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Metadiscourse in Written Genres: Uncovering Textual and Interactional Aspects of Texts

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Ciler Hatipoglu / Erdem Akbas / Yasemin Bayyurt (eds.)

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Erdem Akbas¹ and Jan Hardman²

An Exploratory Study on Authorial (in)visibility across Postgraduate Academic Writing: Dilemma of developing a personal and/or impersonal authorial self

Abstract: The writers of any scientific community are inherently expected to fulfil some agreed-upon discourse conventions of the academic discourse community (Molino, 2010) in the sense of creating a successful dialogic interaction through their texts. In line with this, Akbas (2014b) raised the question of “how and to what extent writers foreground their explicit manifestations or hide their personal projections with impersonal forms” (p. 56). Considering the fact that academic writing is closely linked to the representation of authorial self (Hyland, 2002) and the voice of the postgraduates has received relatively less attention, in this paper, we explored the notion of explicit (via I and we-based instances) and implicit (via passive and impersonal instances) representation of postgraduates as the novice writers in the Social Sciences; namely, Turkish native speakers, Turkish speakers of English and English native speakers. Therefore, the focus of the paper shall be on the variations of personal (first person pronouns) or impersonal (agentless passives and inanimate subjects) uses of authorial references as well as their discourse functions in the postgraduate writing. In total, 90 successfully-completed dissertations of three postgraduate groups were randomly selected to compile the corpus of the study, and a corpus-informed discourse analysis approach was applied in the identification of choices of authorial representation in this genre. Following an extensive manual analysis of the texts from the corpus for each group, a list of explicit and implicit authorial references was extracted from sample texts to be explored in the analysis of the whole corpus. As was applied by Fløttum (2012), during the identification of authorial references, all verbs collocating with the explicit or implicit authorial references were examined carefully to see if the references performed author visibility in the texts. The quantitative analysis clearly showed that Turkish L1 and Turkish writers of English preferred to build mainly an impersonal impression over what they were presenting to the reader by employing a greater number of implicit authorial references whereas English L1 writers chose to create a more self-prominent academic prose. The qualitative analysis provided some evidence to argue that three groups employed explicit or implicit authorial references to accomplish particular discourse acts (i.e. guiding readers through

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the texts, elaborating an argument & making a claim, restating data collection, analysis and other methodological issues) strongly associated with the nature of discussion section.

**Keywords:** Postgraduate academic writing, Discourse Analysis and Corpus Linguistics, Metadiscourse, Self-mentions, Cross-cultural and linguistic study, Genre

1. **Introduction**

In recent years, there has been a mounting interest in exploring how the scientific writers accomplish building interaction with their intended audience through their academic texts (Akbari, 2017; Bal-Gezegen & Isik-Guler, 2017; Bondi, 2008, Hyland 2002; Hoey, 2001; Lee & Casal, 2014; McGrath, 2016; Salas, 2015; Tang & John 1999; Thompson, 2001; Vassileva, 2014; Vázquez & Giner, 2009). One of the central practices to create a dialogue between the writer and the reader is strongly linked to rhetorical construction of discoursal writer identity with various preferences in their academic texts. As cited in Hyland (2001), Albert Einstein suggested that “when a man is talking about scientific subjects, the little word ‘I’ should play no part in his expositions” (p. 2). The way Albert Einstein evaluates the academic prose seems to highlight a relatively impersonal mode of writing whereas many researchers (such as Harwood, 2003; Hyland, 2001; Vassileva 1998) stress that the scientific genres display both personal and impersonal selection of self-references to attain objectivity and add an interpersonal dimension to what is conveyed academically. Therefore, regarding the construction of authorial self, the writers make choices rhetorically either to highlight their presence or to downgrade it for the sake of objectivity.

In line with academic writing research and recent pedagogical perspectives towards it, a range of strategies has been underlined to explain how academic prose is constructed. However, the notion of establishing a successful communication through references to the presence of the authors (henceforth authorial reference) is, to some extent, complex and problematic for most postgraduate writers due to the fact that there is disparity between what the postgraduates are expected to and what they achieve by their writing style to accommodate to the discourse community practices (Paltridge and Starfield, 2007). In addition, there are controversial viewpoints over the extent of how writers aptly intrude themselves into their discourses and establish their authorial presence. There are some contrastive studies looking at the phenomenon from different perspectives (mostly in expert writing), e.g. Spanish vs. English (Mur Dueñas, 2007; Sheldon, 2009); Italian vs. English (Bondi, 2007; Molino, 2010); English vs. Korean (Kim, 2009); English L1 vs. L2 (Martinez, 2005; Carciu, 2009; Karahan, 2013; Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2013); Turkish L1 vs. Turkish writers of English (Akbas, 2014a); Greek speakers of
English (Vladimirou, 2014); expert vs. student writing (Hyland, 2002; Harwood, 2003); Italian undergraduate writing (Vergaro, 2011). Nevertheless, to date, no cross-cultural and cross-linguistic analyses of personal and impersonal authorial references in postgraduate academic writing, particularly of Turkish and British students, have been conducted to understand the choices made by postgraduates for establishing writer presence in their texts.

Considering above issues, the aim of the study is to fill in the gap of exploring how postgraduate writers in the Social Sciences (e.g. Education, Psychology) seek to establish their authorial representations in their dissertation writing and provide potential types of choices frequently used in the corpus to be made by forthcoming postgraduate students from the selected contexts; namely, Turkish L1, Turkish writers of English and British L1 writers. In particular, the present research has two leading elements: (1) analysing and classifying ways of maintaining authorial presence, and (2) comparing and contrasting rhetorical choices across different postgraduate groups. More specifically, we seek to answer the following two research questions throughout the chapter:

*How do postgraduates in the Social Sciences from different contexts (i.e. Turkish L1 writers, Turkish writers of English and English L1 writers) establish their authorial presence in their discussion sections?*

*Are there any genre conventions unique to any group or common to all groups based on a triple comparison in terms of how they construct their authorial-self?*

The chapter is organized as follows. Section 2 focuses on the evaluations of a few crucial studies in the literature to illustrate key points. The way corpus compiled and the procedures followed shall be introduced in Section 3. The next section (4) presents a detailed report of quantitative and qualitative results followed by the discussions of the key findings regarding authorial presence in postgraduate academic writing. The last section provides the summary of the research, concluding remarks and suggestions for future research. It is also hoped that such a cross-linguistic and cross-cultural investigation of authorial presence would add a significant contribution to this growing body of knowledge by highlighting tendencies across particular postgraduate writers with a special focus on similarities and differences.

---

3 The ‘postgraduate writers’ in the present study refers to a sample of native writers of Turkish (from Turkey), Turkish writers of English (from Turkey), native writers of English (from the UK).
2. Related literature

The concept of stance and stance-taking in academic writing has attracted quite considerable attention that many researchers (see Conrad and Biber, 2000; Var-talla, 2001; Hood, 2004; Baratta, 2009; Wharton, 2012; Aull and Lancaster, 2014; Hyland and Jiang, 2016; Lancaster, 2016) have lately explored the phenomenon to accentuate the significance and complexity of stance by focusing on distinctive features (i.e. hedges, certainty markers, self-mentions) in different genres such as research articles, thesis, undergraduate papers. What most of these studies indicated is directly linked to the idea that academic writing is not purely im-personal (Hyland 2002; Starfield & Ravelli, 2006) as implied by Albert Einstein. It can mainly be the case for writers to move between their conscious rhetorical choices to establish their voices and create a credible image in conveying meaning.

In a broad term, stance in academic writing can be described as the “evaluative space” (Thompson & Ye, 1991, p. 369) created by the authors to reflect mainly their judgements and viewpoints towards anything to be conveyed in their texts. After the distinction of Cherry (1998) for the terms of ethos (for gaining credibility) and persona (for attaining rhetorical roles), later studies (Ivanic, 1998; Tang and John, 1999; Hyland 2001; Harwood, 2005; Mur Dueñas, 2007) have quantitatively and qualitatively looked at the explicit manifestation of writers, namely, personal pronouns, and explored the functions of these pronouns in various written genres. As an example, Hyland (2002) portrayed what linguistic realizations in different contexts (namely, Hong Kong student theses vs. expert writer texts) can be frequently used to claim authority as most L2 writers did not prefer to employ self-mentions so that they can downplay their roles whereas the use of personal pronouns were four times more frequent in expert writing.

One of the earliest classifications of the use of personal pronouns belongs to Tang and John (1999), who established six different functions of personal pronoun ‘I’ ranging from the least powerful (‘I’ as representative) to most powerful (‘I’ as originator) authorial presence in the single authored texts of Singaporean Linguistics students. Nevertheless, as can be argued, the writers’ presence needs to be examined with other linguistic signals, such as personal pronoun ‘we’ (Harwood, 2003; 2005) and other impersonal strategies (Molino, 2010), to shelter their presence for the sake of projecting an implicit manifestation of what they present their intended audience.

Hyland’s (2001) comparative study can be regarded as one of the noteworthy attempts in examining personal pronouns (both I and we-based pronouns) to explore disciplinary variations across hard and soft fields with a corpus totalling 1.4 million words. Detailed analysis of the pronouns in his corpus, Hyland found
out that researchers from soft fields tended to prioritise their authorial presence through *I* to highlight personal ownership of their ideas. In his corpus with limited number of single-authored texts in hard fields (11% of 120 research articles), the researchers intrinsically favoured the use of first person plural pronoun *we* instead of *I*, which could be expected not to employ *I*-based pronouns in multi-authored texts. It was also significant that even the single-authored texts in hard-fields preferred to underline their presence by using exclusive *we* to establish a promotional role through ‘communality’ (Pennycook, 1994, p. 176) nature of *we*.

Considering the inherent absence of *I* in multi authored-texts in Hyland’s (2001) corpus as a problem, Harwood (2005) focused on building his corpus from single-authored research articles although he admitted that finding single-authored research articles, especially for Physics, was a real challenge.

Similar to Hyland’s (2001) study, Harwood looked at the phenomena from a comparative perspective across different disciplines with a fairly representative corpus of 325,000 words. Although he included only single-authored text, what he found in relation to the use of *I* in hard fields interestingly confirmed Hyland’s (2001) finding and showed that hard field researchers seek to establish a very distinct rhetorical stance by employing exclusive *we*. Not only have Harwood’s (2005) quantitative findings contributed to the literature but also the qualitative nature of his study has allowed him to distinguish exclusive and inclusive *we* and come up with various disciplinary practices ranging from critiquing disciplinary practices to further research and state-of-the-art concerns.

The studies looking at both the personal and impersonal sides of authorial presence are fairly limited. Conforming to the view of focusing on both personal and impersonal choices of writers to establish authorial presence, as is done in the present, Tessuto (2008) investigated ‘the less-explicit resources projecting authorial presence’ (p. 50) study as well to probe the prevailing strategies to represent divergent author positioning, such as concealing identity (Dorgeloh and Wanner, 2009), achieve generalization and objective presence (Rundblad, 2007). In a comparative study, Molino (2010) explored how writer’s rhetorical-self has been constructed in Italian and English texts via personal pronouns and impersonal strategies (Periphrastic passives and *Si* constructions for Italian texts only). Following Tessuto (2008) and Molino (2010), both explicit (*I* and *we*-based instances) and implicit (passive constructions, inanimate objects followed by human-agency...

---

4 In line with this, the present study attempted to examine authorial presence by concentrating on dissertation writing to overcome both the issue of *we*-based pronoun use in academic writing as the use of *we* cannot refer to multi authors in such a context, and the challenge of finding single-authored texts.
verbs, dummy it) strategies have also been examined to contribute to the knowledge of authorial presence.

Molino (2010) stated “the visibility or invisibility of authors in texts may be realised by means of other personal and impersonal rhetorical options, such as possessive adjectives (e.g. my) or metonymic expressions functioning as “abstract rhetors” (e.g. this paper).” The examples from the corpus of the present study below show why the impersonal strategies are also needed to be included in the analysis of authorial presence research.

(1) In the following sub-sections, I will discuss the results pertaining to specific questions that my research attempted to address. (EL1–19)\(^5\)

(2) The discussion of the result of this study will be divided into three sections, addressing each of the research questions in turn with reference to the results. (EL1–3)

Example (1) simply illustrates the explicit manifestation of the postgraduate writer with first person singular for announcing a discourse goal whereas the writer in example (2) chose to camouflage his/her role in achieving similar discourse purpose. It would be impractical not to include such rhetorical manoeuvres to downplay the authorial role for the sake of promoting something else as signalled.

Having shown an overview of the studies contributing to the authorial presence via self-mentions and impersonal strategies, we shall provide the methodological considerations in relation to the present study.

### 3. Methodology of the study

#### 3.1. Overview of the research

Taking a data-driven exploratory investigation towards examining authorial presence in postgraduate academic writing, the study followed a 3-step method ((1) Corpus Compilation and Piloting; (2) Intercoder analysis and evaluation as a part of pilot study; (3) Main analyses of whole corpus and comparisons) with 8 sub-steps illustrated in the figure below. Such a research design has been deemed to be essential in the sense that a robust means of analysis would require a unique corpus compilation and an objective examination of discourse practices.

\(^5\) Extracts from the corpus are presented to support argument throughout the chapter by providing straightforward information in brackets at the end of extracts showing the sub-corpus (namely, TL1; EL2; and EL2) and the number of postgraduate in the group. As an example, EL1–19 refers to the 19th text in the British postgraduate sub-corpus.
Therefore, corpus linguistics, “as a method of linguistic inquiry” (Cheng, 2011, p. 163) and a quantitative method, has been assisted with discourse analysis to qualitatively explore academic written discourse.

Although the figure presents some straightforward information on the research design, Section 3.2 and 3.4 provide a brief introduction to how the corpus was compiled and how the study was carried out with a special focus on procedures shown in the figure above, such as pilot and main analyses, statistical analyses.

### 3.2. Corpus of the study

The corpus of the present study consisted of ninety discussion sections of successfully-completed master's dissertations, thirty from each group. As can be assumed, dissertation writing represents the way how writers combine logic and precision by providing relevant descriptions, opinions and interpretations. Nevertheless,
since the notion of genre was introduced, relatively little attention has been paid to how the discussion sections are structured and presented within the genre of dissertation/thesis. In line with this, the major reason of the selection of discussion section as the focal point in the present study is strongly linked to its importance within dissertation writing in comparison to other sections with more informative or reporting roles, i.e. Abstract, Introduction, Results. In other words, the discussion section can be anticipated to provide relatively higher instances of stance features thanks to the fact that “results and interpretations need to be presented in ways that readers are likely to find persuasive” (Hyland, 2005, p. 176), resulting in a more evaluative role.

The dissertations with an empirical research nature and discussion section from the disciplines (Education, Psychology) in the Social Sciences were collected through various channels: (1) Thesis Center in Turkey (http://tez2.yok.gov.tr) for the texts of Turkish L1 and Turkish writers of English (completed between 2009 and 2011); (2) White Rose eTheses Online (http://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk) for English L1 texts. Notwithstanding this, as some of the authors in White Rose eTheses Online were not reached to identify whether they were the native speakers of English (via email); therefore, personal contacts with snowballing method, where everybody recommended somebody they knew, were used to complete the sub-corpus of EL1 (between 2005 and 2011).

Table 1. The size of sub-corpora in the present study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Total Number of words</th>
<th>Average number of Words</th>
<th>Average number of Sentences</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkish L1</td>
<td>71,581</td>
<td>2386</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English L2</td>
<td>122,161</td>
<td>4072</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English L1</td>
<td>102,361</td>
<td>3412</td>
<td>126</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The whole corpus was around 300,000 words in total with 71,581 words in Turkish L1 (TL1) sub-corpus, 122,161 words in English L2 (EL2) sub-corpus and 102,361 words in English L1 (EL1) sub-corpus as shown in Table 1 above. As the nature of the study is not solely quantitative, the size of the corpus was considered to be reasonably adequate in comparison with the similar studies mentioned in Section 2 (e.g. Tang & John; 1999; Hyland 2001; Harwood, 2005).

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6 The list of dissertations used in the present study can be found as an appendix in Akbas (2014b) as it has not been added to the current chapter as an appendix due to space available for chapter.
3.3. Analytic Framework

In academic writing, one of the key elements in creating a dialogical interaction with readers and persuading them could be the construction of writer’s rhetorical self. Considering the idea that “expression of author identity is clearly culture specific” (Mur-Dueñas & Šinkūnienė, 2016, in press), the preferences of writers in emphasizing or deemphasizing their authorial self may differ in different contexts. It is potential that some writers might prefer leaving their footprints by being so explicit whereas others may opt for manifesting their presence implicitly to appeal the readers by showing what is more important.

During the pilot study of coding and analysing the data manually, we established two major dimensions that the authorial presence was signalled: (1) Explicit Authorial References and (2) Implicit Authorial References. These dimensions were based on the combination of personal/impersonal forms of authorial references and the accompanying verb (Sheldon, 2009) to illustrate the purpose of the authorial presence at discourse act level. The examples below highlight how the categorization was done regarding authorial references:

(3) In the first section, I discuss the key research findings of the questionnaire and interviews in four different sub-sections (EL-28)

(4) The research would suggest however that attendance at standardisation meetings does not necessarily improve the marking of examiners (EL1–6)

Example (3) above shows an explicit manifestation of the author with the use of I-based pronoun to accomplish announcing a goal related to the discourse of the dissertation. In other words, the author did not prefer to lessen personal intrusion into the discourse. On the other hand, example (4) reveals that the author simply backgrounded his/her authorial-self and minimized the visibility to some extent. This can be regarded as an ‘intentional stylistic manoeuvre’ (Akbas, 2014, p. 95) to restrict his/her involvement by using an inanimate subject (The research) in presenting findings and interpretations accordingly. Both of the examples make an important contribution to our understanding of the author of the texts are still there no matter how explicit/implicit they are in achieving one form of discourse act in the discussion section. Given the distinction between the examples, it is important to note that, in the present research, the personal pronouns such as I- and we-based references were labelled as Explicit Authorial References whereas impersonal constructions via agentless passives referring to the presence of the author and inanimate subjects with verbs requiring human agency (element-prominent) were treated as the Implicit Authorial References.
3.4. Pilot and Main Analyses

An essential part of the present study was the pilot study carried out to gain a prior knowledge and experience in exploring how authorial presence was signalled across the discussion sections of the groups. After a manual analysis and initial coding via Nvivo 9 of seven randomly selected texts from each group, a range of items were identified to signal how the postgraduate writers built their authorial self throughout their sections. In addition, the discourse acts achieved with the use of any authorial reference were also noted down to be explored in the whole corpus.

Regarding implicit authorial references, some constructions were labelled as impersonal instances where the authors were prone towards manifesting their authorial presence as rhetorically absent so that they could foreground some other elements, such as findings, results, and data. As underlined in Section 3.3., such impersonal instances mainly included (1) inanimate objects that inherently require a human agency and/or actions, and (2) passive constructions to indicate a more objective tone of academic writing and lessen their involvement.

One of the challenging issues faced during the pilot study was related to the instances of we-based pronouns referring to the writer only (exclusive) or the writer and the audience (inclusive) although it was relatively easy to detect and label them as explicit references. Nevertheless, as argued by Yakhontova (2006), uses of we-based references in single-authored texts would be a signal to downgrade the explicit manifestation with a hedged version of a considerably powerful reference (I-based). Therefore, the uses of we-based references were approached critically to find out whether the authors attempted employ them for the sake of lessening their authorial presence and avoiding a more powerful style. Such exclusive ‘we’ instances were labelled as ‘we pretending to be T’ throughout the pilot and main analyses.

After a list of potential explicit and implicit references was compiled from the pilot analysis based on a manual investigation, we attempted to increase the reliability of coding and identification by asking five people to get involved in the intercoder reliability phase\(^7\). First of all, the second coders studied the codebook designed for this particular phase to comprehend what they were supposed to do; secondly, they completed an online coding of randomly selected cases of

\(^7\) One of the coders was a native speaker of English whereas the other coders were advanced speakers of English and native speakers of Turkish. The researchers contacted them because they all had earlier involvement with corpus studies either as the researcher or second coder.
authorial references within their authentic contexts. Next step was to calculate the Cohen's Kappa statistics to reduce the effect of chance rather than just relying on the matched cases as shown in Table 2 below.

**Table 2. Intercoder agreement results regarding authorial presence**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Coder 1 &amp; Researcher</th>
<th>Coder 2 &amp; Researcher</th>
<th>Coder 3 &amp; Researcher</th>
<th>Coder 4 &amp; Researcher</th>
<th>Coder 5 &amp; Researcher</th>
<th>All Coders &amp; Researcher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of extracts</td>
<td>100*</td>
<td>150**</td>
<td>150**</td>
<td>150**</td>
<td>150**</td>
<td>700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Matched choices</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unmatched choices</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreement on choices (%)</td>
<td>85.00%</td>
<td>83.30%</td>
<td>84.60%</td>
<td>82.00%</td>
<td>85.33%</td>
<td>91.70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cohen's Kappa Agreement</td>
<td><strong>0.823</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.804</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.820</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.789</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.827</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.812</strong>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Coder 1 coded only English extracts (100)
** Coder 2 to 5 coded both English and Turkish extracts (150)
*** The kappa was computed by comparing the arithmetic mean of all coders with that of the researcher, as suggested by Light (1971)

The results of the intercoder reliability test suggested that there was a substantial agreement (0.812) between coders vs. the researcher based on the arithmetic mean of all coders. This essentially characterized that the coding system was reliable and it could be used in the main analyses.

During the main analysis phase, all the discussion sections were automatically explored by using WordSmith Tools 5.0, and then, each instance was manually evaluated within the context of the authorial reference was employed so that we could determine whether the explicit or implicit authorial constructions were functioning in the way that was expected. For example, the use of ‘I’ in a quotation taken from somewhere else would not reflect anything related to the authorial representation of the postgraduate using the quotation. All linguistic realizations of authorial presence were, therefore, manually checked and confirmed.

---

8 Otherwise, after the automatic analysis, it would be inappropriate to treat all cases as authorial references (e.g. all agentless passives, the use of *I* by the speaker in quotations).
Based on the procedures, as illustrated in Table 3 below, the raw frequencies of the items signalling the rhetorical manifestation of authors within their texts were calculated.

Table 3. Raw frequencies of authorial presence items across groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Explicit References</th>
<th>Implicit References</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkish L1</td>
<td>173</td>
<td>585</td>
<td>758</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English L2 (Turkish)</td>
<td>244</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>738</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English L1</td>
<td>428</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>644</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nevertheless, a further calculation was needed to diminish the imbalance of the total numbers of words used in the sub-corpora (See Table 1) in spite of the fact that equal number of texts from each group was included in the study. Correspondingly, another procedure of calculation for normalisation of the frequencies (per 1000 words) was applied for each sub-corpus. That is, raw frequency was divided by the total number of words, and then, the outcome was multiplied by 1000 to find the normalised frequency fixed to per 1000 words (see Figure 2 for the mean frequencies of explicit and implicit references).

3. Results and Discussion

3.1. Overview of the results

As can be clearly seen from the mean frequency of the authorial references across sub-corpora, the results indicate that Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English had a notably greater tendency towards making themselves less visible in comparison with English L1 writers. Figure 2 shows that TL1 and EL2 writers used more implicit authorial references than the explicit ones whereas EL1 writers preferred to employ more explicit authorial references to highlight their personal involvement in their discussion sections.
In other words, the Turkish writers (both TL1 and EL2) preferred to promote a more implicit authorial self by employing heavily impersonal constructions of passive and element-prominent instances (TL1: 7.3 instances and EL2: 4.0 per 1000 words). Despite this, the striking use of personal instances in EL1 sub-corpus (4.1 instances per 1000 words) indicated that native writers of English established a noticeably explicit personal involvement within their discourses.

3.2. Statistical results across groups

In order to see whether the instances differed significantly across sub-corpora, firstly Kruskal-Wallis tests regarding both explicit and implicit authorial references were run. The results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference across three groups of writers (H (2): 8.282, p=0.012) with a mean rank of 45.93 for Turkish L1 writers, 35.33 for Turkish writers of English, and 55.23 for English L1 writers in relation to explicit references (See Appendix 1). The mean rank of EL1 writers simply stresses that this group markedly used explicit references. Similarly, the results for implicit authorial references indicated that there was a statistically difference among these groups (H (2): 29.673, p=0.00) with a mean rank of 63.63 for Turkish L1 writers, 45.97 for Turkish writers of English, and 26.63 for English L1 writers, which showed and confirmed that TL1 used implicit resources quite remarkably.

Although it was indirectly felt and indicated that TL1 and EL1 created the significant differences for explicit and implicit resources, the writers were further grouped...
as cultural (T1+T2 vs. E1)\(^9\) and language (T1 vs. E1+E2)\(^10\) pairs to find out if one of these two variables would be effective in the choices of the postgraduate writers. When the mean frequency of explicit authorial references of Turkish L1 and Turkish writers was compared with that of EL1 writers’ references via Mann-Whitney U test (cultural pairs), the results reported a statistically significant (U: 608, p=0.012, see Appendix 3). Evidently, the use of explicit resources seemed to be a cultural issue as Turkish writers mostly preferred to be less rhetorically visible compared to English peers. The comparison of explicit resources from the point of language variable suggested that there was not a statistically significant difference between Turkish (TL1) and English (EL2 and EL1) writers (U: 887, p=0.911, see Appendix 4). Hence, language variable was not as adequate as the culture was in reasoning the variety among postgraduates. Regarding the comparison of culturally-tied and linguistically-tied groups for implicit resources, Mann-Whitney U tests essentially reported statistically significant differences. In particular, Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) employed a quite high number of implicit resources in comparison with English writer (U: 334, p= 0.00, see Appendix 5), which confirms that the culture variable was found to be an effective factor in explaining the variety across groups. Besides, the language variable seemed to be significant (U: 365, p= 0.00, see Appendix 6) as Turkish L1 writers heavily used implicit resources (7.3 instances per 1000 words) in contrast to English (EL1 and EL2) writers.

Considering all of these mean frequencies and statistical tests applied; the rhetorical preferences of Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English with regard to authorial manifestation can be claimed to be strikingly parallel with high implicitness in texts. On the other hand, overall results moderately indicated that British counterparts flagged their personal involvement and author visibility via explicit references.

Section 4.3 and 4.4 shall present a detailed quantitative and qualitative consideration of linguistic realizations of explicit and implicit authorial presence respectively.

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9 T1 and T2 represented the cultural pair of Turkish writers who were Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English respectively. E1 represented the other culture in the study, British, for the native speakers of English.

10 E1 and E2 represented the language pair of writers who were writing in English, namely, English L1 writers and Turkish writers of English respectively. T1 represented the other language in the study, Turkish, for the native speakers of Turkish.
3.3. Instances signalling explicit authorial presence

As discussed in Section 3.3, the explicit authorial references comprised *I* and *we*-based personal pronouns11 (that is, *I, my, me, mine, we, our, us, ours*), and the analysis of the corpus suggested various noteworthy findings in relation to the use of such self-mentions. That is because the choice of the postgraduates over first person singular or plural references would also imply a comparably discrete authorial construction.

*Figure 3. Mean frequency of *I*- and *we*-based authorial references across groups (per 1000 sentences).*

Figure 3 illustrates that the use of explicit authorial references differed strikingly across groups. It is intriguing that the use of *I*-based pronouns was not an enticing discourse practice at all for TL1 writers to promote their scholarly identity with. Instead, they projected only *we*-oriented authorial manifestation with 173 explicit references (2.4 instances per 1000 words) as shown in the examples (5) and (6) where the authors preferred to be visible through exclusive-*we* references although the texts were all single-authored. It is worthwhile to state that all texts from TL1 sub-corpus included *we*-based pronouns (see Figure 4); therefore, it was not just a practice of a few postgraduates in TL1 writers. As Hyland (2001) indicated, *we*-based references in single-authored texts could be a sign of avoiding personal involvement to some extent but establishing a relatively less explicit authority.

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11 For Turkish, it is common to drop the separate pronouns such as ‘I’ and ‘we’ when they are clearly indicated in the verb or in the noun with a particular suffix, therefore, the suffixes signalling ‘I’ and ‘we’ were searched within the corpus as well as the explicit pronouns.
(5) Bu sonuç bizim ulaştığımız sonuçlarla paralellik göstermemektedir. (TL1–19) (This result is not in line with the results we reached.)

(6) Yaptığımız bu çalışmada elde edilen bulgular ışığında bellek destekleyiciler doğru olarak kullanıldıkları taktirde hem öğrenme hem de öğrenilenlerin kalıçılık düzeyleri üzerine önemli katkı sağlayacağı söylenebilmektedir. (TL1–3) (In the light of the findings from our study, if the mnemonics are used correctly, it can/could/would/may/might said that they will/would make significant contribution to both learning and persistence of learned levels.)

The use of self-mentions in EL2 texts was interestingly equal (122 instances for I-based and 122 for we-based pronouns). However, as Figure 4 illustrates, 30% of the postgraduate texts did not contain either of the self-mentions whereas 40% of the postgraduates employed both and moved between I-based and we-based pronouns in their discussion sections. This signalled that there was not a fixed tradition among EL2 writers. It would be reasonable to assert that most of the self-mentions (20%) were attached to the research elements (study, data, finding, sample, hypothesis, and so on). Such a practice was found to be quite common in many texts of EL2 writers to highlight and stress possession of the research (7) in addition to instances of comparing research findings with relevant studies from the literature (8 & 9).

(7) My data showed that current traditional text-based reading instruction is considered to be useful by the students. (EL2–24)

(8) Our findings are also in line with this trend. (EL2–25)

(9) Our results have revealed that similar numbers of girls in low and high SES groups chose to express their felt emotion (EL2–2)

12 The translations of the Turkish extracts into English were checked by two PhD students who were also Turkish speakers of English. The translations are as far as possible literal to reflect the original Turkish extracts.
Figure 4. Number of texts containing I and we-based authorial references across groups (30 texts in total from each group).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>I-based</th>
<th>We-based</th>
<th>I &amp; We</th>
<th>None</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English L1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English L2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Turkish L1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The EL1 sub-corpus had cases of both first person pronouns; to be more precise, the use of I-based pronouns was 3.1 instances per 1000 words and the use of we-based pronouns was 1.0 per 1000 words. It is essential to state that only 2 EL1 writers (almost 7% of 30) did not include either I or we-based authorial references in their texts. This indicates that EL1 writers were prone towards using very frequent self-mentions (4.1 instances per 1000 words) with predominance of I-based instances as can be well illustrated by examples below. This simply confirms the observation of Martinez (2005) regarding the use of first person pronouns (38.2 vs. 18.9 per 10,000 words) in native and non-native academic texts. Examples (10) and (11) represent a very prevailing use of self-mentions to “firmly identify the writer as the sources of associated statement” (Hyland, 2002, p. 1093) whereas (12) is one of the very rare examples of we-based references used as an exclusive pronoun in EL1 sub-corpus.

(10) I have identified three potential obstacles within the overall academic system that impede interdisciplinary work, all of which unfold within a dynamic educational system dominated by time, effort and funding. (EL1–13)

(11) In my analysis of word-frequency as a possible factor affecting realisations of SQUARE and NURSE, T that more frequent words may tend to be produced with fudged variants. (EL1–12)

(12) Consistent with previous studies (Ragland et al., 2003), we found that patients could benefit as much as healthy participants by using an organizational strategy if presented with one. (EL1–16)
One of the similarities between TL1 and EL2 writers was based on the cases for ‘we’ pretending as ‘I’. In particular, the use of we exclusively instead of I to downgrade the personal intrusion was quite prevalent in Turkish writers texts. For example, the postgraduates in (13) and (14) posited themselves by exclusive use of first person plural pronoun with a function to announce results.

(13) When the results are viewed in the light of theories of overeating previously discussed, we find that this study provides support for the emotional eating theory of overeating but not the restraint eating theory. (EL2–7)

(14) Arastırmamızda, kadınların ev içi geleneksel rol ve tasarruf sorumluları olarak, yükümlülükler altında olduğunu görmekzeyiz. (TL1–21)

(In our research, we see that women are under obligations by taking the traditional role inside home and responsibilities of domestic saving.)

Vladimirov (2014) observed an identical practice among single-authored Greek L1 academic texts where the exclusive we instances co-occurred with particular verbs to highlight their presence exclusively. On the other hand, in comparison with the excessive use of we both in exclusive and inclusive forms by TL1 writers, EL1 and EL2 writers were identical in the sense that they moved between I and we-based pronouns or vice versa as shown in (15) and (16).

(15) We have seen that many studies analyze interveners as focus phrases in the literature. Can we argue that Turkish interveners are also focus phrases? To answer this question, I discuss whether NPIs and focus phrases have morphological, syntactic and phonological similarities in Turkish, and [I] conclude that the evidence is inconclusive. (EL2–6)

(16) I have illustrated how this framework may be used to explore and confirm findings based on simulation literature that is fairly well known......Whilst this has taught us a great deal about the kinds of learning processes we should expect, what is really required are experimental studies to confirm, and hopefully go beyond the predictions made by the models. (EL1–10)

The example (15) above illustrates one of these cases in which the author constructed a peculiar rhetorical effect in the discussion section by moving from inclusive we pronoun to a more personal ones (I discuss and I conclude) subsequently as if the writer opened up a dialogue with the audience and closed it up without giving much space for the readers. In a similar manner, the postgraduate from EL1 writer in (16) above did employ an I-based instance to mark a more individual contribution before progressing to an attempt to bring reader into the text with a “bonding” effect (Adel, 2006, p. 31).
The overall findings of the present study confirm previous studies (Vassileva, 1998; Martinez, 2005; Basal, 2006; Dahl, 2009; Heng & Tan, 2010) in the sense that EL1 writers prefer to be rhetorically explicit via personal pronouns in comparison with non-native speakers. Of EL1 regarding personal pronouns seem to conflict with Adel’s (2006) study, where the British students employed I (0.6 instances per 1000 words) and we (0.3 instances per 1000 words)-based instances quite infrequently in their argumentative writing compared to Swedish writers of English (I-based: 4.05; we-based: 1.11 per 1000 words). Nevertheless, the contradiction would depend on the genres explored (dissertations vs. argumentative writing) as the authorial presences of the writers are likely to change based on the genre they are writing for and the purpose. A cross cultural perspective towards findings, with reference to relatively less use of explicit resources in TL1 context, would validate many studies found that some L1 writers, as in Korean (Kim, 2009), Spanish (Perez-Llantada, 2010; Mur Duenas 2007, 2011), Persian (Abdi, 2009; Zarei & Mansoori, 2011) and Italian (Molino, 2010), prefer to be less visible in their native academic proses.

3.4. Instances signalling implicit authorial presence

The academic communication between the writer and the intended audience is built upon the notion of interpersonality no matter how differently the meaning is packaged and conveyed. Apart from the explicit way of representing the authorial self in the texts via self-mentions, the authors may also opt for creating a more impersonal tone in channelling the knowledge. Ivanic and Camps (2001) characterized this as ‘impersonal knowledge making’ (p. 19). As outlined in 3.3, implicit authorial references would also help writers maintain a level of rhetorical invisibility by backgrounding their involvement for the sake of giving it an objective tone (Baratta, 2009). The results of implicit authorial instances across corpus provided some worthwhile observations in relation to (in)visibility choices of postgraduates in discussion sections.
As can be realised from Figure 5 above, there was a very large difference across the sub-corpora. Overall, Turkish L1 and Turkish writers of English writers consciously employed a significantly greater number of impersonal constructions (7.9 instances per 1000 words for TL1; 4.0 instances per 1000 words for EL2) in comparison with EL1 writers (2.1 instances per 1000 words) who did not appear as impersonal as the others. Combining the results with the explicit resources, it is highly possible to argue that both groups of Turkish writers\textsuperscript{13} adhered to a more impersonal style in their discussion sections. This is very similar to the findings of Perez-Llantada (2010) in Spanish L1 context; she suggested that Spanish L1 writers tended to employ impersonal constructions very frequently in their discussion sections. In contrast, EL1 writers exhibited a rather explicit authorial style (4.0 explicit authorial references vs. 2.1 implicit authorial references per 1000 words) by underlining their presence via self-mentions.

(17) Araştırma
dın bu alt probleminde üniversite öğrencilerinin etkinliklere katıla
malarına göre algılanan sosyal destek puanlarının farklılaş
ması incel

\textsuperscript{13} TL1 writers used 2.4 explicit authorial references vs. 7.3 implicit authorial references per 1000 words; EL2 writers used 2.0 explicit authorial references vs. 4.0 implicit authorial references per 1000 words.
(18) It was found that the females used the ways to look for social support and cope with the problem causing stress more frequently than the males.

In particular, the use of passive constructions by postgraduates writing in English (both EL1 and EL2) seems to be less frequent than that of TL1 writers. Considering the fact that passive constructions might have an effect on reducing the level of directness, which can be achieved through with active voice, it is clear that TL1 writers appeared to have a more indirect style by backgrounding their personal intrusion to foreground a spotlight of the issue presented. As highlighted in the (17) and (18) above, TL1 writers prudently avoided I/we-based pronouns and portrayed a rather distant academic prose in reporting research-related issues via impersonal constructions.

**Table 4. The five most common inanimate subjects used by postgraduates**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Turkish L1</th>
<th>English L2</th>
<th>English L1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>araştırmal1</td>
<td>study</td>
<td>study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>çalışma15</td>
<td>section</td>
<td>chapter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>chapter</td>
<td>research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>research</td>
<td>section</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>x</td>
<td>thesis</td>
<td>data</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to McGrath’s (2016) findings, authors tended to avoid using I or exclusive we, and, instead, employed abstract rhetors and passive constructions in History and Anthropology research articles from the field of the Social Sciences written in English although they were relatively less common academic practices. Despite the excessive use of passive constructions, TL1 writers employed element-prominent strategies or abstract rhetors almost five times less than the other groups (0.2 instances per 1000 words). Evidently, the use of element-prominent constructions in the texts of EL1 and EL2 writers allowed the postgraduates to display a different authorial presence frequently in which the elements highlighted; such as research, study, section, communicated on behalf of the authors as in the subsequent examples.

14 The ‘araştırmal’ can be translated as the ‘research’.
15 The ‘çalışma’ can be translated as the ‘study’.
(19) **This research study** demonstrated that though all teachers used the term “well-being” the contexts in which they understood and applied to this term were varied. (EL1–15)

(20) **The study** did not compare results to a control sample using off-line recruitment methods. (EL1–23)

As indicated by Table 4, it is fairly interesting to state that only two types of inanimate subjects (*research* (21) and *study*) were used in TL1 discussion sections to create element-prominent constructions whereas the English texts employed a broader variety of metonymic words (i.e. *study*, *section*, *data*) to express what they aimed by deemphasising their presence. Example (22) and (23) can be prime examples for letting the inanimate subject accomplish what was planned although it is pretty much clear that the author would still be the agent achieving the discourse acts of “aim to discuss” and “contribute”.

(21) **Bu araştırma** Türkiye’de eğitime sadece bütçeden daha fazla pay ayrılarak eğitimin çözülemeyeceği düşünsesini desteklemektedir. (TL1–8)  

(*This research supports the idea that the problem in education can not be resolved by only having more allocation from the budget to the education system in Turkey.*)

(22) **This section aims to discuss** the obtained results for the application of alternative vocabulary teaching strategies. (EL2–19)

(23) **The present study contributes** to research on volunteer bias across different measures, all of which are non-invasive and do not involve very sensitive information (EL1–23)

Having characterized both quantitative and explicit/implicit nature of authorial references across sub-corpora, we shall provide a more qualitative perspective towards the authorial references in discussion sections of postgraduates in relation to their discourse functions

### 3.5. Discourse functions of explicit and implicit references in discussion sections

With a corpus-driven methodology, the qualitative analyses of the corpus data facilitated quite fruitful findings and allowed a clear understanding of the postgraduate profiles in the study. Some of the major discourse functions of authorial references throughout the discussion sections were:

- Elaborating an argument and making a claim.
- Announcing the goals and tasks (to be) accomplished;
Including the intended audience (readers) in the discourse;
(Re)Stating results/outcomes and signalling conclusions of the research;
Restating data collection, analysis and other methodological issues

The postgraduates presented their opinions or argument based on their findings by combining authorial references and cognitive (24–25) and position (26) verbs. This discourse act has been labelled as Elaborating an argument and making a claim and found to be fundamental in convincing their readership within the discussion sections of the dissertation as it is almost the only unique voice of the writers.

(24) Bu bulguya dayanarak şiddet içerikli bilgisayar oyunu öğrencilerin saldırganlık eğilimini artırmış olabilir. (TL1–10) (Based on the finding, it can/could/would/may/might be thought that playing computer game containing violence can/could/would/may/might increase the aggression tendency of the students)

(25) Because all students need to learn far more words than could ever be taught explicitly, we believe that vocabulary instruction for all students should be multifaceted in nature, involving not only the teaching of specific words but also strategies for inferring word meanings and the development of word consciousness. (EL2–19)

(26) I suggest that the reasons for this could be that one communication channel aids the dyad and increases their level of common knowledge. (EL1–17)

However, it is surprising that TL1 writers were purely impersonal in accomplishing this act and English writers (EL1 and EL2) were chiefly impersonal except a few examples of explicit manifestation. Therefore, it is possible to claim that all postgraduates in TL1 sub-corpus did portray their authorial self in a less-face-threatening way in presenting knowledge claims. This can be categorized as hiding explicit manifestation where it would sound exclusively powerful, and softening the claims as can be seen in the following examples.

(27) It does seem plausible to suggest that an adult speaker learning a new accent will be able to learn a new phoneme present in the accent being learned much faster than the time it would take. (EL1–7)

(28) Based on the findings of the current study, it can be suggested that the teachers should provide a meaningful learning environment for their students. (EL2–20)

The functions of explicit or implicit authorial references in rhetorical positioning as well as knowledge construction seemed to differ across groups regarding the type of references and what it accomplished. As an example, whereas EL1 and
EL2 attained the function of *Announcing the goals and tasks (to be) accomplished* by employing both personal (29) and impersonal constructions (30), it was purely impersonal for TL1 writers to talk about the section organization (31).

(29) In this section I have presented my observations on the varying behavior of causal wh-phrases. (EL2–6)

(30) **Section 4.3 will attempt to show** how a more sophisticated treatment of dialect geography could suggest such an explanation. (EL1–12)

(31) Araştırmamanın bu bölümünde, bulguların analizi ışığında ortaya çıkan sonuçlar tartışılıp, bunlara ilişkin öneriler **verilecektir**. Özellikle “sirali değişken-örüntü” ikilemi ile ilgili sonuçlar **tartışılacaktır**. (TL1–9)

(In this section of the thesis, the findings reached after the analysis will be discussed and some related recommendations will be made. Particularly, “sequential variable-dilemma” will be discussed along with the related results.)

It is crystal clear that whatever the author does, it is the reader who will decode the message and evaluate the intended meaning. A significant aspect in talking to the reader to convey the intended message is to attract their attention via expressions creating a dialogic perspective. The reader-inclusive ‘we’ instances to create solidarity with audience were found to be persistent in discussion sections of Turkish writers (both TL1 and EL2) in comparison with EL1 texts. Merging their presence with that of audience within the texts, the postgraduates referred to actions (32–33) and entities (34) shared between themselves and the audience. Such instances accomplished the role of Including the intended audience (readers) in the discourse

(32) For example, as we can clearly understand from the remark made in the pre-teaching interview (p. 90), deductive teaching elements had been part of T1’s learning experience. (EL2–14)

(33) **We have seen that** NPIs and lexically marked focus phrases with the particles sadece “only”, bile “even” and dA “also” induce intervention effects for wh-phrases in Turkish. (EL2–6)

(34) Birçok efsanemiz, destanimiz, halk hikâyemiz kullanılmayı beklerken, Türkçe kitapları çocuklarımıza **çocuklarımıza** Batı’nın kahramanı Süperman’ı öğretmektedir. (TL1–16)

(While many of our legends, epics, folk stories are to be used, Turkish course-books teach the hero of the West, Superman to our children.)

Apart from such explicit inclusive we cases in all groups, there were some relatively rare impersonal constructions achieving a function to call reader’s attention. The
examples below indicate that the authors reminded the intended audience of something that had been covered previously.

(35) **As was seen in Section 3**, there is variation in the phonological systems found in informants from the same location. This was especially notable in the data for Bolton teenagers. (EL1–12)

(36) **Tablo 14'de görüldüğü gibi**, basketbol temel becerileri gözlem formu son test analizinde ön testte olduğu gibi anlamlı fark devam etmiş, kız öğrenciler 70 ortalama sırasından 63 ortalama sırasına ilerlerken, erkek öğrenciler 47 ortalama sırasından 50 ortalama sırasına geriledikleri görülmüştür. (TL1–1)

(As seen on Table 14, there was a significant difference based on the post-test analysis of the basketball basic skills observation form as it was in the pre-test; it was found that the females students advanced in order of average from 70 to 63 whereas the males degraded from 47 to 50.)

It can be argued that such inclusive instances or ‘reader-in-the text’ cases as labelled by Thompson (2001) would contribute to the idea that authors directed readers, as in (35) and (36), to re-visit what was pointed so that the audience could easily share the views of the authors.

Another discourse function of explicit and implicit authorial references were assigned to **(Re)Stating results/outcomes and signalling conclusions of the research** as a one of the essential aim of the discussion sections. It is worth emphasizing that postgraduates writing in English preferred to be quite visible while displaying their contribution to the literature whereas TL1 writers intentionally avoided stressing their prominent role in reporting the research outcomes. As examples (37), (38) and (39) illustrated, it was a great chance for some EL1 and EL2 writers to promote their credibility explicitly associated with robust findings.

(37) Consistent with previous studies (Ragland et al., 2003), **we found** that patients could benefit as much as healthy participants by using an organizational strategy if presented with one. (EL1–16)

(38) **My research evidenced** that current practice in schools to measure teaching competency or determine the most effective teaching methodology to support social and emotional literacy and well-being was inadequate. (EL1–15)

(39) When the results are viewed in the light of theories of overeating previously discussed, **we find** that this study provides support for the emotional eating theory of overeating but not the restraint eating theory. (EL2–7)

Turkish L1 writers, on the contrary, displayed a rather distinctive style in attaching their authorial presence to the outcomes of the research by using implicit references.
In other words, a range of impersonal constructions were quite frequent in TL1 sub-corpus as can be well depicted by the following examples.

(40) Akademik başarı değişkenine göre stresle başa çıkma alt boyutlarından kaçınma ve sosyal destek arama alt boyutlarında anlamlı düzeyde farklılıklar \(\text{görülmemiştir.}\) Diğer taraftan akademik başarı değişkenine göre problem odaklı başa çıkma alt boyutunda anlamlı düzeyde farklılıklar \(\text{saptanmıştır.}\)

(No significant differences **were found** in avoiding the lower dimensions of coping with stress and the lower dimensions of looking for social support based on the academic success variable. On the other hand, significant differences **were found** in problem-oriented low dimension based on the academic success variable.)

(41) Bu sonuç, öğretmenlerin portfolyo değerlendirme ile ilgili bilgi eksikliklerin olduğunu dolayısıyla değerlendirme sürecinde sıkıntı yasadıklarını göstermektedir.

(This finding shows that the teachers lacked information in portfolio assessment and this resulted in the problems faced during the assessment period.)

The use of explicit and implicit references for Restating data collection, analysis and other methodological issues seemed to differ markedly across groups as in the other discourse acts above. English L1 and L2 writers employed both types of authorial references to remind the process signalling how the research was carried regarding data selection (42), selecting participants, data collection process (43) and some other methodological issues (44).

(42) I also included two phonological contexts for the SQUARE and NURSE vowels: pre-vocalic, which would lead to the realisation of /r/ in the onset of the following syllable, and non-prevocalic

(43) However, a series of open-ended questions were used to facilitate the discussion where appropriate.

(44) Content analysis was utilized on the written responses of participants.

In contrast, TL1 writers were again persistent in employing implicit authorial references to highlight methodological issues in their research, which can be illustrated by (45) as signalling use of particular method/test and (46) as stressing the sample selection below.

(45) Bu araştırmada “Marmara Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği” ve “Öğrenme ve Ders Çalışma Envanteri” kullanılmıştır.

(In this study, “Marmara Learning Styles Scale” and “Learning and Study Inventory” were used.)
To summarize, we argue that three groups differed significantly in terms of the use of explicit implicit resources and the functions they achieved within their discourses. Next section shall focus on a broader perspective regarding authorial presence of postgraduates and discuss pedagogical implications as well as providing suggestions for further research.

5. Conclusions, suggestions and pedagogical implications

In this exploratory corpus-driven study, we have analysed a corpus of three different postgraduate groups from the perspective of how they construct an authorial (in)visibility in their discussion sections via personal and impersonal references. Considering the research questions, the empirical evidence based on comprehensive quantitative and qualitative considerations showed that there were neat differences across groups in relation to the type of authorial reference employed and the discourse functions. In terms of overall authorial references, TL1 writers were more ‘present’ in their texts with 9.7 instances per 100 words in comparison with the other groups. Notwithstanding this difference, TL1 and EL2 writers followed a much more impersonalised style, and EL1 writers displayed a more self-prominent style and were actively involved in their texts via an extensive use of explicit references. The use of personal pronouns by EL2 writers compared with EL1 writers shows us that non-native speakers of English simply avoided employing self-mentions in achieving various discourse functions. This can be linked to the general practices of L2 writers as highlighted by Hyland (2002) and Martinez (2005).

Regarding explicit references, it is tempting to say that there was a marked tendency of EL1 writers to use I-based pronouns in comparison with the non-existence of this type in TL1 texts; what EL2 writers followed was to build their personal authorial presence via a combination of I and we-based references. When it comes to implicit references, TL1 writers overused such impersonal forms compared to their English-medium counterparts. Combining all, the profiles of three groups could be depicted as: a heavy use of implicit forms by TL1 vs a heavy use of I-based explicit references by EL1 writers and a balanced employment of explicit-implicit resources by EL2 writers in achieving some discourse functions highlighted in 4.5.
To the best of our knowledge, the research on how stance and voice are represented in Turkish L1 academic discourse, especially postgraduate writing, is relatively limited, and exploring TL writing would indicate whether Turkish writers of English tend to follow rhetorical strategies as their culturally-linked peers do even though they produce in the target language and for a different community. Therefore, the inclusion of TL1 texts would enrich future research findings. As the analyses were restricted to the discussion sections of postgraduates from the Social Sciences, we attempted to be quite cautious in interpreting the results. To get a clearer view of postgraduate writing from the selected contexts, we strongly suggest cross-sectional analyses of dissertations and a comparative examination with the inclusion of other disciplines.

As proposed by Hyland (2002), a range of social and psychological factors would control the way that writers voice their propositions and deliver them to the audience as intended. Nevertheless, the discourse community they are contributing to can also be a determiner on how they should build their academic discourse. In line with this, the striking findings of the present research are potentially of great importance in revealing how postgraduates from the selected contexts construct their rhetorical-selves, and in providing implications in relation to construction of authorial presence to academic material designers who intend to produce guidance to novice writers. Forthcoming postgraduates who would be equipped with the awareness of how they can create persona (for attaining rhetorical roles) with various options are likely to achieve a better assertion of authority in academic prose. From this perspective, the application of specialised corpora into teaching academic writing via corpus-informed teaching could increase the awareness of novice writers. The writers can familiarize themselves with the discourse conventions by looking at the authentic items and patterns occurring in such a principled collection of texts (Osborne, 2001). Alternatively, as suggested by McGrath (2016), the student writers can be guided to compile a small corpus from their field of research and asked to observe the general tendencies of the author. Then, as a part of learner autonomy process, they could also be encouraged to apply such general tendencies to their very own academic texts can also pave the way for them to get accustomed to available academic practices of the discourse community.

**Acknowledgement**

We would like to thank two anonymous reviewers for providing their invaluable insights in relation to our study.
Appendices

Appendix 1  Kruskal-Wallis Test for Explicit Authorial References (TL1, EL2, EL1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean Rank</th>
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<td>Explicit Authorial References</td>
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</tr>
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<td>Turkish (TL1)</td>
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<td>45.93</td>
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Test Statistics\textsuperscript{a,b}

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\textsuperscript{a}  Kruskal Wallis Test  
\textsuperscript{b}  Grouping Variable: Group

Appendix 2  Kruskal-Wallis Test for Implicit Authorial References (TL1, EL2, EL1).

<table>
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<tr>
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</tr>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>30</td>
<td>63.33</td>
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Test Statistics\textsuperscript{a,b}

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\textsuperscript{a}  Kruskal Wallis Test  
\textsuperscript{b}  Grouping Variable: Group
Appendix 3 Mann-Whitney U for Explicit References (Culture variable\textsuperscript{16}.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explicit Authorial References</th>
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Test Statistics\textsuperscript{a}

<table>
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\textsuperscript{a} Grouping Variable: T1+T2, E1

Appendix 4 Mann-Whitney U Test for Explicit References (Language variable\textsuperscript{17}.)

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Explicit Authorial References</th>
<th>T1,E2+E1</th>
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</tr>
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</table>

\textsuperscript{16} T1 and T2 represented the cultural pair of Turkish writers who were Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English respectively. E1 represented the other culture in the study, British, for the native speakers of English.

\textsuperscript{17} E1 and E2 represented the language pair of writers who were writing in English, namely, English L1 writers and Turkish writers of English respectively. T1 represented the other language in the study, Turkish, for the native speakers of Turkish.
### Test Statistics

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a. Grouping Variable: T1, E2+E1

### Appendix 5 Mann-Whitney U Test for Implicit References (Culture variable)

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### Test Statistics

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a. Grouping Variable: T1+T2, E1

### Appendix 6 Mann-Whitney U Test for Implicit References (Language variable)

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### Test Statistics

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a. Grouping Variable: T1,E2+E1

### References


