits to 53 hotels, we **conducted** interviews with 19 people (15 women and 4 men) who had worked in a wide range of positions (from cleaner to manager) (Dumbrăveanu et al. 2016: 156).
34. However, it is important to note that concurrent general branding images were also analysed providing the context for the more directed MyStopover campaign; these images were obtained from standard desktop research using an Internet search that **focused specifically on** Icelandair's main website (Lund, Loftsdóttir & Leonard 2017: 151).

There is also a recurrence of the lexico-grammatical formula (*DET*) *interviews* *PASSIVE* with the past forms of the verb:

35. First, **the interviews were transcribed** verbatim and consequently analysed using Atlas.ti (Bolderman & Reijnders 2017: 170).
36. All **the interviews were carried out personally**, either face-to-face or on the phone, and lasted approximately 15-20 minutes (Beritelli & Reinhold 2018: 432).

The results section shows lexis associated with verbs related to the semantic fields "show" and "discover", in order to evidence the empirical nature of the research. In this sense, the following patterns containing verbs such as *reveal, show, suggest, yield, demonstrate, illustrate, plot, summarize* and *present*, among others, were found in the above-mentioned study:

37. (*DET*) *results* (*reveal(ed)/ show/(ed)/ suggest/ yield*)...: Regarding to motivation and memorable experiences, **the results reveal** parameters for the path between personal emotion and memorable experiences ($b=.14, p=.05$) and for that between knowledge

learning and memorable experiences ($b=.08$, $p=.22$)... **The results revealed** significantly positive relationships between personal emotion and memorable experiences as well as between cultural inheritance and memorable experiences (Lee 2017: 165).

38. (DET) findings (suggest/ demonstrate/ show/ lend support/ illustrate/ indicate/ emphasise)...: Indeed, **our findings lend support** to the argument that gap year experiences are foremost represented as tools for individualised identity work (Hermann, Peters & Van Trijp 2017: 87).
39. Results (are/were)(presented/ summarized/ plotted)...: **The results are plotted** in Fig. 8 (Lin et al. 2015: 111).
40. (DET) (PREMODIFICATION) results (are) presented in Table X...**the CFA results are presented in Table 2** (Park, Seo & Kandampully 2016: 313).
41. (Fig. X/ Table X) shows that...: **Fig. 10 shows that** before the age of 25, people with different educational attainment levels tended to have very similar total tourism expenditure (Lin et al. 2015: 113).
42. As shown/illustrated in Table X... (β Adverbial): This international growth, **as illustrated in Figure 4**, has been supported by much more flexible expansion formulas (involving management and franchise contracts) and on investments that require a greater level of financial risk (Mendieta-Peñalver et al. 2018: 20).

The structures that appear in the discussion section are related to the expression of perspective. Thus, formulas of epistemic meaning are used, such as...*NP (would seem/ seems) (that/to)...*, or effective ones, according to the terminology in Marín Arrese (2009), to indicate necessity, such as...*it is important to V...*:

43. There is no way to provide definitive answers to any of these questions, only to stress that such commitment requires time and effort and **seems to currently help** in small ways (Tzanelli & Korstanje 2016: 306).
44. **It is important to stress** that the images of the workers have a very low level of sexualisation (Vanolo & Cattani 2017: 417).

Other formulations in this section relate to factual presentation, attribution, exemplification, and additions, among other aspects, as seen in the following examples:

45. *The fact that...*: The fact that chance meetings happen despite ample space to miss and despite travellers' apparent freewill to move about a destination space is a result of common decision heuristics (Beritelli & Reinhold 2018: 436).
46. *...according to (DET)(ADJ/N) (terms, analysis, survey, the work of...)*: As discussed previously, **according to feminist critical literature** (see for example, Arend, 2014), the

masculine gaze operates by transforming feminine subjects into kinds of sexualised objects to be observed and visually consumed, specifically through the gazes of the photographer and the reader (Vanolo & Cattan 2017: 415).

47. ...*as (is/was/in) the case (of/in/with)*...: Demonstrations of tourism-cultural capital, such as commenting on the range of interest towards the programme among group members, being attentive towards younger tour participants or, **as was the case with the second tour**, closing down the questions from over-enthusiastic fans, are all readable as institutionally located strategies (Garner 2017: 438).
48. ...*as well as*...: The social role attached to backpacker travel **as well as** their frequent status as single long-term travellers led to often very long interactions (Reichenberger 2017: 272).
49. ...*in other words*...: Moreover, this obligation of hospitality comes with an expectation of reciprocity when one is travelling away from their "home" area. **In other words**, mobilizing hospitality among the rock climbing community depends on reciprocity (Ricky 2017b: 67).

In the case of the conclusion, we find expressions with verbs that refer to the semantic classes DISCUSS, CONCLUDE and REPORT (Dixon 2005). The combined use of the words *article*, *study* and *research* (or the proforma *it*) is common in this section. The formulas identified in this section are as follows:

50. ...*in this article I/we have (examined /presented/ sought/ developed/ implied/ deliberated)*...: **In this article, we have sought** to advance this interdisciplinary agenda by integrating cultural theory and marketing strategy in our exploration of the complex relationship between on-screen popular culture and tourism destination place-making (Lundberg, Ziakas & Morgan 2018).
51. **In this article, we have deliberated** on a new category of pilgrim tourist and some of its key attributes (Nilsson and Tesfahuney 2018).
52. **In this article, we have examined** the representation of the gap year product in the Netherlands through a content analysis of Dutch provider websites that link their activities to the gap year experience (Hernmann et al. 2017).
53. ...*this article (provides/ reveals/ proposes/ presents/ shows/ suggests/etc.)*...: In unearthing the geotourism experience, **this article conceptualises that geotourists'** interaction with geology and landscapes is mediated by the multiple aspects of the 'gaze', enriched by their psychological responses and internalisations. This article proposes that geotourism resources at Mount Pinatubo are composed of its natural and cultural landscapes, and tourism environment which visitors have to negotiate with during their journey at the geosite (Aquino, Schänzel & Hyde 2018).

54. So beyond segmenting the food lover market by demographics, which has been the focus of much research to date. e.g. Lang Research Inc. 2001; Sparks et al., 2005; TIAA, 2006), **this study reveals that** nationalities seek different experiences (see Molz, 2007) (Andresson et al. 2016).
55. *...it could be (argued/addressed/assumed)...*: **It could be argued that** the short duration of a tourist visit or of the contact in situ with these attractions did not generate important emotional capital, but the latter was produced after their loss, through the re-interpretation of their meanings and values (Zerva 2018).
56. *...it/we (was/has been/have) found (that/to)...*: **The situational features (Argyle et al., 1981) have been found to be** a useful framework to analyse the social interactions of backpackers in New Zealand in more depth and contribute to a greater understanding of how the social aspect of backpacking manifests itself and how it is perceived by participants... However, these aspects are only part of what constitutes backpacker interactions, as their personality type and relationship with the interaction partner have been found to be the core determinants of the impact that these interactions have on their travel experience (Reichenberger 2017).

Finally, in this section, the epistemic structure *BE likely to + V* is frequently used to mitigate the content of the proposition being presented, as can be seen in the following examples:

57. **Tourists are less likely to rehearse** the scenes of Anne's later exploits not only because Anne grows up, but because Anne becomes a local (Gothie 2016).
58. In conclusion, this study demonstrates that image perceptions towards natural tourism icons such **as the GBR are likely to change** in response to human-induced environmental damage (Salvatierra & Walters 2015).
59. **Tourists are likely to choose** a destination that aligns with their motives (Peter and Anandkumar 2016).
60. In the second stage, when **travelers are likely to be** in an exploratory, information-seeking mode they are open to suggestions to try new things... Furthermore, tourists have not fully scheduled activities and are more flexible in their planning. Accordingly, **they are more likely to notice**, and act on, the most credible and attractive marketing messages... However, DMOs and hotels can use some of the characteristics evident in this group to leverage tourists into desired activities. For instance, in this stage, tourists have often found 'new best friends' at the destination, and **group activities involving the tourists and friends are more likely to be considered** in a favourable light (Anantamongkolkul et al. 2017).

In these examples, the use of the formula with *be likely to* is employed with the attenuating effect described above. The purpose of this is to avoid imposing the authors' point of view, so it would be a mechanism of negative politeness, following the model of Brown and Yule (1987).

3.5. Summary

In this chapter, the method used for the construction of the working corpus and for the analysis of modal verbs in a corpus of introductions and conclusions has been presented. In order to identify the sections which form part of our corpus (introduction and conclusion), the language use of these sections has been analysed, as there are a number of lexico-grammatical expressions which appear frequently and point to the functions of each section, justifying their use and helping to distinguish one section from another. In this chapter, examples of these expressions are given from those tourism research articles that have served as the basis for constructing the corpus of introductions and conclusion. With this, the existence of these patterns in the scientific article in tourism is verified and, above all, this makes it possible to guarantee that the texts included in the working corpus are really introductions and conclusions. Furthermore, and without being an aim of this chapter, it has become evident that some of these structures are used as mechanisms which manifest the speaker's point of view. As has been shown here, these mechanisms appear especially in the sections called *discussion* and *conclusion*, since the quantitative and, especially, qualitative results of the analyses of the data examined are presented there.

In the following chapter, the study of modal verbs in the introductions and conclusions of tourism articles is carried out, since these parts have been found in the texts selected in this chapter to ensure the exclusive inclusion of these sections. In the case that the article which presents a conclusion does not form part of the working corpus for the analysis of modal verbs. As will be seen, these verbs are also used to express the authors' perspective on the information they supply using the framework explained earlier in Chapter 2.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION. MODAL VERBS IN INTRODUCTIONS AND CONCLUSIONS OF THE RESEARCH ARTICLE

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, modal verbs in introductions and conclusions drawn from scientific articles in tourism are analysed. Section 4.2 contains the results obtained from the analysis of the texts following the description of the study method with an indication of the statistical tools and methods used which is included in chapter 3. Finally, the conclusions of this study are included in section 4.5.

4.2. Analysis of the corpus: modal verb forms

The corpus analysis shows the use of the modal verbs *can*, *could*, *may*, *must*, *may*, *might*, *will*, *would*, *shall* and *should* with the actual number of occurrences (raw numbers; RN) and relative frequency (RF) per 10,000 words of all these modal forms as detailed in the table below:

Table 2. RF of modal verbs in introductions and conclusions.

Modal verbs	Introduction		Conclusion	
	RF	RN	RF	RN
can	24,51	246	34,39	286
could	3,69	37	19,36	161
may	10,06	101	31,87	265
might	2,29	23	4,93	41
must	1,00	10	3,37	28
will	11,36	114	15,75	131
would	5,88	59	12,87	107
shall	0,40	4	0,24	2
should	3,59	36	18,52	154
Total	62,77	630	141,30	1175

As can be deduced from this table, 1,805 modal verbs have been identified in the corpus. The number of these modal forms is higher in the conclusion than in the introduction, doubling the number of cases both in the actual cases and in the relative frequencies. The distribution of each modal verb in the two sections is very uneven, which can be seen visually in Figure 2; dark grey corresponds to the introductions and the light grey to the conclusions.

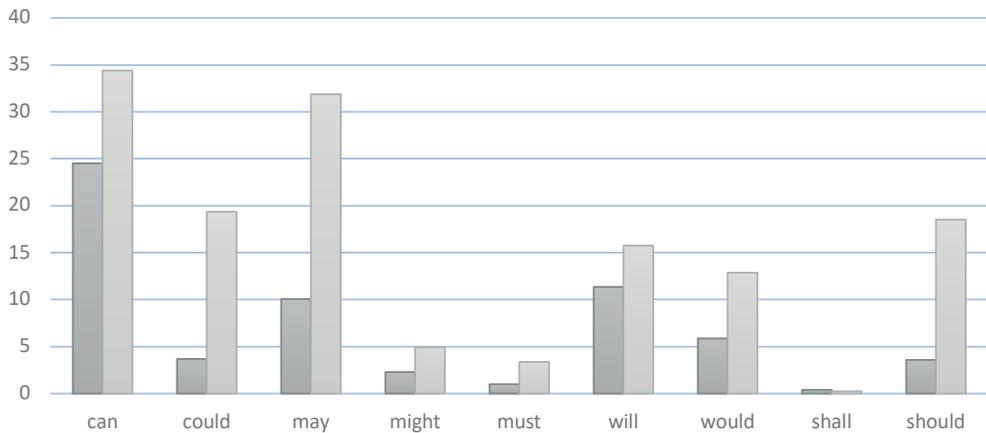


Figure 2. Distribution of modal verbs (RF 10,000 words).

In this graph, it can be seen that the forms *can*, *may*, *could*, *should*, *will* and *would* are the most frequent in introductions in this order. In the case of conclusions, they are *can*, *will*, *may* and *would*. In both sections, *can* is the most often used modal verb in the conclusions, although the forms that seem to mark a more accentuated difference are *may*, *should* and *could*, which are more frequent in the conclusions.

Table 3 shows the data for the *t*-test and the Cohen's *d* effect size variable:

Table 3. All modal verbs: T-test and Cohen d.

Modal verbs	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
All modal verbs	-8,93	0,001	211,73	-1,109

Parametric analysis using a *t*-test=-8.93, with a likelihood ratio of $p=0.01$ and a degree of freedom of 211.73, indicates that there is a difference between the use of these modal verbs in the two sections. Cohen's *d* is -1.109, indicating a large effect overall. This test shows that the conclusions show greater variation in the number of modal verbs in their relative frequencies, except in the case of *shall*, which occurs more frequently in the introductions than in the conclusions. The following shows whether these variations are significant between the two sections with the same statistical calculations carried out for each form.

As shown in Table 2 above, *can* is by far the most used form in the corpus with an FR of 34.39 for conclusions and 24.51 for introductions. The minimum and maximum values per text in our corpus for this form are presented visually in Figure 3.

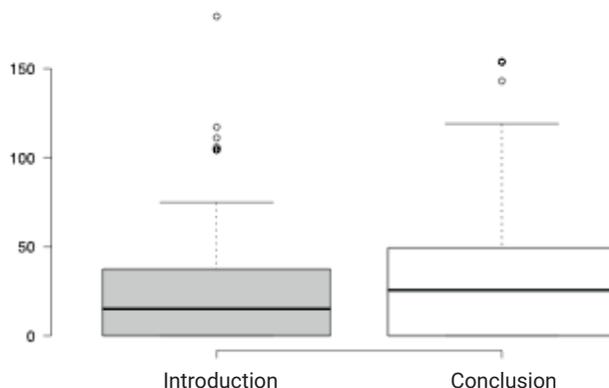


Figure 3. Boxplot *can* (RF 10,000).

In this graph, it can be seen that, although the introductions show maximum values of *can*, the average is higher in the case of the conclusions. Table 4 shows the statistics relating to the variation in the use of *can* in the introduction section and the conclusion section.

Table 4. Modal verb *can*: T-test and Cohen's d.

Modal verbs	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
<i>can</i>	-2,35	0,0183	251.07	-0.29

The value $t=-2.35$, with a likelihood ratio of 0.0183 and a degree of freedom of 251.07, reflects that there is indeed variation, although the effect of this variation is medium, as shown by the *Cohen's* value $d=-0.29$.

Some examples of *can* in the corpus are as follows:

1. (Introduction) In this view, things exist as meaningful entities independent from consciousness and experience that they have truth and meaning residing in them as objects and that careful research can reach objective truth and meaning (Crotty, 1998). Since variables and their relationships can be identified and measured, the authors of the current study approach the topic of interest with positivism as a theoretical perspective (ATADIL ET AL. 2017).
2. (Conclusion) This can be principally explained by the presence of China and its hotels in the sample. However, when technical-economic efficiency measures calculated through DEA are incorporated, no mediating effect of this variable can be observed.

Therefore, with the available data, we can say that efficiency acts more as a covariate than a mediator (Mendieta-Peñalver et al. 2018).

These examples show the use of the modal verb *can* in both sections with a marked dynamic meaning in all cases. This form is repeated in two consecutive sentences in the two samples. As will be seen in the last section 4.4, as well as indicating perspective, the repetition of modal forms in a paragraph contributes to the organisation of the content of the argumentative text.

The modal verb *could* also has more instances in the conclusions than in the introductions, as shown in the RFs in Table 2.

Table 5. Modal verb could: T-test and Cohen's d.

Modal verb	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
could	-5.8	0,001	144,24	-0,73

Table 5 shows that the variation is indeed significant with a *t-value*=-5.8, a probability ratio of 0.001 and a degree of freedom of 144.24. As shown by the *Cohen's d*=-0.73, the effect is medium. The conclusion section has texts with a higher rate of presence of *could* than the introduction. The average number of texts with a higher frequency of this form is also higher in the case of the conclusion. This variation is reflected in the statistical data for this modal verb in the corpus.

The following fragments show forms of this modal verb in the corpus, by section:

3. (Introduction) Moreover, as emphasized by the industry, if the replacement eventuates, affecting only against Chinese visitors, this could easily be seen as a form of market discrimination, perhaps with political implications (Pham et al. 2018).
4. (Conclusion) For example, future studies could compare guides on the DWEWT with other examples of official and unofficial media tourism within a specific geographical area or across different regional, national and international contexts. Alternatively, further research could analyse how the status afforded to different forms of (guided) tourism are positioned within the tourism field to better understand the variety of positions available and their relationship to systems of cultural power (Garner 2017).

These examples show the use of *could* in the corpus. In both cases, the use is epistemic with the indication of the likelihood that the actions modulated by this modal verb may occur. The function, as will be seen in section 4.4, is different in the two sections and the sense of recommendation for a series of activities to be carried out by researchers is evident in the conclusion in the last example.

The modal verb *may* appears with a higher relative frequency of 10.06 in the conclusions than in the introductions, which have a value of 31.87, as shown in Table 2, above. The statistical values in Table 6 confirm this variation:

Table 6. Modal verb *may*: T-test and Cohen's d.

Modal verb	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
may	-4,96	0,001	170,93	-0,62

The statistical *t-test results* is -4.96 with a probability of $p=0.001$ and a degree of freedom of 170.93. Cohen's *d* value of -0.62 confirms, therefore, that the effect of variation in the use of *may* is evident between the sections.

The following examples contain forms of *may*:

5. (Introduction) Here, however, I want to discuss the project's framing as a heritage destination, and how such a positioning may contribute to its legitimacy, particularly as it relates to tourists' experience of the site (Jethro 2016).
6. (Second, snowball sampling is a nonprobability approach that may lead to sampling bias, hence limiting the general applicability of the findings. These limitations, however, do not diminish the significant contributions this study makes to the research literature. A future study may provide a longitudinal overview of the development of IPO strategies in the travel agency industry (Huang and Chang 2018).

As will be discussed later, *may* is used especially to indicate possibility and probability, although it also has dynamic values to refer to the ability of people or things to carry out an action. In these examples, its use is to indicate epistemic probability in all cases. As can be seen in the case of the conclusion, as in *can* and *could*, the modal verb *may* presents hints of research action in the future.

In the case of the modal verb *might*, as shown in Table 2 above, this form shows variation in its use in introductions (2.29) and conclusions (4.93). Statistics concerning variation are included in Table 7:

Table 7. Modal verb *might*: T-test and Cohen's d.

Modal verb	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
might	-1,68	0,094	237,14	-0,21

As can be seen in this table, Cohen's $d= -0.21$ indicates a small effect on the significance of the variation in *might* use between sections. The *t-statistic* value is -1.68, with a probability of 0.094 and a degree of freedom 237.14. These examples illustrate their use in introductions and conclusions:

7. (Introduction) The term stopover might indicate a temporary sense of placelessness, akin to the liminality apparent in Augé's (1995) notion of non-places (Lund et al. 2017).
8. (Conclusion) This study was intentionally focussed on ways in which musicians tailor musical activities to the opportunities and imperatives associated with a tourist-orientated environment; so future research might aim to supplement this focus on musical 'producers' with a more detailed examination of the interactions between musicians and tourists in relation to the dynamics of musical events... Future research might also provide a more detailed examination of connections between musical-cultural activity and environmental activism on Fernando de Noronha and explore the implications for cultural-environmental activism within other tourist locations (Fitzgerald and Reis 2016).

In these examples, all cases of *might* indicate probability in both the introduction and the conclusion. In this last section, the modal verb is repeated twice and is used to propose again suggestions for research avoiding imposition by the authors, as will be explained in detail in the section devoted to the functions of modal verbs.

In the case of the modal form *must*, this form is more frequent in conclusions with a relative frequency of 3.37 compared to introductions which have a frequency of 1, as shown in Table 2, above. The statistical values for estimating the existence of variation are given in Table 8.

Table 8. Modal verb *must*: T-test and Cohen's d.

Modal verb	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
must	-1,89	0,06	252,65	-0,23

According to the evidence in this table, it is clear that *must* shows significant variation, albeit a small effect, i.e. $d = -0.23$. The *t-value* is 1.89, as indicated here, with a probability of $p = 0.06$ and a degree of freedom of 232.65. The following examples contain instances of this modal verb in the two sections:

9. (Introduction) As Hannam (2009) and others have pointed out, tourism must be seen as 'integral to wider processes of economic and political development' (p. 106; see also Edensor, 2007; Franklin, 2003; Sheller and Urry, 2006), and the use of a mobility lens offers much promise in this regard (Torabian and Mair 2017).
10. (Conclusion) We do not suggest that heterosexuals cannot study homosexual people, but rather that in these scenarios, particular measures must be taken to establish trust, and to build a rapport with gay participants in 'oases' such as this gay resort (Vorobjovas-Pinta and Robards 2017).

The two examples illustrating the use of *must* in the corpus show the value of this form to show necessity. While in the case of the introduction, it is a methodological question regarding the perception of the concept of tourism in academic research, in the case of the conclusion, the

need is expressed, according to the authors' perspective, to implement specific actions in terms of what is called gay tourism.

The *will* form appears in both sections, as can be seen in Table 2, above, with values of 11.36 in the introductions and 15.75 in the conclusions. The degree of variation is deduced from the statistical data included in Table 9.

Table 9. Modal verb *will*: T-test and Cohen's d.

Modal verb	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
will	-0,73	0,46	259,95	-0,09

Statistical analysis reveals a value of $t = -0.73$, with a probability of 0.46 and a degree of freedom of 259.95. The variation is significant with a value obtained for *Cohen's* variable $d = -0.09$, which is interpreted as a small effect. The following examples include this form:

11. (Introduction) This article will continue with a review of relevant literature before proceeding to provide details of the data collection and methodology (Lee and Wilkins 2017).
12. (Conclusion) This will raise a question as to whether or not the government is fully committed to the Potential target that both the government and the industry have set up... Consequently, this will lower business confidence in the sector, could affect the long-term investment strategy of investors and potentially be detrimental to trade and inflow of foreign direct investment (Neumayer, 2011; Song et al., 2012) (Pham et al. 2018).

The forms of *will* in these examples suggest a sense of future which is determined by their deontic values, although each case brings an added meaning. This modal verb in the introduction shows the authors' intention regarding their theoretical position in the article. In the case of the examples of *will* in the conclusion, it indicates a consequence in the reasoning being put forward.

As for *would*, this form is more frequent in conclusions with a relative frequency of 12.87, while the frequency is 5.88 in introductions. There is significant variation between the use of this form in the sections analysed in this paper, although the effect is medium, as can be seen in the statistical data in Table 10:

Table 10. Modal verb *would*: T-test and Cohen's d.

Modal verb	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
would	-2,73	0,007	150,99	-0,34

This average effect is determined by Cohen's value $d = -0.34$. The *t-value* is -2.73 , with a likelihood ratio of 0.007 and a degree of freedom of 150.99. The following examples include *would-be* cases in introductions and conclusions:

13. (Introduction) The tourism industry in Australia has had good reasons to be concerned that the Federal government would continue to pursue revenue raising policies affecting the demand for inbound tourism, particularly as regards an expanding market such as China (Pham et al. 2018).
14. (It would be a fallacious assumption that shopping is the core motive of travel to a shopping festival. An understanding of the motives would help in determining what drives a tourist towards a travel or activity. Tourists are likely to choose a destination that aligns with their motives. Research on travel motivation would enable the DMO in creating events, which would cater to the tourists' expressed motives for travel (Peter and Anandkumar 2016).

The form *shall* has by far the lowest relative frequencies with values of 0.40 and 0.24 in the introduction and conclusion sections, respectively, as shown in Table 2, above. The statistical values to determine whether there is significant variation are included in Table 11:

Table 11. Modal verb shall: T-test and Cohen's d.

Modal verb	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
shall	0,98	0,326	162,51	0,12

Statistical analysis yields a *t-value* of 0.98, with a probability of 0.326 and a degree of freedom of 162.51. The Cohen's *d* value is 0.12, which indicates that, although there is a small variation in the use of *shall* in the introductions and in the conclusions. Some examples of introductions and conclusions are given below:

15. (Introduction) In this article, we shall examine what kind of a gateway Iceland represents by focusing on how it is promoted as a tourism destination aimed at stopover visitors, continuously in play (Sheller and Urry, 2004), nevertheless designed and ordered to act as a gateway to 'elsewhere' (Coleman and Crang, 2002: 4; cf. Shields, 1989) (Lund et al. 2017).
16. (Conclusion) I shall not make another inventory of the resemblances and differences between them for the Romanian case, among other things because the state of scientific research on this subject in Romania is almost non-existent (Banica 2016).

These examples show cases of *shall* in the corpus sections. In the two cases of *shall*, this form has a deontic value to express the authors' desire and intention for particular actions. In the introduction, *shall* indicates the authors' intention to carry out a specific analysis on the promotion of tourism in Iceland. In the conclusion, *shall* introduces the authors' commitment not to carry out a new classification of the subject matter in relation to tourism in Romania, which is then justified by the information in the causal sentence introduced by the particle *because*. Statistical evidence to specify the existence of variation are given in Table 12.

Table 12. Modal verb *should*: T-test and Cohen's *d*.

Modal verb	t-test	p	df	Cohen d
should	-5,59	0,001	156,92	-0,7

The *t*-test statistic with a value of -5.59, a probability of $p= 0.001$ and a degree of freedom of 156.92 reveals variation in the use of *should* in the two sections. The Cohen's $d= -0.7$ reveals that the effect size of the variation is indeed large. The following examples include cases of *should* in the introduction and conclusion:

17. (Introduction) Furthermore, Cohen and Cohen (2012) and Hannam (2008) suggested that tourism research within the contemporary mobilities paradigm should consider embodied and sensual practices of everyday from an interdisciplinary perspective (Bezzola and Lugosi 2018).
18. (Conclusion) Aside from the need to further confirm these results through examining different cultures, some suggestions should be proposed to enhance the shopping for luxury items in HK, at least among Chinese tourists (Correia et al. 2018).

In these two examples, it can be seen that *should* is used to indicate recommendations. In the introduction, this recommendation refers to specific methodological aspects of research, while the suggestion in the conclusion is related to concrete benefits for the industry, which represents a function of the use of modal verbs in tourism texts, as described in section 4.4 on the functions of modal verbs.

Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pastor (2017: 286-287) present a comprehensive study of modal verb forms and their meanings in a corpus of linguistics research articles and another of engineering research articles. As for the occurrence of modal verbs between these articles and tourism articles, some differences and similarities emerge. The form *can* appears most frequently in the introduction in the linguistics and engineering articles, with standardised frequencies of 40.72 and 36.33, respectively. This contrasts with the figure of 24.51 in the corpus of tourism texts. However, there is greater closeness in the frequency of use of *can* in the conclusions with 34.39 and 30.45 in the tourism and linguistics corpus respectively, although the difference is greater in the case of the engineering corpus, with a total score of 40.42. As for *could*, this form is less frequent in the introductions of linguistics texts with 0.93. On the other hand, its relative frequency is 3.69 in the tourism corpus and 2.20 in the engineering corpus. In the case of conclusions, the form *could* shows a normalised frequency of 19.36 in tourism research papers and 12.69 in linguistics research papers. The difference is in the engineering research corpus, where there are no cases of *could*.

The modal *may* has fewer cases in the introductions of research papers in the discipline of linguistics than in the other corpora. In the findings, there is no overlap between any of the corpora, and this modal has normalised frequencies of 39.33 (linguistics), 31.87 (tourism) and 8.51 (engineering). The verb *might* appears more frequently in the engineering introductions and less frequently in the tourism introductions. The real difference is in the conclusions, with normalised frequencies of 4.93 (tourism) and 22.84 (linguistics). Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pas-

tor (2017) did not identify instances of *might* in engineering conclusions. The verb *must* appears in the introductions of tourism texts with a relative frequency of 1 case per 10,000 words, with a similar presence in the introductions of linguistics texts with 0.90. In the engineering corpus, the frequency is higher at 3.30. This form is present in the conclusions of texts in all the corpora compared and is more frequent in linguistics and tourism research articles. The form *shall* appears in the introductions and conclusions of tourism articles with 0.40 and 0.24 respectively. No cases were detected in the other corpora. As for *should*, it appears only in the introductions to tourism with a frequency of 3.59. In the conclusions of tourism articles, *should* has a higher frequency, 18.52, than in the other two corpora: 14.89 (engineering) and 6.34 (linguistics).

There is a difference in the frequency of use of *will* in all the corpora compared. It appears most frequently in the linguistics texts with 27.76; 13.21 and 11.36 in engineering and tourism, respectively. In the conclusions, *will* appears more often in the tourism corpus with 15.75 and less often in the engineering corpus with 4.25 and in the linguistics corpus with 3.81. Finally, *would* has similar frequencies in the introductions in all three corpora while the frequency is higher in the conclusions of the linguistics corpus with 25.37. In the tourism and engineering corpus, it shows a normalised frequency of 17.02 in engineering and 18.52 in tourism.

In conclusion, this comparison with the data obtained in the study by Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pastor (2017) reveals that there is some variation in usage according to discipline in terms of the form of modal verbs. This may be taken as an indication that the modal meaning found in these introductions and conclusions of tourism research articles in our corpus is also likely to show variation, as discussed and described in the following section.

4.3. The meanings of modal verbs.

Figure 12. presents the distribution of modal meanings identified in the corpus according to the tripartite classification already explained earlier in this book.

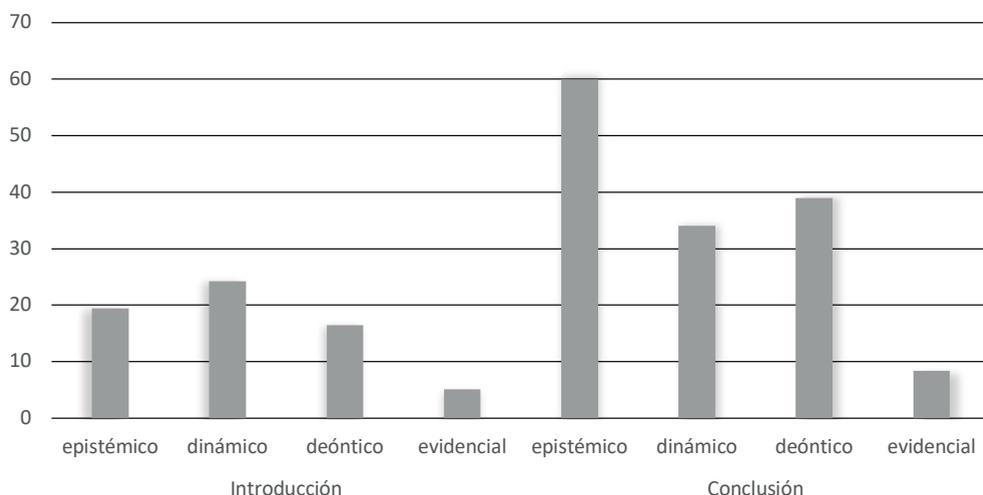


Figure 4. Relative frequencies of modal meanings by section.

As shown in this graph, while the dynamic modality is the modal meaning in introductions, the epistemic modality appears more often in conclusions followed by the epistemic and the deontic modality. The deontic modality is used as the second most frequent modal resource in conclusions followed by the dynamic modality. The evidential modality appears in both sections with a higher relative frequency in the case of conclusions. For the calculation of the variance, we will use the *log-likelihood* (LL) statistical test, as explained in section 3.2 on the method of analysis.

As was done in the earlier section with the forms, the comparison of the results of the modal verbs found in the analyses with those of Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pastor (2017: 290, 299), are presented in Table 13, below.

Table 13. Relative frequencies of occurrence of modal meanings by section in tourism, engineering and linguistics.

	Introduction			Conclusion		
	Tourism	Engineering	Linguistics	Tourism	Engineering	Linguistics
epistemic	19,43	34,13	12,03	59,89	27,65	98,96
dynamic	24,21	35,23	44,42	34,03	38,29	30,45
deontic	16,44	15,41	38,87	38,96	21,27	26,64
evidential	5,08	0	0	8,42	0	0

The data in this table reveal that dynamic modality is the preferred meaning in the introductions of all the corpora examined, although there is not much difference between epistemic and dynamic meanings in the case of the engineering corpus. The epistemic modality occurs more frequently in the introductions of the engineering texts and less frequently in the tourism and linguistics corpora, respectively. The deontic modality is more frequent in the linguistics and tourism introductions, in that order, and slightly less frequent in the tourism introductions. As for the conclusions, the most common modal meaning is epistemic in the case of linguistics and tourism texts. Dynamic is the second most frequent modal meaning in these conclusions in engineering and linguistics. In the case of the deontic meaning, this is the second most used modal meaning in the tourism corpus for reasons that will be explained in this volume. Evidential values are only found in the tourism texts, with a greater presence in the conclusions.

4.3.1. Epistemic modal verbs

The notion of epistemic modality followed in this work is the one formulated by Nuyts (2001: 21), which has been explained in chapter 2 of this paper. Thus, epistemic modality refers to the “evaluation of the chances that a certain hypothetical state of affairs under consideration (or some aspect of it) will occur, is occurring or has occurred in a possible world”. This sense of evaluation is also highlighted by Cornillie (2009: 47) who claims that epistemic modal verbs clearly affect propositional content: “epistemic modality evaluates the likelihood that this proposition

is true". This means that there is a direct relation between the notion of truth and this type of modality which is clearly related to the knowledge one has of things. According to these definitions, the epistemic modal verbs in the corpus analyzed are *could*, *may*, *might* and *would*. These occur in both introductions and conclusions, as shown in Table 14.

Table 14. Relative frequencies of occurrence of epistemic modal meanings by section in tourism articles.

	could	may	might	would
Introduction	3,49	7,47	2,29	6,18
Conclusion	18,16	25,37	3,97	12,39

The normalised frequencies in order of highest to lowest of these values in introductions are *may*, *would*, *could*, and *might*. Examples of these epistemic forms are as follows:

19. Chinese tourism demands in Australia have been exponentially increasing in recent years, driven largely by increased economic growth in China, to the extent that the strong growth of this market could be misinterpreted in a way that Chinese visitors are not price-conscious (Introduction; Pham et al. 2018).
20. The government estimated in the 2015 budget that this measure would bring \$540 million into the government coffers over the forward estimates (Australian Government, 2015) and this appears to be regarded as sufficient justification for the tax (Introduction; Pham et al. 2018).
21. Indeed, tourism may be a powerful medium for learning that transforms tourists' habits of thought and ways of engaging with the world (Introduction; Country et al. 2017).

In these cases of epistemic modal verbs, the evaluative value mentioned by Nuyts (2001) was detected, as can be seen in examples (19), (20) and (21). The conclusions show the same ways of conveying epistemic modality:

22. This could be due to the lack of access to foods at points during travel or because encounters with unfamiliar foods, foodscapes and rituals reinforced outsider status or social distinctions.... Moreover, future research could go further in acknowledging the agency of foods and the power of associated practices to transform tourists' conceptions of home and familiarity (Conclusion; Raisi et al. 2018).
23. The results would be completely different had the segmentation choice been travel motivations (Pesonen, 2012) or general travel activities (Mehmetoglu, 2007) (Conclusion; Pesonen and Tuohino 2017).
24. This may seem an arbitrary designation from outside the climbing community, but within such subcultural distinctions are used to distinguish hierarchy and award priority at

the crags, in campgrounds, and within its political organisations, such as the RRGCC (Conclusion; Rickly 2017).

25. Extraneous and social-psychological factors, such as weather, company, alcohol consumption might affect visitors' experiences (Conclusion; Andersson et al. 2017).

Epistemic modal verbs are also used in the conclusion to express evaluation, as can be seen in examples (22), (23), (24) and (25) where the authors reflect the probability that the described actions can be carried out. As can be seen, the use of these modal verbs is not so different in introductions and conclusions. However, there is variation in the presence of this meaning in the two sections of the scientific article, which can be seen in the LL values presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Log-likelihood and log ratio values to measure the effect of variation in the presence of epistemic modal verbs. The asterisk indicates greater presence in the conclusions.

	could*.	may	might*.	would*.
Log-likelihood	101,42	95,46	4.17	19,46
Log ratio	-2,38	-1,76	-0.79	-1.00

According to the data in this table, there is variation in the case of all epistemic forms according to their presence in the introduction and in the conclusion, with greater frequency in the conclusions as seen in the LL values. The data for the log-ratio, which shows the effect on the number of times in which the possibility in which the variation can occur is doubled. This means that, in the case of *could*, the probability of this form occurring with this meaning in the conclusion is 4 times higher than in the introduction. In the case of *would*, this means that the probability would be 2 times higher, since the log ratio is 1. The more than significant use of the epistemic modality in the conclusions, especially through the forms *may*, *could* and *would*, would be explained by the fact that the function of this section is to provide provisional interpretations of the phenomena analysed in the research article, so that the use of the epistemic modality allows the illocutionary force of the proposition it frames to be reduced, as will be seen in the following section.

4.3.2. Modal verbs with evidential meaning

Although evidential modality is often placed as a subdomain of epistemic modality (see Palmer 1986), I have treated it separately here, for although it refers to matters of information, its use designates the manner in which that information has been obtained. The verbs used with this value in our corpus are *could*, *may*, *might*, *would* and *should*. Table 16 presents the frequencies of these forms.

Table 16. Relative frequencies of occurrence of modal verbs with evidential meaning by section in tourism articles.

	could	may	might	would	should
Introduction	0,20	2,29	2,29	0,20	0,10
Conclusion	0,48	6,37	0,96	0,48	0,12

As can be seen in this table, the most frequent form is *may* in the conclusion, while *may* and *might* are the most frequent forms in the introduction. Instances of this type of modal usage are *may* and *could* in the following:

26. Given this change in policy, this research note examines the degree of persistence in US tourist arrivals, over the entire period in which data are available from January 1996 to August 2016 (which encompasses the period for the Cunado et al. (2008a) study) along with two sub-periods; January 1996 to August 2001 and September 2001 to August 2016, in order to determine the extent to which the change in data measurement associated with the requirement of the INS I-94 entry form may have impacted the degree of persistence (Introduction; Payne and Alana 2018).
27. Rather than seeing these limits as an example of transformation that could have been done better, we argue that understanding limits is an important part of the experience for visitors who are engaging in complex issues underpinned by very real ontological differences (Conclusion; Country et al. 2017).

In these examples, the modal verbs *may* and *could* appear as part of an expository text to contextualise the inferential reasoning that occurs in these texts. All this is conveniently signalled by discourse markers such as *in order to*, the latter being the linguistic form which subsequently allows the introduction of the utterance in which *may have impacted in* the case in (26), and *rather than seeing* in the case in (27) where epistemic necessity is manifested (see Van der Auwera & Plungian 1998). This type of construction represents what Boye and Harder (2009) describe as *evidential substance*, i.e. a modal followed by a perfective (*have* + participle) or progressive (*be* + *v-ing*) form, the function of which will be discussed later in due course.

Table 17 presents the values for the assessment of the variation between the frequency of evidentially meaningful modals in each of the sections.

Table 17. Log-likelihood and log ratio values to measure the effect of variation in the presence of modal verbs with evidential meaning. The asterisk indicates greater presence in the conclusions.

	could*.	may	might	would*.	should*.
Log-likelihood	1,11	18,48	5,02	1,11	0,02
Log ratio	-1,27	-1,48	1,25	-1,27	-0,27

As can be seen in this table, the forms show variation in their use in the two sections with greater frequency in the conclusions, except in the case of *might*. The form with the greatest variation is *may* with an LL of 18.48 and a log ratio which allows us to interpret that the variation is more than double in the case of the conclusion with respect to the introduction. The same is true for *may* and *would*. However, in the case of *might*, the opposite is true, with a higher probability of frequency of occurrence of this modal verb in the introduction than in the conclusion. The form with the least variation is *should* with an LL of 0.02 and a low log ratio of 0.27, indicating a low probability of variation between the two sections.

4.3.3. Dynamic modal verbs

The dynamic modal verbs used in the introductions to the texts are *can*, *could*, *may*, *will* and *would*, with the distribution shown in Table 18.

Table 18. Relative frequencies of occurrence of dynamic modal meanings by section in tourism articles.

	can	could	may	will	would
Introduction	23,32	0,00	0,10	0,70	0,10
Conclusion	33,67	0,24	0,12	0,00	0,00

It is shown both in Table 18 that *can undoubtedly* has the highest dynamic values in both the introduction and the conclusion. In the case of the conclusion, dynamic senses also appear in this same set of verbs, although with a very different frequency. The LL ratio reveals that the presence of dynamic modals is indeed very significant, as we will show below. In both sections, the most frequent modal is *can*. In examples (28) to (31), below, instances of this modality are given in context, where *can* implies features that are specific to and refer to the object referred to in each case.

28. Thus, based on the IP addresses of consumers, a hotel company can advertise a given price in a particular country but not make that price available to users from other countries (Introduction; Song et al. 2018).
29. Some notable examples include Cooper et al. (1998), Goeldner and Ritchie (2003), and Hudson (1999), each questioning how a model can predict travel behaviour as tourists travel with different motivations on different occasions (Introduction; Litvin and Smith 2016).
30. Representational performances can offer a venue to reimagine how the myth is presented, and ask important questions that should be asked of all national myths (Conclusion; Zhang and Ryan 2018).
31. This paper has provided an importance index and identified the 30 most important websites within the West Australian tourism industry. This can assist key policy makers

and managing bodies of the destination to have a better understanding of important hubs, where they are located in the network, and how their structural powers can be used for the better management of the network. Moreover, it can help hubs to better understand their position, and more strategically plan their networking on the Internet (Gardiner and Kwek 2017).

In these examples, the qualities of the objects *this* ('an importance index'), *company*, *examples*, *performances* and *structural powers* which appear as subjects of the modal *can* in each case allow us to understand that the actions are carried out thanks to these qualities themselves. Sometimes, some epistemic nuances can be understood in the use of *can*, as some degree of probability can also be inferred that the proposition preceded by *can* will be realised. This depends on the individual speaker and what contextual premises are considered in the interpretation of the modal form. A clear example could be the last case of *can* in (31), as this modal may be judged to suggest the probability that *an importance index* is helpful, rather than that it has only the capacity to help. In the second interpretation, it refers to a dynamic value that enables the described action.

This same meaning of dynamic possibility to carry out an action is found in the use of modal verbs, as exemplified in examples (32) and (33) with *will* and *may*, respectively. The sense of future in (32) is certainly unavoidable, since the statement resembles the formulation of a promise in the sense described in Searle (1969). In this sense, the desire to carry out the action seems to show that the necessary conditions for this will be fulfilled. In (33), the form *may* indicates the logical outcome resulting from what has been said earlier in the text and, therefore, its use indicates the subject's ability to perform the action.

32. The successful incorporation of AR into the tourism model will contribute to understanding the rapidly evolving technologies travelers will face in the future (Introduction; Chung et al. 2018).
33. To continue with this line of research, we suggest to study whether the presence of foreign direct investment in the hotel industry gives rise to an increase in the competitiveness of the destination of the investment, due to knowledge transfer. Accordingly, efficiency may explain the reverse direction of causality (Conclusion; Mendieta-Peñalver et al. 2018).

The variation in the use of the dynamic mode in the introductions and conclusions is presented in terms of the calculation of LL in Table 19.

Table 19. Log-likelihood and log ratio values to measure the effect of variation in the presence of epistemic modal verbs. The asterisk indicates greater presence in the conclusions.

	can*	could*	may*	will	would
Log-likelihood	17.31	3.17	0.02	8.45	1.21
Log ratio	-0.53	-2.27	-0.27	inf.	inf.

As shown in this table, the dynamic form is more frequent in the conclusions of tourism research articles. The data obtained from the LL calculation show that the forms *can*, *could* and *may* are more likely to appear in conclusions, possibly because they allow the presentation of ideas without directly imposing the authors' criteria. However, the modal verbs *will* and *would* with an epistemic sense only appear in the introductions and not in the conclusions, so no log ratio data are obtained, hence "inf." in Table 19.

4.3.4. Deontic modal verbs

The deontic modality is the least frequent of the three types of modal meanings in the texts analysed. The modal verbs found in the introductions and conclusions are given in Table 20.

Table 20. Relative frequencies of occurrence of deontic modal meanings by section in tourism articles.

	can	could	must	will	shall	should
Introduction	1,10	0,00	1,00	10,46	0,40	3,49
Conclusion	0,72	0,48	3,37	15,75	0,24	18,40

As shown in this table, the deontic modality is expressed by means of the modal forms *can*, *must*, *will*, *shall* and *should* in the case of introductions, and *can*, *could*, *must*, *shall*, *shall* and *should* in the conclusions of the corpus. The following are examples with *will* taken from the corpus where notions of necessity and prediction or even expectation can be understood.

34. Doing this will allow for a more detailed comparison between different discourses on a particular issue, leading to a better understanding of the nuanced relations between different social agents (Xue and Kerstetter 2018).
35. The complexity of the voluntourist event can be seen from multiple and unexpected perspectives and our contribution will (we hope) support future re/theorisation of an increasingly popular and commodified activity (Bone and Bone 2018).

The following examples contain other forms of deontic modal verbs such as *must*, *should* and *shall*, whose meanings revolve around senses of necessity and obligation:

36. For a relationship between the tourism destination and AR to truly exist, the incorporation of AR and a place must collectively affect a traveller (Introduction; Chung et al. 2018).
37. Performing arts managers must refine the service concept, the service marketing direction and the market positioning strategy as being essential components of the service product strategy for the performing arts. This service strategy must include focus on the peripheral aspects of the entire service experience (Conclusion; Song 2016).

38. Unfortunately, there is often a social expectation that people should stay connected to work after hours or on vacation, making it challenging for people to distance themselves from work demands and stress (Introduction; Chen et al. 2018).
39. This research agenda should be informed by primary data collected from hoteliers and peak industry bodies specifically for the purpose of developing robust future hotel employment scenarios and analysed using advanced foresight techniques in order to address the limitations of the current exploration (Solnet et al. 2016).

In all these cases of deontic modal verb, the idea of necessity is a key value of deontic modals in conclusions. Charlow (2016: 47ff) mentions the traditional division of modals according to necessity into weak and strong necessity modals. The modal form *must* would correspond to the group of strong necessity modals in examples (36) and (37), while the form *should* in examples (38) and (39) would be classified as a weak necessity modal. The author claims, however, that there is no strong necessity modal, so she resolves "to treat strong deontic necessity as a special case of weak deontic necessity" (Charlow 2016: 47).

LL and log ratio values for the deontic modality senses are included in the introductions and conclusions in Table 21.

Table 21. Log-likelihood and log ratio values for measuring the effect of variation in the presence of deontic modal verbs.

	can	could*.	must*.	will*.	shall	should*.
Log-likelihood	0,7	6,33	12,6	9,84	0,36	103,76
Log ratio	0,6	-3,27	-1,76	-0,59	0,73	-2,4

The data reflected in this table suggest that *could*, *must*, *will* and *should* seem to be more likely to show variation in conclusions than in introductions. In this sense, the form *could* shows a higher effect, i.e. 3.27, indicating that the probability of occurrence of this modal sense is six times higher in the case of conclusions. In the case of *should*, the log ratio shows that this probability is almost four times and twice in the case of *must*, as opposed to *will* whose effect is really small. The same is true of *can* and *shall*, whose values reflect that there is variation in their use, although the effect is small, the probability of this happening not being twice as high. However, *shall* is more likely to appear in the introduction than in the conclusion.

4.4. The functions of modal verbs

Undoubtedly, modal verbs have the function of expressing the speaker's perspective on the propositional content. While this value of modality reflects, to a large extent, the speaker's own evaluation, it is not the only purpose of a modal element. On the contrary, the use of these modals manifests a specific intention which is understood by the context in which the particular speech act takes place. Among others, these uses are distinguished in the corpus of introductions and conclusions of scientific articles: (a) mitigation and linguistic politeness func-

tion, (b) predictive function, (c) expression of factuality, (d) inferential meaning, (e) indication of organization, (h) expression of authority, (i) impossibility of performing an action, (j) formulation of recommendations to authors, and (k) formulation of recommendations addressed to the tourism sector. In the following, these functions are described with examples taken from the corpus.

4.4.1. Mitigation, hesitation and linguistic politeness

The use of modal verbs as a device of linguistic politeness to attenuate propositional content is one of the functions of modal forms. In the following examples, the modal form *could* is used with this function in both introductions and conclusions:

40. ...because it could help them develop more appropriate and competitive marketing strategies to attract new guests while ensuring repeat business from existing ones (Introduction; Alnawas and Altarifi 2016).
41. What is more, even though some authors claim consumers to represent 'rational utility maximizing agents' (Sampaio et al., 2012: 235), others point out that consumers could actually be persuaded to engage in more sustainable behaviour, for instance, by using subtle cues (e.g. see De Groot and Steg, 2007) or strengthening relevant normative goals (Conclusion; Melissen et al. 2016).
42. If we assume that online chatting with friends is not entirely unlike people sharing their travel experiences around a kitchen table, we could argue that SNSs just give us easy access to how it is done in practice (Conclusion; Alnawas and Altarifi 2016).

The use of *could* in examples (73) and (74), *could help them develop* and *could actually be persuaded* (75) are examples of epistemic forms intended to modulate the propositional content in order to avoid imposing the authors' point of view. In the case of *could* in (75), *could argue*, it would not be an example of an epistemic modality but a dynamic one, although it would still be a negative politeness strategy. The authors mitigate the propositional content through the manifestation of the context expressed by the modal verb *could*, which shows that the circumstances are present which enable the authors to be 'in a position' to argue about what is expressed in the clause introduced by *that*. The difference with the rest of the examples is that the use of *could* does not seem to suggest doubt or absence of certainty, as noted in Alonso-Almeida (2021).

In the following examples with *may*, we can perceive the authors' intention to avoid imposing their point of view, which is why they are negative politeness devices:

43. The expanding nature of branding strategies and corporate culture is an example of how the Authorised Heritage Discourse (Smith, 2006) cannot be linked to a 'top-bottom' dichotomy but rather to a heritage regime that is being naturalised as the unquestioned way of being in the world (Alonso González, 2013; Bendix et al., 2012). It is not just a

matter of an elitist discourse that may (or may not) be assumed by local population (Introduction; Jiménez-Esquinas and Sánchez-Carretero 2018).

44. Thirdly, with the use of student sample, the generalizability of the results is decreased since the views held by students toward Pakistan may not be representative of the general population of their respective countries. Moreover, the financial ability of the students may be limited, which restricts their future intentions to visit another country (Hsu and Sung, 1997) (Conclusion; Yousaf and Samreen 2016).

As with several forms of *could* described above, all the cases of *may* in (43) and (44) show a mitigating use of the meaning of the propositions they accompany. While it is true that these forms seem to suggest a certain doubt or lack of certainty on the part of the authors, this may simply be a politeness strategy, without necessarily meaning that the authors are not convinced of the reality they are describing. The modal verb *might* is also used with an attenuating function in the following examples:

45. From the outside, this juxtaposition might seem quite odd, being part of the individual way of the Romanians to make a travail de mémoire (Introduction; Banica 2016).
46. After mutual selection, the couchsurfers who share the same value and perform properly online are selected to the stage of offline performance, while others might be excluded from the face-to-face interaction of Couchsurfing... To avoid a negative reference, couchsurfers create a backstage to hide the "improper behaviours" which might conflict with the social conventions of Couchsurfing (Conclusion; Chen 2018).

In all these cases of *might* in (45) and (46), there is an evaluative dimension showing the probability that the action described in the proposition can be fulfilled. As Collins (2009: 92) points out, by means of these uses, a "lack of confidence in the truth of the proposition" is implied, and this is, in effect, what Hyland refers to as *hedging*, since they allow us to present "a proposition as an opinion rather than a fact" (Hyland 1998: 5). In short, the use of these strategies would be understood as a declaration of the authors' lack of commitment to the proposition expressed (Coates 2003: 334), although this is not necessarily the case, as explained above. In terms of politeness, they would therefore be classified as negative politeness strategies to avoid imposing the speakers' perspective.

4.4.2. Predictive function

Modal verbs with deontic meaning are used to express prediction in introductions and conclusions, as seen in the example below:

47. In drawing out the reciprocities between travel motivations and their subsequent manifestations, more light will be shed on backpackers' needs and sought benefits and the circumstances of their potential fulfilment. Both scholars and practitioners alike can benefit from an increased transparency that contributes to our insight into this

visitor type. Results of the study will challenge previous interpretations of how travel motivations such as interests in foreign cultures and sociability are fulfilled through social behaviour and will simultaneously illustrate how social encounters can influence the perception of tourism products, attractions and services, thus offering a new perspective on the assigned importance of the social element in the context of visitor satisfaction (Introduction; Reichenberger 2017).

This example is part of an introduction to an article on backpacker tourism. The use of the modal verb *will* with a deontic meaning and with a predictive function has a presentational effect on the one hand and a promotional effect on the other. This is especially evident in *Results of the study will challenge previous interpretations... and will simultaneously illustrate...* where the reader's expectation is created by the promise which the uses of this modal verb in this context reflect.

The same applies to the conclusion, as can be seen in the following example:

48. Imposing a 10-year visa fee of \$1000 for Chinese visitors is a risky approach if this scheme replaces the existing 3-year visa fee, as this increase will erode the demand from the largest market of the Australian inbound sector. It **will** effectively defeat the efforts that other reforms have made. The range of negative impacts is large for the tourism sector to overcome. This **will** raise a question as to whether or not the government is fully committed to the Potential target that both the government and the industry have set up. Changes to conditions of visa application such as administrative procedures, complexity of requirements and fees and charges could restrict or open up market access for foreign nationals (Liu and McKercher, 2014). Consequently, this will lower business confidence in the sector, could affect the long-term investment strategy of investors and potentially be detrimental to trade and inflow of foreign direct investment (Neumayer, 2011; Song et al., 2012) (Conclusion; Chen 2018).

In this example, the use of *will* has the same function of evaluating the situation resulting from a context where the current system of a three-year visa for Chinese visitors to Australia is changed to a ten-year visa costing ten thousand dollars. The authors relate the consequences of this change in a hypothetical scenario which they reflect with *will* and support using certain textual elements indicating outcome (*as, consequently*), as well as the speaker's perspective on the facts being concluded (*effectively*). A diagrammatic representation would be as follows:

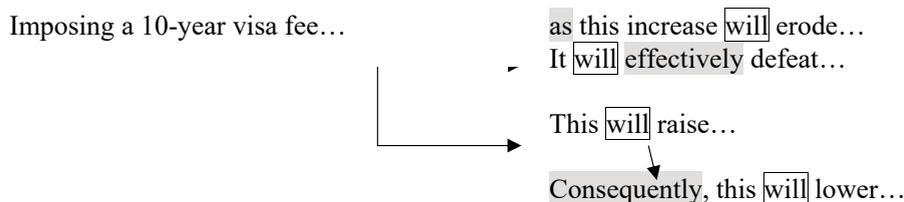


Figure 5. Representation of the prediction based on the starting premise.

These deontic predictive values, especially in the conclusion of research articles, often also have some outcome value that occurs as a conclusion to the work presented, as in the following examples:

49. Taking a gap year involves physical mobility to a periphery destination, which will lead to social mobility after returning to the gapper's centre (Conclusion; Hermann et al. 2017).
50. For example, to overcome the security concern that is hindering Internet adoption, TAs in Dubai can form alliances in order to develop a more secure and effective transaction-based website. Additionally, creating alliances with other industry facilitators such as airlines, tour operators, hotel chains, international TAs and cruise lines will certainly increase their competitiveness and their market share. Another significant barrier that may be hindering e-commerce adoption is the lack of IT skilled labour. This could be overcome by sending employees in TAs to attend professional training courses and sessions related to ICT (Conclusion; Zaidan 2017).

In these examples, the modal form *will* is combined with lexical items indicating logical reasoning such as *lead to* in (49) and adverbial structures such as *for example* and *additionally* in (50) which contribute to this sense of research result supported by the evidence that has been considered in the elaboration of knowledge. This same line of reasoning would explain the evidential adverbial *certainly*, which reinforces the authors' point of view, as well as the evidential structure introduced by the modal verb *may* followed by the progressive aspect *may be hindering* which is finished off in the text with the suggestion presented with the modal form *could*, in *This could be overcome*.

4.4.3. Expression of factuality function

From a pragmatic perspective, the use of dynamic modal verbs in conclusions can have a reinforcement effect on communication, as this modal meaning refers to a fact based on the assumption that a person, event or object has the intrinsic capacity or external conditions are present for them to perform the action described in the proposition. Hence, the information is offered as a conclusion. However, even so, these modal verbs can mitigate the eloquent force of the propositional content (see Depraetere 2017: 16), as the facts expressed are based on potentially possible facts and/or abilities. Some examples with *can* and *may* are the following:

51. Destination image in relation to tourism can be defined as a continuous mental process by which one holds a set of impressions, emotional thoughts, beliefs, and prejudices regarding a destination due to information obtained from different channels (Crompton, 1979; Liou, 2010; Milman, 2011; Reynolds, 1965) (Introduction; Kim and Chen 2016).
52. In particular, we highlight works that can help us to use a (critical) mobility lens to sharpen our understanding of the forces shaping the development of these policies as well as the implications thereof (Introduction; Torabian and Mair 2017).

53. Such research directions can facilitate the development of important research streams, e.g. segmentation, latent class/profile analyses), which together can provide the theoretical insight that is necessary to explain the differential adoption patterns of various population groups (Conclusion; Morosan 2018).
54. Photos and visual processing may, after all, be more basic to human existence than the processing of verbal information, and photos may therefore evoke deeper elements of consciousness than words (Harper, 2002) (Conclusion; Andresson et al. 2016).

In example (51), the modal verb *can* is used to introduce a definition, so it does not express doubt at all. On the contrary, it refers to a real and true possibility representing the concept *destination image in relation to tourism*. Actually, in this context, the use of this modal form might not be necessary, as is the case in the rest of the examples, since they refer to a fact whose possibility lies in the internal characteristics of the subjects or to the conditions which, in fact, exist. The presence of these modal verbs, as suggested above, is maintained in order to contextualize the information by avoiding the explicit imposition (Brown & Levinson 1987) of the perspective and thus prevents future criticism in the scientific literature. In the case of the other forms of *can* in examples (52) and (53), they also refer to the real possibility based on the ability of the objects or events mentioned, *works* in (52), *such research directions* in (53) and *research directions and research streams* also in (53), to carry out the actions described in each of the propositions preceded by the modal form. In the case of the example in (54), *may* on the two occasions in which it appears expresses the possibility of the written actions being carried out based on the qualities of the subjects responsible for these actions.

4.4.4. Inference

The use of modal verbs to express inferential meaning by combining them with the perfective aspect or the progressive aspect has been identified as a recurrent mechanism in the rhetoric of scientific texts, as shown in the works of Alonso-Almeida (2015b) and Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pastor (2017), among others. In his study of Swedish modals, Beijering (2017: 53) describes this type of constructions as representing logical reasoning in the light of existing evidence, as also seen in the following examples:

55. Given this change in policy, this research note examines the degree of persistence in US tourist arrivals, over the entire period in which data are available from January 1996 to August 2016 (which encompasses the period for the Cunado et al. (2008a) study) along with two sub-periods; January 1996 to August 2001 and September 2001 to August 2016, in order to determine the extent to which the change in data measurement associated with the requirement of the INS I-94 entry form may have impacted the degree of persistence (Introduction; Payne and Gil-Alana 2018).

56. Moreover, the Greek government rejected a one-million euro offer from the brand Gucci to host a fashion show at the Acropolis in Athens, which could have aided the government's restoration efforts (New York Times 2017) (Introduction; Biraglia et al. 2018).
57. Given the complexity of the contexts involved (of which I have only offered an outline), it is hardly surprising that the representation of tourism should have taken on a variety of shapes and meanings (Conclusion; Sampaio 2017).
58. Additional participants could have been sought, but our analysis suggested that findings were converging and that little variation would be achieved with additional data (Conclusion; Cheek et al. 2016).

In these examples, the pragmatic function of what Boye and Harder (2009) have called *evidential substance* is to attenuate the content of the proposition, as well as to offer the writers' point of view and their participation in the elaboration of meaning, as Alonso-Almeida (2015a) notes. In other words, it is about using a negative politeness strategy to avoid imposing on the recipients of the message (Brown & Levinson 1987: 70; Haugh, Kádár & Mills 2013: 18). This is achieved when authors share their own reasoning in the research process with the inferential structures *may have impacted* (55), *could have aided* (57), *should have taken* (58) and *could have been sought* in (59). In doing so, authors inform readers both of their actual involvement in the elaboration of knowledge and of the cognitive nature of the knowledge, thus reducing the force of imposition by revealing that it is a deductive process and, as such, subjective and therefore subject to validation.

4.4.5. Indicate the organisation

One of the most obvious uses of the modality is to show the organization of the research article, as its use is to show the intention with regard to the development of the work itself, as shown in the following examples:

59. I will discuss the conceptual, theoretical relations between visitor experience and the idea of the heritage destination in the next section, "Heritage destinations." Thereafter, I will use the example of a Freedom Park tour to show how a particular narrative journey was used to frame ideas about the site's South African and African distinctiveness and how tourists actually engaged with such claims (Introduction; Jethro 2016).
60. In doing so, this study will be divided into five sections (Introduction; Bruttomesso 2018).
61. Accordingly, the primary objective of this article is to combine four distinctive and unique constructs (i.e. brand identity, brand-lifestyle congruence, CHBI, and brand love) into one model to delineate the consumer's psychological path to brand loyalty in the hotel industry and to test its predictive power in explaining brand loyalty (see Figure 1). The rest of the article is structured as follows: the second section provides a theoretical background on the key constructs of the current study, while the third section proposes

the framework of the current study and develops the research hypotheses. This will be followed by analyzing and testing the research hypotheses. The last section concludes the findings. Managerial implications and direction for future research are also provided (Introduction; Alhawas and Altarifi 2016).

62. We shall first provide a theoretical discussion that acknowledges how destinations are mobile entities and in a constant state of becoming. We then will provide an historical overview of the destination image of Iceland suggesting that the changing image of Iceland is crucial to understanding the present state of affairs (Introduction; Lund et al. 2017).

The above examples show the use of *will* and *shall* with a deontic value that aims to show the structure of the work and the intention to include certain contents. This type of information is usually given logically in the introduction, which would respond to several of its functions consisting of the presentation of the objectives and the approach of the study itself. In the example (59), *will* indicates the authors' desire to communicate the aspects to be dealt with in the text. The temporal indication predominates to mark the order in which these aspects will follow one another throughout the research article. In this same example, this is further marked by the adverbials *thereafter* and *in the next section*, while, with the same function, *while* appears in (61), and *first* and *then* are used in (62) to reinforce this chronological aspect. The sense of *will* in terms of structure is well perceived in example (60), where the deontic modal verb *will* signals the structural intention of the article, i.e. *be divided into five sections*. These modal forms combine with present tense forms to achieve the purpose of presenting the organization of the article, as seen in example (61): *is... is structured... provides... proposes... will... concludes... are provided*

Finally, in example (62), the combination of *shall* in the first line and *will* in the intersubjective formulaic structure *we + (will/shall) + provide + NP* suggests not only that these modal forms have a similar value, but also that their use may be determined by stylistic issues and not by their meaning or function. This formula also manages to give texture to the text through repetition, which is an important function of modal elements, as Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pastor (2017) and Alonso-Almeida and Álvarez-Gil (2021) point out.

4.4.6. Expression of authority

Although there is an awareness on the part of authors to mitigate their statements to avoid criticism from the scientific community in the face of a direct assertion that can be understood as an imposition (Martín-Martín 2008; Carrió-Pastor 2012; Czerwionka 2012; Loi, Lim & Whar-ton 2016; Carrió-Pastor 2017), it is equally necessary to show the degree of involvement as a specialist to guarantee the reliability of the information presented in the scientific field. The following examples illustrate this aspect:

63. Tourism scholars must question the ways in which travel policies and programmes work 'to determine the mobility of those people whose "credentials" to travel are often deemed "risky," "suspect" or "illegitimate"' (Bianchi and Stephenson, 2014: 98-99) and

to unpack the ideological forces shaping the development and normalization of those policies and programmes (Introduction; Torabian and Mair 2017).

64. Despite the voluminous literature devoted to the relationship between pilgrimage and tourism, there is a disagreement in what constitutes the difference between pilgrimage and tourism from the religious perspective, the perspective of the pilgrims themselves, and the perspective of the tourism industry and researchers (Timothy and Olsen, 2006). I shall not make another inventory of the resemblances and differences between them for the Romanian case, among other things because the state of scientific research on this subject in Romania is almost non-existent (Conclusion; Banica 2016).
65. These experiences should not be understood as discrete human and non-human actors provoking two passive visitors, but rather as an act of more- than-human engagement and co-constitution (Conclusion; Country et al. 2017).
66. ...social media can be considered in a stage 2 of adoption, as although they are widely used, they are scarcely formally planned; and mobile applications must be considered in a stage 1 of development, as its low use is combined with low perceived usefulness by DMO managers (Conclusion; Fernández-Cavia et al. 2017).

As suggested above in the description of the theoretical framework, the expression of authority can be made directly by using the imperative or by using deontic modal verbs. In the examples above, the modal forms used are *must* in (63) and (66) and *shall* and *should* in (64) and (65), respectively. In the case of *must* in (63), it is used to express what appears to be an obligation on the scientific community to raise questions for improvement, which the authors raise after the situation analysis. In effect, the sense of authority is clear, which is further reinforced by the use of attribution devices, reflected here by the bibliographical reference, which supports the speaker's perspective.

In examples (65) and (66), the idea of authority arises from the combination of the modal form with the negation adverb *not*: *shall not* and *should not*. It has been shown that this adverb modifies the meaning of the modal form or the propositional content (see de Haan 1997). In the case of *shall not*, it indicates that there is an intention not to carry out the action described in the proposition: *shall* [NOT (*make another inventory*)]. In the case of *should not*, the adverb of negation seems to perform the same function, although the subjects conceptualising this obligation, in this case the authors, remain implicit: *should* [NOT (*these experiences*)(*make another inventory*)].

Another way of showing authority in academic texts is through the use of the matrix *it should be noted*, as in the following examples:

67. It should be noted that the literature on needs and motivation is ample; however, for the purposes of the current study, only those seminal conceptual pieces and the studies specifically developing a needs or motivation measurement tool are reviewed here (Introduction; Tasci and Ko 2017).

68. Third, though authenticity has served as a powerful analytical concept, it should be noted that in the discursive field, the different types of authenticity are usually inseparable in a topical conversation (Conclusion; Wang and Alasuutari 2017).

In examples (67) and (68), the aforementioned matrix shows an *effective modality* meaning, following the terminology in Marín-Arrese (2009), the intention of which is to manifest necessity, advice or obligation. In this sense, the context in examples (67) and (68) seems to indicate the necessity and desirability of considering what is described in the sentences with *that*. In other words, the matrices in the two cases under analysis supply the subjective evaluation of the authors, although they are implicit in the configuration of these formulae as the subjects from which the deontic force comes.

4.4.7. Inability to perform an action

Modal verbs are used in the corpus analysed to express the impossibility of carrying out the action described in the proposition. This impossibility may be due to the action of an external or internal force in the case of deontic modal verbs, while in the case of dynamic modal verbs, it is due to a lack of ability, capacity or the absence of conditions which would allow the action contained in the proposition to be carried out. Some examples from the corpus are the following:

69. It cannot, however, be denied that new patterns of tourism-related consumption were also emerging during these years (Introduction; Sampaio 2017).
70. We simply cannot know, and thus the extent to which my model can be tested through this approach is questionable (Introduction; Litvin and Smith 2016).
71. Second, the study used a random sampling technique for different types of nature-based tourism destination, which is a rigorous approach. However, the data are cross-sectional and may not be generalized to long-term ecotourism behaviour (Unanue et al. 2016) (Conclusion; Lee and Jan 2018).
72. Regarding our case studies, we cannot consider the branding strategies uncritically because, as Silva (2013) says, the making of heritage may give rise to two opposing impacts simultaneously- increased social cohesion and place pride, on the one hand, and envy and competition (and, thus, social atomisation), on the other hand- and residents are totally cognizant of the tension between the two. p. 14)... Branding is a form of essentialising, unifying and including part of a population under the umbrella of cultural identity and simultaneously; it is also a form of excluding those who cannot be protected under that umbrella (Conclusion; Jiménez-Esquinas and Sánchez-Carretero 2018).
73. Local norms cover everything from the grammar and vocabulary of the language in use, to what is considered to be appropriate attire, matters of taste in cuisine, music, and humor; to laws proscribing who one may and may not marry; and to far from universal prohibitions against heinous crimes (Introduction; MacCannell 2016).

The modal forms used are *can* and *may*. In all the cases of *can* in examples (69), (70), (71) and (72), the meaning is dynamic, as the conditions or circumstances do not seem to exist for the actions described on each occasion: *it cannot be denied...*, *we cannot know...*, *the data may not be generalized...* and *those who cannot be protected...* On the other hand, the modal verb *may not* in example (73), *laws proscribing who one may and may not marry*, the deontic force is external. This force is, in this case, of a legal order, so that the realisation can only be carried out when there is no such deontic force. In this sense, the possibility of getting married does not depend on random phenomena that can be fulfilled in the future, it depends on the application of a law or regulation that decides which person a citizen of the country described in the article can marry.

4.4.8. Formulating recommendations for researchers

The following examples from the corpus with *should* and *must* illustrate the use of modal verbs to present recommendations to academic colleagues:

74. ...tourism researchers, those most likely to analyze the theory, should applaud the model for what it is and not criticize it for what it is not (Introduction; Litvin and Smith 2016).
75. Therefore, tourism scholarship seriously should consider new forms of protest, the affected areas and different forms in which cultural and social manifestations act strategically in urban areas that are experiencing abrupt changes, both symbolically and materially (Introduction; Bruttomesso 2018).
76. Performing arts managers must refine the service concept, the service marketing direction and the market positioning strategy as being essential components of the service product strategy for the performing arts (Conclusion; Song 2016).

In example (74) taken from an introduction, the authors show their stance with regard to a methodological aspect of their research. In contrast to the epistemic modality in which the authors try to mitigate positioning, the use of *should* in this particular case seeks an effect that evidences their commitment to their final observation, namely that all available sources of knowledge require analysis. Jaime and Pérez-Guillot (2015: 294) found that the modal *should*, similar to the modal verb *must*, is quite common in technical English, as opposed to general English, to express obligation and necessity, and this meaning has been attested in our corpus and is evidenced in the samples presented here.

In the case of *should* in (75), the deontic value indicates a recommendation to carry out an improvement in research aspects. Example (76) provides a case of *must* in a conclusion. The authors explain the need for the improvement of the service concept, the marketing direction of the service and the market positioning strategy to be carried out in order to improve the situation described in the text. For Charlow (2016: 47), as mentioned above, the use of deontic modals indicating necessity justifies deontic meanings with a sense of necessity in the idea of improvement or "betterness", using his terminology. From a formal perspective, this can be represented as follows:

P is better than -P if P permits

P is better than -P if P avoids ambiguity in the statement

The most obvious meaning of these modal forms is that of obtaining a benefit in the sense that the conclusions introduced by these modal forms are presented as recommendations that should be undertaken by the tourism industry or local governments to improve the current situation and thus be more economically relevant, as illustrated by the examples analysed.

In all these cases, the modal verbs *should* and *must* indicate the desirability of the actions described in the propositional content of the statements in which these verbs appear. The idea of improvement remains strong in the use of these modal forms in many examples with deontic meaning, especially in the conclusions. Example (110) includes a few concord lines containing the expression *future research* followed by a modal verb.

77. ...the study. Future research can corroborate (Peter y Anandkumar 2016).
...the data. Similarly, future research could adopt... (So et al. 2018).
...its findings. Therefore, future research may encompass tourists... (Correia et al. 2018).
...environment; so future research might aim to supplement... (Fitzgerald y Reis 2016).
...classification. Future research should also focus on... (Zaidan 2016).

These concordance lines feature the modals *can*, *could*, *may*, *might*, *might* and *should* which are combined with verbs related to research processes, such as *corroborate*, *aim*, *adopt*, *encompass*, and *supplement* in these examples. Other cases in the corpus include the forms *look at*, *address*, *adopt*, *test*, *employ*, *extend*, *focus on*, *aim to*, *attempt to*, *examine*, *investigate* and *validate*, which corroborate this association. This formula appears frequently in conclusions and, while it may seem to indicate a degree of authority, the intention is primarily to state future lines of research, which is often established in this and other disciplines, especially in the conclusion section.

4.4.9. *Formulate recommendations for the tourism sector*

The function of formulating recommendations for the tourism sector is essentially the same as described in the previous section. However, the relevance of this function in academic articles on tourism determines that it has a separate section. In fact, the utilitarian sense of these works to collaborate with the productive fabric in this sector is evident in all the conclusions analysed in this work. The following examples are evidence of this:

78. To achieve better performance, travel agencies must develop an IPO strategy by raising barriers to competition in order to strengthen their branding value and align their firm organisation culture (Conclusion; Huang and Chang 2018).
79. In addition to competition, a possible reason for low reciprocity is that most high-degree central websites are public organisations and information services that link many

other businesses as a way of promoting and introducing them, whereas small businesses do not often link back to those public and information services. Thus, the highly central websites should consider requesting those small businesses they link to, to link back to them (Conclusion; Raisi et al. 2018).

As can be seen, example (78) presents the modal verb *must* which introduces the advice to improve and, subsequently, the consequence of this is included with the structure *in order to*. In this case, it would be a matter of improving an action strategy with which the brand image would be boosted. Similarly, in example (79), the modal form *should* frames the recommendation *consider requesting those small business they link to*. The consequence is resolved with the infinitive of purpose *to link back to them*. This use of markers indicating purpose is not common, however, in the function of formulating recommendations for researchers.

Along with this function of making recommendations, in some examples there is a function of creating texture, as in the following example with the modal verb *should*:

80. The findings in this study allow any pertinent recommendations for management of spa hotel. **First**, in today's world of intense competition in spa hotel industry, management and advertising objective should focus on both individual rationality and efficiency in increasing customer net value by improving overall perceptions of product and service quality with the setting of quality standards, for example, and/or by providing customers preferential treatment in price, as another. **Second**, male customers prefer higher quality of service compared to females; therefore promotion for both genders should be managed with different quality settings. Third, customers, who live in the urban areas.e.g. Northern and Central Taiwan), are more sensitive to the salient value of quality and price, however, are more eligible for promotional campaigns compared to the ones who live in the rural areas.e.g. Southern and Eastern Taiwan). Finally, customers with more consumptive experience tend to have a higher willingness to pay for spa service than ones with fewer experiences, but the WTB/net value ratio tends to decrease when the consumptive frequency increases; therefore, the loyalty programme should be managed to improve customer retention (Conclusión; Shiu 2018).

In this example, texture is created by repeating the same modal form *should*. This relationship has been marked in the text with boxes and connecting lines. This is an example where the aim is to relate the findings of the study that has been carried out in the scientific article. Thus, the use of *should* to express advice from the research is reinforced by the use of textual markers such as *first*, *second*, *therefore*, and *finally*. Similarly, modal verbs are used with the same function in (81):

81. Up till now, they have made a modest use of the Internet in the tourism sector: 25% of hotels are present online and 10% of the restaurants, 50% of travel agencies, and 23% of car rental agencies have a Web site. They should provide an enjoyable Web site with easy to use navigation while providing the functionality needed to book online. They should also include space for the exchange of opinions and increase users' confidence

through explicit safety measures particularly in light of this sector's relatively low take-up of online market- ing. Following the leads indicated in this study should help Web site designers increase the viewers' intention to book online... Tourism companies must first increase direct sales, through their Web sites, and also develop partnerships with online travel agents. In the meantime, tourism authorities should keep on investigating consumers' habits, and their perception of the Internet and of all technologies, as an e-commerce developing country such as Tunisia will move very quickly from traditional sales and distribution networks, to e- and m-distribution. The T-WAM, and future improved model and tools, adapted to the new social and technological context, contribute to a better understanding of travelers booking habits (Conclusión; Yousaf y Samreen 2016).

In this example, it is possible for texture to be created by combining several modal verbs that have the same function. In this case, the forms include *should*, *must* and *will*, which present recommendations that are necessary for the improvement of the sector: *they should provide an enjoyable Web site...*, *they should also include space for...*, *Following the leads in this study should help Web site designers...*, *Tourism companies must first increase direct sales...*, *tourism authorities should keep on investigating....* The last modal verb frames the conclusion that would follow from the improvement context described: *an e-commerce developing country such as Tunisia will move very quickly from traditional sales and distribution networks, to e- and m-distribution.* It follows, therefore, from these two examples the value of modal verbs in organising the information presented in the paragraph.

4.5. Conclusions

This chapter has focused on the study of modal verbs in the introductions and conclusions of tourism research articles, which is intended as a contribution to the study of modality in general and modal verbs in English, in particular, in the field of specialized discourse. For this reason, the analyses have focused exclusively on material extracted from scientific journals in tourism, which have been selected according to criteria based on the quality and visibility of the research. Without this being an objective set for this work, the data obtained in this study have been compared with those provided by Alonso-Almeida and Carrió- Pastor (2017) in scientific articles in linguistics and engineering. Furthermore, in accordance with the main objective of this work, variation in the use of modal verbs has been identified in the sections of the tourism research articles examined here.

The first conclusion of this study is related to the forms detected in each of the sections. Thus, the most frequent forms appearing in the conclusions, according to relative frequencies, are *can*, *will* and *may*, in that order. In the conclusions, the relative frequencies of modal forms are higher than in the introductions. The most common forms are *can*, *may*, *could* and *should*. In most cases, there is significant variation in the use of each of the modal verbs in the two sections. Undoubtedly, the form with a statistically large effect is *should* with a very marked use in the conclusions.

Another relevant finding is that the epistemic modality appears most frequently in conclusions, being second in introductions, while the dynamic modality is more frequent in introductions. This dynamic value is, however, the third most common in conclusions. In the case of deontic modality, it is more common in conclusions than in introductions. Evidential mechanisms are more frequent in conclusions than in introductions, probably because, in this section, reasoning may appear to justify the conclusions provided.

In terms of functions, several functions have been detected which these modal verbs fulfil in the texts. These functions are closely related to modal meanings. Thus, the function of mitigation and linguistic politeness is most closely related to epistemic modality, and the same is true for the formulation of inferential meaning, which refers to epistemic necessity. In other words, epistemic modality can be used to show the logical analysis underlying the authors' argumentation. In general, the pragmatics of this type of modality in the analyzed sections is the manifestation of a lack of engagement with the information presented in order to avoid imposition.

Other functions of modal verbs that have been detected in introductions and conclusions are the expression of factuality and the expression of the impossibility of performing an action; these two are often linked to the dynamic modality. In the case of the deontic modality, it is often related to the predictive functions, the indication of organization, the expression of authority and the formulation of recommendations to authors and those addressed to the tourism sector. Occasionally, it has been shown how the use of modal forms is combined with other textual elements to reinforce the communicative intention of the authors.

In addition to all these functions, and without really being associated with any type of modality, the use of modal forms in a paragraph has been observed with the function of creating texture. In this way, the content of a text is structured and at the same time the authors' perspective is presented. The use of several modal forms can occur by repeating the same form in the development of an idea or different forms, but whose function is the same in the paragraph.

CONCLUSIONS

The main aim of this work was to analyze modal verbs, their meanings in introductions and conclusions in research articles in the discipline of tourism, as well as to detect the existing variation in the use of these verb forms between these sections. In this sense, three questions were formulated at the beginning of this research and will be answered in an abstract manner in this section, in accordance with the analyses made and presented in this paper. These questions are used to organize the information in this chapter. In order to be able to analyze modal verbs, the definition and modal types that would guide the classification of the forms found in the texts have been presented. Thus, Palmer (1990 and 2001) appears as a reference source and, from there, this study takes the modal categories epistemic and evidential, deontic and dynamic. In the same way, it has been defined what a core modal verb is, following the criteria of Denison (1993). Along with this, it was defined following the generic structure model in Álvarez-Gil (2022), which has allowed me to characterize the texts used to form the corpus of work through the prior identification of the introductions and conclusions, also using the lexico-grammatical formulae that appear recurrently in these sections.

5.1. First research question: the forms of modal verbs

The first proposed question sought to find out which modal verb forms appear most frequently in these sections of the academic article. In this sense, a global analysis of these modal forms pointed to the existence of variation between their frequency of use in introductions and conclusions. In detail, *can* is the most used form in the corpus with a greater presence in the conclusions than in the introductions. This is also the case with the form *could*. In the case of *may*, more cases were found in the conclusions with a large effect in terms of the variation between the sections. Similarly, *might* has a higher frequency in the conclusions. In the cases of *must*, *will*, *would* and *should*, these forms show more occurrences in the conclusions. The form *shall* is more common in introductions, although the effect of variation is small.

A comparison with data from linguistics and engineering articles shows differences and similarities. The form *shall* has a higher frequency in introductions in linguistics and engineering IAs. However, the frequency of use of *can* in conclusions is higher in engineering texts followed by tourism and linguistics. As for *could*, this form is less frequent in the introductions of linguistics texts followed by engineering and tourism. In the conclusions, the form *could* shows a higher

frequency in tourism research papers and 12.69 in linguistics research papers. On the other hand, there are no cases of *could* in engineering texts.

The modal *may* has fewer occurrences in the introductions of research papers in linguistics than in tourism and engineering. In the conclusions, there is no overlap between any of the corpora, and this modal paraphrase has the highest frequencies in linguistics, followed by standardized tourism and finally engineering. The verb *might* appears more frequently in engineering introductions and less frequently in tourism introductions. The difference is in the conclusions, with the lowest normalized frequencies in the tourism discipline and no occurrences in engineering. The verb *must* appears most frequently in engineering texts, followed by tourism and linguistics texts, in that order. In the conclusion, this form is present in all the corpora compared, most frequently in linguistics and tourism research articles. The form *shall* appears more often in the introductions and conclusions of tourism articles, while no cases were detected in the other corpora. As for *should*, it appears only in tourism introductions. In the conclusions of these articles, *should* has a higher frequency, followed by engineering and linguistics.

A difference in the frequency of use of *will* was found in all the corpora compared. It appears most frequently in the linguistics texts, followed by engineering and tourism. In the conclusions, *will* appears more often in the tourism corpus and less often in the engineering corpus and in the linguistics corpus, in that order. Finally, *would* has similar frequencies in the introductions in the three corpora, while the frequency is higher in the conclusions of the linguistics corpus. The tourism and engineering corpus show fewer cases of this modal form, in this order.

5.2. Second research question: the meaning of modal verbs

The second question asks which modal meanings are more frequent in the introduction and in the conclusion and whether the variation is significant. Dynamic modality is the preferred modal meaning in introductions, while epistemic modality appears more frequently in conclusions. The epistemic modality and the deontic modality, in this order, are the next most common in introductions. The deontic modality is used as the second most common modal resource in conclusions, followed by the dynamic modality. Evidential devices appear in both sections with a higher relative frequency in the case of texts in conclusions.

After analyzing the data, the results of the modal verbs found in the analyses carried out were compared with those of Alonso-Almeida and Carrió-Pastor (2017). Thus, it is revealed that dynamic modality is the preferred modal meaning in the introductions of all the corpora examined, but there is not much difference between epistemic and dynamic meanings in the case of the engineering corpus. The epistemic modality occurs more frequently in the introductions of the engineering texts and is less frequent in the tourism and linguistics corpora, respectively. The deontic modality is more frequent in the linguistics and tourism introductions, in that order, and slightly less frequent in the tourism introductions. As for the conclusions, the most common modal meaning is epistemic in the case of linguistics and tourism texts. Dynamic is the next most frequent modal meaning in these conclusions in engineering and linguistics. In the case of deontic meaning, this is the second most frequently used modal meaning in the tourism corpus. Evidential values were only found in the tourism texts, with a higher presence in the conclusions.

The epistemic modal verbs in the corpus analyzed are *may*, *would*, *could*, and *might* in introductions and conclusions, in this order of frequency. In all epistemic modal verbs, an evaluative value was identified with an intention to provide tentative interpretations of the phenomena analyzed in the article, in the case of conclusions, with an attenuating value of the propositional content. It was found that there is variation in the case of all epistemic forms according to their presence in the introduction and in the conclusion, most frequently in the conclusions. The form *could* has the highest probability of occurrence of this form with epistemic meaning in the conclusion. As for evidential modality, the forms used with this value in our corpus are *could*, *may*, *might*, *would* and *should*. The form with the greatest variation is *may*, which is more likely to appear in the conclusion than in the introduction. In the case of *might*, it was found that this modal form is more likely to appear in the introduction than in the conclusion.

The dynamic modal verbs used in the introductions of the texts are *can*, *will*, *could*, *may*, *will* and *would* in this order of frequency. This form appears with a higher relative frequency in the case of conclusions. The use of *can* refers to the dynamic possibility of carrying out the action described in the proposition on the basis of characteristics which are specific to the persons, objects and events referred to. Generally speaking, the dynamic modality is more frequent in the conclusions of tourism research articles with a higher probability of the forms *can*, *could* and *may* appearing in the conclusions. This use is due to the fact that these structures favour the presentation of ideas by avoiding the imposition of the authors' perspective.

The deontic modality is the least frequent of the three types of modality in the introductions and conclusions of research articles. Deontic modality is expressed by means of the modal forms *can*, *must*, *will*, *shall* and *should* in introductions, and the same is true in conclusions as well as *could*. The deontic notions found are necessity, prediction and expectation. Following Charlow (2016), it can be seen that, in conclusions, the use of this modal is based on the idea of "improvement" which underlies the expression of the deontic need to carry out an action which, as a consequence, offers benefits to the tourism sector. It can be seen in the analyses carried out that *could*, *must*, *will* and *should* are more likely to present variation in conclusions than in introductions.

5.3. Third research question: the meaning of modal verbs

The third, and final, question revolves around what functions these modal verbs fulfil in texts. In principle, the function of modal verbs is to express the speaker's perspective on the propositional content, which implies an evaluation of the propositional content. However, there are a number of specific functions of modal verbs which justify their use by speakers. In this paper, the following functions have been identified in the corpus of introductions and conclusions of scientific articles analyzed in this volume, namely: mitigation and linguistic politeness, prediction, factuality, inferential meaning, indication of text organization, authority, impossibility of performing an action, recommendations both to academic colleagues and to companies and public organizations in the tourism sector.

In the corpus, mitigation is mainly carried out by means of epistemic structures. This function aims to avoid both the imposition of a point of view and confrontation over issues of disagreement. Moreover, the use of these strategies implies the authors' lack of commitment to the

proposition expressed, which, in politeness terms, would be classified as negative politeness strategies to avoid imposing the speakers' perspective, as it would indicate doubt or lack of certainty. As for the prediction function in introductions and conclusions, modal verbs with deontic meaning are used for this purpose. It was observed that some modal forms combine with lexical items and other morphological structures to indicate logical reasoning in the elaboration of knowledge. The expression of factuality in the corpus is expressed by the use of dynamic modal verbs in the conclusions to reinforce the point of view in communication, as this modal meaning does not refer to a random possibility, but to a possibility based on the assumption that a person, event or object has the intrinsic capacity or external conditions to perform the action described in the proposition. However, these modals can mitigate the propositional content by expressing potentially possible facts and/or abilities so that the speaker's perspective is based on an objective perception of reality. As for the use of modal verbs with inferential meaning, they are used as mechanisms of negative politeness strategy to avoid imposing on the addressees of the message by expressing the deductive reasoning used by the authors in the elaboration of new knowledge. The cognitive nature of the procedure is thus revealed, which also mitigates the illocutive force of the proposition by presenting the fact as a subjective element.

Particularly in the introductions, the deontic modal verbs indicate the organization of the research article, since the use of these forms shows the authors' intention in the design of their own work. This function is also supported by other adverbial markers and lexical items, as has been shown in this paper. The deontic modality is also used to express authority. Just as propositional content can be mitigated to avoid later criticism of a direct assertion, it is possible to show the degree of specialist involvement of the authors in order to guarantee the reliability of the information offered. Otherwise, the information would appear to lack validity due to excessive attenuation that prevents the authors' involvement from being checked against the veracity of the information that emerges from the research that has been carried out.

Another function that has been found in this corpus is that of expressing the impossibility of carrying out the action described in the proposition. In general, this impossibility is manifested in the inability or absence of conditions that promote the performance of the action. This usage would be framed as a mechanism of negative politeness to avoid the imposition of the point of view, since the conclusion reflects an objective fact based on the subject's own qualities, or on the conditioning factors that allow it.

It has also been found that recommendation is a key function in tourism texts, as it is not only addressed to colleagues in the academic field, but also to companies and organizations in the tourism sector, with the significance it has for the advancement of the sector. These recommendations are formulated using deontic modal verbs, preferably *should*, in the corpus analyzed. Thus, the authors explain the need for an improvement of the academic or professional environment in the tourism industry. This idea of improvement is noticeable in the use of these modal forms, especially in the conclusions. This is fundamentally the same in the case of recommendations aimed at the tourism sector. This type of modality function is based on the utilitarian sense of research articles to collaborate with the productive fabric in this sector, so it is not strange that it occurs in the conclusions of these works. The modal verb with this function can be followed by structures indicating the reason or consequence of carrying out the recommendation expressed.

Finally, it was tangentially observed that the repetition of a modal form or the use of several modal forms in the same text can contribute to the creation of texture, which results, on the one hand, in a thoughtful organization of the contents and, on the other hand, allows the positioning of the authors of the scientific article in the research carried out to be reinforced.

5.4. Further research

This study has shown that there is variation in the modal forms and meanings of modal verbs in the introductions and conclusions of tourism research articles. Likewise, it has been confirmed that these modal forms fulfil a number of specific functions that contribute to the elaboration of scientific knowledge. However, this study only represents an approximation to the textual characterization of the scientific article that allows conclusions to be drawn for didactic purposes both for specialists in the field of tourism and for students in this discipline.

Despite the study proposed by Álvarez-Gil (2022), it is necessary to undertake more work like this one that allows us to know in more detail the generic structure of research articles in a large corpus of these texts. This, in turn, will make it possible to undertake new analyses of modal verbs in all sections of the article in tourism in order to know exactly how they are used and why they are used.

In this study, it has been observed that modality interacts with other textual markers to reinforce a certain aspect of the research being described. This suggests the need to carry out work on textual and interactional elements (in the sense of Hyland (2005b)) which, in its totality, gives a picture of both the functions they fulfil and the way in which they are related, as well as the frequency with which this occurs. These data can be compared with data obtained for other disciplines to find out how much variation exists in each case.

It would also be very interesting to test the relationship between modal verb forms and the expression of politeness. It has been seen in this study that, although there seems to be a certain correlation in the use of epistemic modal verbs and linguistic mitigation as a politeness mechanism to avoid imposing a point of view, this does not seem to be exclusive to this modal category, as other meanings, such as dynamic, seem equally appropriate to indicate this function, as Alonso-Almeida (2021) points out. This could be carried out on a corpus of scientific articles in the tourism register.

Finally, it would also be very interesting to check whether there really is a real reception through transfer of the contributions of academic articles in the tourism sector in order to find out whether this is done directly through these articles or through other textual genres, such as the report. The presumption that these texts are read by stakeholders in the tourism sector would justify the clear and direct expression of recommendations. In other words, the recommendations in the conclusions are expressed only through the use of deontic modal verbs with a cause-effect textual elaboration without other stylistic additions that might obscure the meaning. This would confirm the idea expressed in the analysis of the functions about the importance of the deontic modality, although it is the least used of the three, in the conclusions of the works.

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APPENDIX

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