Commitment-detachment and authorial presence in postgraduate academic writing: A comparative study of Turkish native speakers, Turkish speakers of English and English native speakers

Erdem Akbas

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University of York

Department of Education

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Abstract

This thesis reports an exploratory and contrastive corpus study examining two phenomena in postgraduate academic writing: expressing commitment/detachment and signalling authorial presence in dissertations. More specifically, the overall purpose of the study is to investigate how postgraduate academic writers from particular contexts build their academic stance and voice by employing a range of linguistic items that could be identified as hedges, boosters and authorial references.

The corpus consists of a total of 90 discussions sections of master's dissertations, 30 from Turkish L1 writers, 30 from Turkish writers of English and 30 from UK English L1 writers. A range of items, discourse functions and roles were determined during the pilot study via Nvivo 9. Then, the whole corpus was searched and analysed via WordSmith 5.0 based on the linguistic item list signalling certainty/doubt or authorial presence. In order to address two crucial phenomena in dissertation writing of postgraduates represented by three groups, both quantitative and qualitative approaches were adapted. Three key findings are as follows:

1. The postgraduates polarised: they either frequently qualified their level of commitment or else they seemingly intentionally withheld their commitment from what they asserted. The tone of writing adopted by the Turkish L1 writers differed markedly from that of the English L1 & L2 writers, as evidenced by their use of linguistic signalling expressions; the English L1 and L2 writers preferred to sound more detached from their knowledge claims, compared with the Turkish L1 writers. Therefore, the findings emphasise the importance of the *language* factor in expressing commitment-detachment across groups.

2. The authorial references included two broad categories: (1) Explicit authorial references (*I* and *we*-based pronouns); (2) Implicit authorial references (passive and element-prominent constructions speaking for the author). The Turkish L1 writers and the Turkish writers of English (from Turkish culture) appeared to construct less personal academic prose compared with the English L1 writers. This seems to reflect a broader cultural difference.

3. In terms of the authorial roles identified in relation to the accompanying verbs, the postgraduate writers tended to appear in their discourse most frequently as (1) Research Conductor, followed by (2) Discourse Creator & Participant; then (3) Opinion Holder. The rhetorical role indicating the membership of the postgraduates to a community (either academic or institutional), (4) Community-self, was the least frequent role adopted by the postgraduates in their discussion sections.

It is recommended that, in order to raise postgraduates' awareness about the writing conventions and practices in their disciplines, they should be provided with the standards required with respect to style via modelling from previous successful dissertations completed in their field. This is suggested as particularly important for 'novice' writers.

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Abbreviations

TBCorp: Turkish British Postgraduate Corpus

TL1: Native Speakers of Turkish

EL2: English Speakers of Turkish

EL1: Native Speakers of English

CR: Contrastive Rhetoric

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Declaration

I declare that this is original work and I am the sole author. I also declare that all the material in this thesis which is not my own has, to the best of my ability, been acknowledged.

This work has not previously been submitted for any other award at any other university.

Chapter 1
Introduction to the study

1.1 Background to the study and the aim of the study

Academic writing is a way of negotiating knowledge from any writer to a particular group of readers (academic audience such as researchers, examiners, referees). What academic texts convey is not just the writer's propositional content, but also what attitudes the writer has towards the propositional content in which s/he is packaging the information with a personal stamp that needs to be delivered to readers. Therefore, not only does the writer transfer his knowledge to readers with meaningful units reflecting his presence in the text, but he also reveals his stance towards the information given. This brings in the subjectivity of the propositions expressed by the writer of a particular text; that is because the writer attempts to convince his/her readers to agree with him/her and see things from his point of view. In other words, the writer tries to bring readers to a point of view where s/he stands and support what s/he is conveying. The resulting text is what the writer leaves for the audience, being a mixture of propositions and his/her attitudes or comments towards the audience so that the text could be interpreted in a way that the writer wants them to be delivered.

As the creator of the propositions, the writer qualifies his commitment about their truth with linguistic expressions, or reduces the level of certainty with a purposive tentativeness. This is due to the fact that he might want to show a personal confidence about the statements or add more sensitivity to the views of intended audiences by toning down his assertions. As long as the writer provides his epistemic stance on the definiteness of the asserted proposition, this enables readers to have a strong understanding of the assessment of truth given by writer's subjectivity. While doing so, writers may also prefer to signal their authorial presences in their discourse This includes using a range of stylistic strategies, from explicit personal pronouns, such as *I*,

we, to hiding their explicit appearance but staying there implicitly, such as via passive constructions. Expressing commitment-detachment towards the truth of propositions and making the contribution to the discourse explicit or implicit could be regarded as two of the crucial skills in academic writing, both designed to build social identities and relationships. However, as argued by many researchers (e.g., Clyne, 1993; Vassileva, 1997, 2001), the different writing tradition of each language could result in cross-cultural misunderstandings in the academic use of language. Thomas (1983, p.91) called such misunderstanding as ‘‘cross-cultural pragmatic failure’’, which simply expresses the breakdown in the communication process of people such as natives vs. non-natives or people who have diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds.

1.2 Aim of the thesis

As Thomas (1983) stated, pragmatic competence includes successful communication with the specific purpose of conveying or comprehending language in a specific context. If such an assumption is taken into account, it is possible to understand how important it is to have a consensus on the use of language for specific communities and contexts, due to the potential variations (e.g., syntax, or semantics) in different languages and users. Although there has been a range of studies looking at stance and evaluation with a focus to certainty markers and how writers build their authorial presences in academic discourse, the research has so far mostly concentrated on the academic genres that experienced scholars writing is focused on, such as research article (e.g., Koutsantoni, 2004, 2005; Vassileva, 2001). As is well known, this kind of research contributes to the knowledge and writing style of researchers who are not so experienced or who are experiencing difficulty in meeting the expectations of the discourse community they are in. Nevertheless, novice writers of discourse communities, especially those who are about to undertake their initial piece of work as

postgraduate students, need more guidance on the style and on how stylistic relations and authorial strategies are successfully achieved in their contexts. We do not yet have a model establishing how these novice writers signal their commitment-detachment and construct their authorial presence to accomplish a range of discourse roles in postgraduate academic writing. To this end, what is needed is a fairly representative corpus of postgraduate text to examine such strategies and preferences in postgraduate academic writing. Therefore, the aim of this research is to explore how these two crucial skills in displaying stance are exhibited in postgraduate academic writing and whether they vary in the texts of students with different writing traditions from three different contexts with a corpus-driven approach: native writers of Turkish (L1), English (L2) and Turkish writers of English (L2).

This research will have two principal components: (1) identification of the linguistic resources and strategies postgraduate writers use to qualify their commitment or detachment and construct authorial presence in postgraduate academic writing, and (2) the contrastive analysis following the distinction by Cherry (1988) between creating an *ethos* (for attaining credibility) and a *persona* (for adopting intentional rhetorical roles). As the student writers need to create an effective *ethos* for a successful persuasion of their markers, I shall be scrutinising the dimensions of commitment-detachment based on certainty expressions (i.e. *may, probable, certainly, it is clear that*) linguistically signalled as hedges or boosters, and on how they build their writer *persona* to achieve a range of discourse roles. This contributes towards determining how postgraduate writers project themselves and their commitments to an acceptable tone of writing in terms of meeting the markers' expectations[1]. Instead of presenting all ideas with high commitment or avoidance of absoluteness by down-toning their

[1] As the dissertations had already been marked and the postgraduates had been awarded the degree, I considered and assumed that the conventions had been acceptable, and met the expectations of the markers.

confidence, what these selected postgraduate students did in their texts was accepted by their markers as scientifically acceptable language and style for the contexts chosen. Thus, the results of my exploratory and descriptive study would highlight some important features for the future postgraduate student writers in the selected contexts, and can hopefully be used in postgraduate training or writing programmes.

There are a range of studies about linguistic expressions flagging the writer's estimation about the truthfulness of claims made. These studies relate to epistemic modality (Coates, 1987; Nuyts, 2001), hedging (Hyland, 1999; Lakoff, 1973; Vartalla, 2001) and expressions of high certainty under the name of boosters/emphatics/certainty markers in many metadiscourse studies, revealing the epistemic stance writers may have towards their propositions. Holmes (1982) established a scale of certainty by differentiating how writers assert a particular level of certainty about whether a proposition is true or not. That included the probability or possibility of a proposition's being accurate or not. Additionally, there are fine-grained studies investigating how writers reflect their presence in a text, and build their personas and academic voices as writers, such as Harwood (2003) and Hyland (2001, 2002a, 2003). However, there are no real clear-cut findings about how novice writers from different communities (meaning different in language, culture or discipline) express certainty or doubt and make their presence salient or hide themselves as the owners of a particular proposition/text. This empirical investigation of lexical items or bundles in student academic writing will make that crucial concept of pragmatic competence and rhetorical choices clear in the contexts chosen for the present study. The analysis of academic discourse has also been a commonly researched within corpus linguistics and the results of either learner or expert corpora would be useful for the purpose of developing academic writing instruction for different contexts (e.g., the use of directives by Hyland (2002b); or citation practices by Thompson and Tribble (2001)). From that point of

view, the results of the present empirical and exploratory study of Turkish-British Postgraduate corpus is likely to be helpful in showing the accepted use of language in the contexts selected.

To this end, this empirical study will investigate how and to what extent student writers express and qualify their commitment-detachment and signal their presence while adopting a number of discourse roles in the text. In other words, this study will focus on expressing commitment-detachment and authorial voice as crucial notions in dissertations, and I shall discuss the extent to which certain conventions are more common and acceptable for the selected contexts in the writings of master's degree students. As mentioned before, the second component of this research (the contrastive element) involves comparisons of the writing in the dissertations produced by three groups of postgraduate student: Native Speakers of English; Turkish Speakers of English; and Native Speakers of Turkish. The study thus aims to compare how students from these specific cultures and languages have similar or different practices in terms of the linguistic and rhetorical phenomena. For the purposes of determining the conventions and practices of commitment-detachment and authorial presence, I shall empirically examine the Corpus of Turkish-British Postgraduates (TBCorp) with the methodology adapted that enables the research to be carried out and achieve the research aims.

To recap, the present research aimed to investigate and model the writing of three groups of postgraduate writers in terms of commitment to the truth, or the likelihood regarding of the knowledge claim presented was true or not/possible or not. The second objective is was to examine how postgraduate writers represented their authorial presence in their academic texts. The ultimate aim was to provide helpful insights and materials for the future master's students in these contexts, which could be used as the basis of pre-dissertation writing courses, or seminars.

1.3 Brief contextual information about Turkish and English language & culture and science in Turkey and the UK

It is common to find a situation where different dialects and accents exist in a country but one of them becomes the established literary language of that country. The literary language can also be regarded as having the characteristics of the particular group as a whole that it belongs to (Aksan, 2000). Turkish language and culture has a very long history, in both Asia and Europe. Akalın (2009) states that there are approximately 220 million people in 34 countries speaking Turkish if we include all different dialects and the formal (standard) language of the Turkish Republic, which is a branch of Turkish language, seems to have speakers in 34 countries. Considering the fact that language and culture can be formed from the values that constitutes the society, Kartalcik and Bulgurcu (2012) suggest that the phases Turkish society has gone thorough have had a noticeable effect on the language in use for different purposes. As an example, today's Turkish language has been influenced by Arabic and Persian which are regarded as the literary language of Ottoman Empire[2]. Aksan (2000) plotted that effect, starting from the 16th century until the language revolution in 1932. Between the 16th and 20th century, Turkish could be regarded to be used mainly for the literature purposes. Therefore, it is possible to state the variety and broadness of Turkish language might have stemmed from borrowing linguistic and cultural components based on the interaction with other languages and cultures in the bigger society over which the Ottoman Empire reigned. Uysal (2008) describes that as:

> Moreover, making a single definition that will hold true for the entire Turkish culture is very difficult due to the complexity and heterogeneity of the Turkish population resulting from the country's unique geographic location and historical background. Turkey's situation is unique and further complicated because besides being influenced by the recent forces of globalization and free market economy as in many other countries, Turkey

[2] The language used in the Ottaman Empire has been regarded as *Ottoman Turkish* by some academics; however, Şemseddin Sami, one of the most known lexicographers, did not accept labelling the language as Ottoman Turkish, instead, he referred it Turkish (as cited in Akalin (2013)).

> has also been in constant struggle between various opposite forces such as between East and West, between past and future, and between modernism, nationalism and religious values since it was founded in 1923. (p.19)

On the other hand, it is known that English language is one of the most widely spoken languages and accepted to be the lingua franca of today's world. Crystal (2003) states that approximately just one speaker of out of four English language users is a native speaker of English. The native speakers of English are considered to live mainly in the US, UK, Canada, Australia, Republic of Ireland, New Zealand and the Commonwealth of Nations. Crystal (2003) pointed that ''a quarter of the world's population is already fluent or competent in English, and this figure is steadily growing – in the early 2000s that means around 1.5billion people'' (p.6). This basically shows how widely English is known and used in the world in relation to its function as an international language of communication.

1.3.1 A general view of the evolution of the Turkish and English languages

The effects of Islam in Turkish culture are manifold. Ozakpinar (1997) suggested that Islam has shaped every aspect of Turkish people's lives, especially ''intellectual and art activities'' (p.29). It can be considered that this shaping has brought about people being closer and taking steps as a community, which also fits to one of the main ideologies of the Ottoman Empire[3]. As the Ottoman Empire ruled over three continents with different cultures and traditions, one of the main ideas of keeping them together had been adopting a view of society which focused on togetherness and collectivism, instead of individualism.

As Kartalcik and Bulgurcu (2012) emphasised two of the major phases or events that helped to build modern Turkish were the National Literature Era (1911-1923) and the foundation of The Turkish Language Association (TDK) in 1932. These two crucial

[3] Çalış (2006) states that after the Tanzimat, the reorganisation of the Ottoman Empire, in 1839, the main ideology of the Ottoman Empire had been Ottomanism which aimed to keep all separate ethnicities in the Empire and promised equality for all in the society.

phases helped the Turkish language to reduce the effect of Arabic and Persian and remove items that did not belong to Turkish, so that Turkish would be more suited to 'modern' educational purposes[4]. Nevertheless, Aksan (2008) pointed that all the cultural changes that a society had been through are reflected in their language in use. This simply brings some common features into the languages/cultures mixed as it might not be easy to reduce the effect of any phase straight away.

The history of English dates back many years and reflects developments of almost two centuries. Christopher (1999) claimed that the first language introduced to Britain was Latin, by the Romans approximately 2,000 years ago. Then, around 400 years later, people living in the south and east of England started using *Englisc* and ''this was based on the dialects of Angle, Saxon and Jute invaders, who came from lands across the North Sea which now form part of Holland, Germany and Denmark'' (Christopher, 1999, p.24). The development and rise of English continued with several crucial phases. Baugh and Cable (2002) describe how English has become so rich and widespread with many varieties today:

> In a similar way the Hundred Years' War, the rise of an important middle class, the Renaissance, the development of England as a maritime power, the expansion of the British Empire, and the growth of commerce and industry, of science and literature, have, each in their way, contributed to the development of the language. References in scholarly and popular works to "Indian English," ''Caribbean English," "West African English," and other regional varieties point to the fact that the political and cultural history of the English language is not simply the history of the British Isles and of North America but a truly international history of quite divergent societies, which have caused the language to change and become enriched as it responds to their own special needs. (p.2)

Knowles (2014) suggests that there have been two important influences over English in its history as a result of the invasions and war in Britain, which essentially changed the language in several aspects (e.g., pronunciation, vocabulary). The first

[4] This included the replacement of Ottoman Turkish alphabet derived from Arabic alphabet and the adaptation of new Turkish alphabet derived from Latin alphabet on November 1, 1928.

influence seemed to start with the arrival of invaders and settlers coming from Norway and Denmark to Britain and their interaction with people already living there, especially the northern part of today's UK. Before emerging as the formal language of England, Knowles (2014) states that there was close contact between English and French for almost three centuries after the Norman Conquest (1066), which strongly influenced English and people living in Britain in many different ways, from social to economic. This era resulted in ''the large-scale borrowing into English of French words and expressions, and even grammar and other features of usage'' (Knowles, 2014, p. 55).

1.3.2 Higher Education and the educational contexts of Turkey and the UK

Although Turkish has long been used for literature, Turkish as a scientific language has not been recognised internationally, though in national contexts there are many publications produced for the local scientific community. This can be related to the low number of academics who use English as a publication language for international scientific communities. Based on the data taken from the Higher Education Council [5] (Yükseköğretim Kurulu, YÖK), there are 195 universities in Turkey with almost 280,000 [6] postgraduate students. As can be expected, most of the universities in Turkey use Turkish as the medium of education compared with some English medium universities (such as Boğaziçi University, ODTÜ, Bilkent Univerity and so on.) in Turkey. However, all universities have foreign language centers for teaching English to university students. Gönenç (2004) suggests that the education language in Turkey should be Turkish for higher education context as she believes that producing in a foreign language simply breaks the connection between language and thought. She also criticizes the attitude of YÖK (Higher Education Council) towards English (namely, not

[5] Retrieved from https://faaliyet.yok.gov.tr/KATALOG/raporlar/tumUnversitelereAitIletisimBilgileri.zul?raporTipi=xls on February 23, 2014; 13:58.
[6] Retrieved from http://osym.gov.tr/belge/1-19213/2012-2013-ogretim-yili-yuksekogretim-istatistikleri.html on February 23, 2014; 14:55.

promoting it as the language of science in Turkey) by diminishing the choice of Turkish for teaching/producing and promoting English in Higher Education.

According to the report of YÖK [7] regarding the number of publications in SCI, SSCI and AHCI indexes, 28,254 academic research papers were published in 131 Turkish universities in 2010, although the number of academics in these universities was 42,124 (0.65 publication per academic). This indicates that the number of scientific publications by Turkish academics is relatively low. The choice by Turkish academics to publish in Turkish journals can be explained by the simple facts that there are not many Turkish journals indexed in SCI, SSCI or AHCI, as noted by Asan (2006) an the YÖK (Higher Education Council) encourages Turkish academics to publish in international journals as a requirement for promotion. Not only does this require the researchers/academics publish in English but also the young or early career researchers/academics become aware of the fact that they will need to contribute the international stream of scientific knowledge. Thus, learning English as the medium of teaching and writing for academic purposes has prevailed in the last decade. Nevertheless, we may ask how successful the academics from Turkish universities have been in getting recognized in the international arena of science. Answering this question might involve examining the quality of text production by Turkish academics (including postgraduates) writing in English, as it is very possible to get rejected by reviewers due to the quality of language used in a research paper or book.

On the other hand, the number of staff working in UK universities and postgraduates (registered for master's degrees or doctorates) is far more than the number in Turkish universities. According to the Hesa report for the 2012/2013

[7] Retrieved from http://www.yok.gov.tr/documents/10279/13131/2010_yili_yayin_istatikleri/0713cb97-edb2-460f-8007-7c37df8d78bf on February 23, 2014; 18:35

academic year, there were 185,535[8] staff working part-time or full-time in UK universities and 536,440[9] postgraduates. According to the report of the UK Council for International Student Affairs[10], the number of international postgraduate students (non-UK domiciled) was approximately 200,000. This means that almost 38% of the postgraduates came from other parts of the world and required the academic institutions to educate them, being both novices and possibly unfamiliar with the rhetorical conventions in UK universities. Chamonikolasová (2005) stated that academic writing is integrated into the curriculum of universities in the UK, which results in a ‘‘high degree of clarity, consistency, and a logical formal layout’’ (p.78). That is why UK universities offer academic writing classes and courses to prepare international students (including European Union Students) to write essays, dissertations, research articles, and theses as a way of providing literacy education in English.

Such classes are also of great importance in terms of teaching students how to meet the expectations of the academics in the UK from different points of view. This might include how to sound more scientific and how to create more scientific prose, along with the linguistic standard. This is well described by Lillis and Turner (2001):

> When student texts match the academics’ expectations of what academic writing should be, i.e. when they match the institutionally embedded socio-rhetorical norms of scientific rationality, language remains invisible. When texts don’t match such expectations, as with the previous examples of definition, it is the student-writers’ language use that becomes the ‘problem’. (p.65)

Therefore, one of the main aims of the writing classes or centres in the UK is to decrease the chance of postgraduates not matching the rhetorical norms and linguistic expectations of their examiners. Based on my personal experience in the UK, I observed

[8] Retrieved from https://www.hesa.ac.uk/dox/dataTables/staff/download/staffinst1213.xlsx on February 26, 2014; 17.16
[9] Retrieved from https://www.hesa.ac.uk/content/view/1897/706/ on February 26, 2014; 17.15
[10] Retreieved from http://www.ukcisa.org.uk/Info-for-universities-colleges--schools/Policy-research--statistics/Research--statistics/International-students-in-UK-HE/#International-(non-UK)-students-in-UK-HE-in-2012-13 on March 8, 2014; 11.15

that even international postgraduates are asked to proofread their academic work before submitting it, in order to prevent linguistic and cross-cultural problems, no matter how scientific the outcome is. The outcome can be viewed as the linguistic and textual structure of what the writers represent as the information in their texts, by elaborating their arguments; making clear links between the claims and the evidence; favouring clarity at expressions. As a result, one might expect to find convergence of writing norms and practices even though some individual differences and cultural/linguistic writing variations will be tolerated as adding 'culture flavour' to texts.

Even the handbook and guidance that can be found on the websites of the UK universities aim to teach students how to write a successful academic text (i.e. assignments, essays, dissertations) from many aspects. The York Education Department handbook for master's students [11] not only provides crucial points regarding the voice and stance that novice writers are expected to adopt, but also offers a model for empirical research by assisting the postgraduates to produce a piece of academic work that is near to the expectations of the markers. For instance, the following extract clearly guides students regarding the particular use of personal pronouns to signal the presence of the writers:

> Avoid *we*, because it is often unclear who *we* refers to. You and your marker? You and a co-author? All educationalists? The whole world?
> It is also very bad style to refer to yourself as *we* – writers sometimes do it when they have problems with their research and they want to 'distance' themselves from it, saying in effect, 'Do not blame me for this result'.
>
> You can use *I* at several points, but make certain the sentence refers to something that you are responsible for, as a student and as the author of the assignment. Thus you could put ''I shall divide the argument into two main sections" (you could also write ''The argument is divided into two

[11] Retrieved from http://www.york.ac.uk/media/educationalstudies/documents/intranet-postgraduate/MA%20Student%20Guide%20to%20Assignments%20&%20Dissertation%202013-14.pdf on February 18, 2014; 14:10.

main sections"). (Department of Education: University of York, MA Student Guide to Assignments and the Dissertation 2013/14, p. 7)

From a contextual point of view, UK universities prepare their international students for the production of academic texts via the instruction given them in writing classes/centers, as the students are from a wide range of cultural and linguistic backgrounds and expected to produce in a language/context different from what they are used to. Nevertheless, the same does not seem to be the case in Turkey, and Turkish universities, for the postgraduate writers (producing in English) who are also expected to write in a language that is different from their mother tongue/culture as discussed in the following section.

1.3.3 Lack of guidance about dissertation writing in the Turkish context for Turkish and English

Although the number of academic works produced in Turkish is not as high as the academic research produced in English, there are academics and postgraduates who produce in their mother tongue to express themselves better, or due to the specific requirement by the department, asking for Turkish publications. No matter what language they are using, it could be quite challenging for postgraduates to produce their dissertations or other academic texts, as most are doing this for the first time in their academic lives. Therefore, postgraduates might need to be guided as to how they can adopt an acceptable style and voice in their academic work. Based on the guidelines found in some of the Turkish universities (e.g., Boğaziçi University[12], ODTÜ), postgraduates are rarely given recommendation about how they can create their academic voice, although they are given many instructions in the form of manuals about the presentation of dissertations (such as how to format margins, spacing, preliminary pages and so on). For instance, the following extract retrieved from the manual created

[12] Retrieved from http://www.sbegraduatethesisoffice.boun.edu.tr/styleguideindex.html on February 24, 2014; 13.05

for the postgraduates in the Social Sciences in ODTU [13] (one of the famous Turkish universities) says very little about the style postgraduates are supposed to adopt, and it was the only suggestion regarding particular uses of academic language in the manual:

> Hence it should be written in a formal style appropriate to the discipline (e.g., passive voice, impersonal style) (p.20).

The most important stylistic feature that postgraduates are expected to follow seems to be passive voice, for the sake of formality and objectivity. This suggestion is also reinforced in some of the complementary materials (see Kartalcik & Bulgurcu, 2012) to indicate how scientific texts should be produced in terms of the academic style. Kartalcik and Bulgurcu (2012) suggest that academic voice and style in Turkish scientific texts should be clear and smooth, as well as making use of a more impersonal style via the passive voice or third person plural constructions, such as ‘‘elde edilen sonuç’’ or ‘‘elde ettiğimiz sonuç’’ (p.345). Is this a common feature of academic texts written by Turkish novices and experienced scholars? The answer will be explored throughout the thesis, as one of the phenomena examined here is how postgraduates represent their authorial presence in their texts.

There have not been many substantial studies looking at how novice or experienced Turkish writers build their academic texts in comparison with other academic writers. Nevertheless, such studies are essential in identifying the interactive characteristics of the texts produced by Turkish scholars in order to come up with the systematic means of creating knowledge claims and meeting the expectations of their readers. Although the thesis has the general aim of examining some rhetorical choices of postgraduates from different contexts, the most specific aim is to investigate the tendencies of interlanguage (Turkish writers of English) users who are Turkish, but who write in English. It is hypothesised that Turkish culture, language and science in might

[13] Retrieved from http://sbe.metu.edu.tr/thesis-manual on February 23, 2014; 19:06.

have an impact on how they build their texts as novice writers. Focusing on interlanguage users does not necessarily mean that the choices made by Turkish L1 and English L1 postgraduates are not worth examining. On the contrary, studying native speakers of Turkish and English would shed light on the tendencies of Turkish writers of English, as EL2 writers are simply connected to others via culture (Turkish) and language (English as target language) variables. That can be supported with the best known rhetorical study in the field by Kaplan (1966), according to whom the features of any expository prose are shaped and organised via the components of any language or cultural ingredients, as well as by the requirements of the relevant discourse community. So, adopting a more professional and academic style could be very challenging for postgraduate writers without explicit instruction or self-development with respect to achieving the communicative functions of the scientific discourse in a way expected by markers or the intended audience.

The next section briefly explains the methodological steps taken in the research that will be detailed in Chapter 3.

1.4 Introduction to the methodology of the research

The present research takes an exploratory and comparative approach towards identifying the linguistic realisations of Commitment-Detachment and Authorial Presence in postgraduate academic writing. The method consisted of 8 major steps as illustrated in Figure 1 (see Chapter 3) and summarised below:

A sample of master's dissertations by Turkish L1, Turkish writers of English and English L1 postgraduates was collected via personal contacts, online databases (i.e. Turkish Thesis Centre, White Rose eTheses Online); the discussion sections of these dissertations were then taken for the analyses. 90 discussion sections (30 from each group) were converted into text files to be processed by the analysis software. In order

to compile list of linguistic resources from sample texts and see how the phenomena are used by novice writers, a pilot study was carried out using Nvivo 9. After identifying the items, the dimension of Commitment-Detachment and Authorial Presence and some of the discourse functions accomplished in the discussion sections, second coders were invited to take part in a test of intercoder reliability. That was followed by the main analyses via WordSmith Tools 5.0 and identification of the linguistic evidence from the corpus on how the postgraduate writers expressed their certainty and doubt as well as authorial references in their discussion sections. The statistical analyses (Kruskal Wallis and Mann Whitney U tests) were the next procedures before I compared the results of the groups quantitatively and qualitatively.

As the textual analyses of how the postgraduates qualified their commitment or detachment towards their knowledge claims and how they took on rhetorical roles in their Discussion sections included a process of identifying items, describing them and comparing the frequencies across groups, the findings were mostly presented as similarities and differences across groups. The variables (language: Turkish vs English and culture: Turkish vs. English) that separated the groups were then used in attributing the similarities and differences in the academic writing practices of novice writers (see Discussion parts in Chapters 4 and 5).

The next section presents the significance of the research by signalling the niche that is attempted to fill in throughout the thesis.

1.5 Significance of the research

A range of studies have looked at linguistic items signalling metadiscourse functions in different genres and contexts to address the writing practices and similarities or differences across writer groups/academic communities. Nevertheless, most of the research has focused on the texts of experienced academic writers, or compared student

writing with professional academic writing by experienced researchers and ignored the question of genre. On the other hand, some researchers have investigated the individual items of metadiscourse concepts across different cultures and languages, as in the present research, to illustrate how rhetorical choices vary in different discourse communities (in the sense of language or culture) to contribute the contrastive rhetoric research. To date, the effect of language and culture on the rhetorical choices of novice writers has not been investigated in detail.

Considering the fact that master's students are likely to have very little experience in producing academic texts to conform to the accepted practices in the discourse community they are in, such an exploratory and comparative study would fill the niche of modelling postgraduate academic writing for inexperienced students from the selected contexts. Therefore, the present study can make a significant contribution to expressing commitment-detachment and signalling authorial presence in academic writing of postgraduates, and fill the research gap mentioned above.

Using the authentic texts of Turkish (TL1 and EL2) and British (EL1) postgraduates and applying the methodological steps mentioned in the previous section, my major aim is to address the similarities and differences across the three groups regarding their rhetorical choices. In terms of the methodological decisions made in the research, an empirical approach is followed throughout the analyses. The interreliablity test was a useful check on the coding of the linguistic realisations of both commitment-detachment and authorial presence, and using two different statistical analyses to confirm the significance of differences across three groups in the research made the results more robust and increased the credibility of the generalisations.

Due to the importance of the concepts and the potential needs of postgraduate writers, it is also anticipated that the exploratory findings of the present research can be integrated into designing academic writing materials and classes for the future

postgraduates. This will help the future postgraduates adapt to a recognised academic style that is evidenced and represented by numerous samples in the present dataset. In addition, these novice writers can develop their awareness of how to express their commitment-detachment and signal authorial presence.

The following section is devoted to the general organisation and the structure of the thesis.

1.6 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis has six main chapters. The introduction chapter serves an introduction to the research field and research itself. The subsequent chapter (Chapter 2) focuses on a range of crucial points where I attempt to explain the connections among commitment-detachment and authorial presence in academic writing, rhetoric, and contrastive analysis. The literature chapter also includes evaluations of some of the studies found in the literature that help to definine the terms and report similar research for each of the concepts carried out in different contexts with different data. The third chapter introduces two of the research questions of the present research and deals with the methodological considerations, procedures and the analytical framework that arised from the pilot study. The methodology chapter also draws attention to the features of the present corpus, how the corpus was built and analysed through a combination of different tools and approaches.

After the detailed presentation of the research methodology and how the analyses will be carried out, Chapter 4 contains the quantitative and qualitative results and discussion about the first topic of the research (Commitment-Detachment across postgraduate academic texts) as well as giving the responses to the Research Question 1. The subsequent chapter, Chapter 5, compares and contrasts the quantitative and qualitative results of the corpus analyses regarding the rhetorical choices on authorial

presence in postgraduate academic texts and responses the second research question. Finally, Chapter 6 concludes by pulling together some key points of the comparative corpus analyses of the postgraduate texts and summarising the findings across groups which is also illustrated visually. This is followed by the contribution, limitations and implications of the thesis, and by suggestions offered to future researchers who wish to undertake similar studies to look at the rhetorical choices and academic discourse practices of postgraduates using a comparative approach.

Chapter 2
Literature review

2.1 Importance of expressing commitment-detachment and related concepts

Recent changes in academic knowledge construction have brought a growing consciousness of the fact that different genres and practices of academic discourse require writers of specific discourse communities to follow new strategies to engage and present knowledge in the ways accepted in the communities concerned. That includes (1) the writer's assessment of the truth about the knowledge displayed, flagging the degree of commitment-detachment the writer has towards the propositions and (2) how authorial voice is constructed. Different ways of interacting with readers and positioning the writer as the creator of the knowledge exist, such as explicit reference to the owner of the opinion as the arguer vs. asserting propositions without referring to the owner.

How the writer expresses his viewpoints with differential control over the force of propositions in the discourse has long been a topic for research. Such ways have been labelled differently by different researchers in the field. For instance, the term 'evaluation' has been used in a broad sense by Hunston and Thompson (2000) to name the expressions whereby a writer displays his/her attitudes, judgements, and beliefs and. Evaluative elements such as *modality markers* (Stubbs, 1996); expressions to build relationships with the intended audience, and display the writer's *stance* (Silver, 2003) in academic discourse make it possible for writers to express their degree of confidence over the statements, attitudes, judgements, and beliefs towards the propositions presented with subjective or epistemic certainty.

Expressing commitment-detachment can be described as the personal alignment of language users towards the truthfulness of explicitly qualified and encoded propositions. These propositions may not only include the information that the writer

intended to convey but also how it is packaged and wanted to be comprehended, such as a particular emphasised idea or a softened claim with various degrees of commitment-detachment. For instance, the example below given by Kockelman (2004) about a counterfactual clitic *raj* in the Q'eqchi' language (spoken in Guatemala) simply highlights the speaker's degree of commitment to the truth of her proposition at the time of speech by referring to another world due to an incomplete action and based on her observation so far.

(1) Xten raj li roq' laj Maynor. (Maynor would have hit his (anthropologist's) foot) (Kockelman, 2004, p.127)

What the speaker of this sentence attempts to express to the audience is manifold and relates to the fact that Maynor's action has not happened in this world yet (as apart from 'Maynor actually hit his foot'), such as the intention of Maynor, Maynor's attempts to do something, the probability of Maynor's action, and the possibility of Maynor's action hitting the anthropologist's foot. As the utterance includes the (un)certainty of the speaker due to manifold interpretive nature of the proposition, the personal commitment that the speaker has to her proposition is signalled with a counterfactual linguistic item and with a lower degree in that language. Therefore, the speaker modified her proposition-while she was observing Maynor and before Maynor actually hit the anthropologist's foot-and achieved building a social relationship with the audience, who were the mother of three year old Maynor and anthropologist. According to Kockelman (2004)[14], based on the proposition of the speaker Maynor hit the anthropologist's foot in another world but not in the one where the speaking occurred. By including speaker's commitment to the truth of the proposition via the modification over its illocutionary force, she not only informed the mother in the

[14] Kockelman (2004) argued that ''with the counterfactual clitic, however, she signals that she is committed to the truth of the narrated event in a world other than that of the speech event. In effect, she says, "In another world (but not in this one), Maynor hit the anthropologist's foot."'' (p.127)

context about what Maynor was about to do but warned the anthropologist to move his foot from the place it was situated.

Holmes (1984) points out that such modification of the illocutionary forces of the propositions could be signalled with a variety of linguistic resources as well as paralinguistic features, such as facial expressions, or gestures. These features and linguistic resources can include various degrees of certainty and doubt, which have an impact on the display of the user's commitment-detachment in his propositions. The scale used by Holmes (1984) to explain certainty and doubt in English has been a milestone for a range of researchers in the field. It has been extended by Rubin, Liddy and Kando (2006) and different dimensions, such as perspective, focus and time, have been added to explore certainty in English. Such studies help us to identify how certainty and doubt can be controlled to various degrees and show how strongly the writer is committing himself/herself to the truth or falsity of his/her propositions. This can be related to the conscious decision of the writers in the texts signalled via a range of linguistic items and resulting in creating a writer-reader communication. In order to explore commitment-detachment in academic texts, it is initially crucial to understand the nature of certainty and doubt and related concepts (see 2.7).

2.2 The role of construction of authorial presence in academic writing

Researchers in academic writing have mostly focused on stance markers as a complex concept and show the importance of stance in building academic prose in different fields and genres in recent years. Conrad and Biber's (2000) conception of stance includes personal assessment of the reliability and accuracy level of the propositions that the writer introduces to his audiences. In other words, stance is also conveyed by the epistemic status of what the writer asserts and this allows the shades of meaning within the propositions to be seen more explicitly, and creates different styles for the

writer to use in his/her writing, e.g., a more distant style with detachment, or a more personal style with commitment or his/her authorial presence.

Martin and White's (2005) theory approached stance from the evaluative and analytical point of view with a focus on intersubjective positioning. Their theory is mainly concerned with the feelings and values shared between discourse participants, (i.e. writers/speakers and readers/listeners), as the writer/speaker develops his/her stance not only towards the text but also towards the reader/listener. In this theory, there are three major components each with a range of sub-components of expressing writer/speaker's opinion, based on appraisal: Engagement, Attitude and Graduation. Broadly, Engagement is concerned with establishing the opinion and leaving space for other voices; Attitude deals with coding and evaluating the expressions of positive and negative feelings expressed in the text; Graduation is about strengthening or weakening a particular attitude. As Martin and White (2005) suggested, appraisal is interrelated with discourse semantics and its application requires a very detailed analysis within the discourse at the word and phrase levels. Although my study also looks at stance, appraisal theory has not been employed for two main reasons. The first relates to the relatively large size of the corpus used, which makes a discourse-semantic approach hard to apply. The second is due to the fact that the present research is also dealing with Turkish texts, whereas the Appraisal theory to date only offers a framework for exploring evaluative items in English.

Recent studies in academic writing indicate that it is not purely impersonal or perceived in that way (Hyland 2002a; Starfield & Ravelli, 2006). The writer's presence in the text could be seen either explicitly, via personal pronouns, resulting in a subjective representation (e.g., *I claim that*) or less explicitly, resulting in a more impersonal presentation by not referring to oneself as the originator of the propositions (e.g., *It is concluded that*). In the latter case, the use of impersonal forms (like passive

structures or element-prominent cases[15]) tends to make the writer seem more distant from what he is presenting. Thompson and Ye (1991) pointed out that even the conscious choice of voice enables writers to reveal their stance. Therefore, a writer may choose to build his personal persona of competence or authorial presence strategically, (favouring explicit or implicit presence), to create a more subjective or objective tenor. The ways in which the writer constructs a credible image of decisiveness will be classified as under the term of *authorial presence* referring to the construction of the writer's voice and achieving some discourse functions via explicit and implicit forms.

As Bitchener and Basturkmen (2006) found, student writers might have some difficulty in accomplishing the requirements of the dissertation genre, especially in discussions of results. Such perceptional difficulties might be triggered and extended via the lack of awareness of the stylistic requirements of their dissertations. From this perspective, signalling authorial presence as a part of expressing stance is highly relevant for developing lines of argument in scientific texts. Considering the fact that master's dissertations are the very first academic work that most postgraduate writers produce as novice researchers, they need to be very well informed about the expectations of the examiners and the academic community they are writing for. Nevertheless, as stated in Section 1.3, it seems that Turkish context does not provide enough guidance (as mentioned in Section 1.3) for postgraduate writers to transition to being an academic or contributing to the academic literature.

2.3 Postgraduate writers: Transition

The construction of academic texts has been researched in academia from different perspectives and with different focuses, such as reporting practices, citation practices, or engagement practices. The practices of expert writers in different discourse

[15] In the present study, the element-prominent constructions refer to the cases where the subject of the sentence is replaced by entities that are non-human such as *findings, results,* and *data*.

communities have been compared or contrastive analyses of different languages and users from different contexts have been carried out.

As Hood (2004) described, evaluative stance relates to how a writer dynamically establishes his own ideas and argument throughout the text with convenient and critical use of interpersonal resources indicating writer's confidence about the sentences or letting readers consider other possibilities about what is conveyed. One might expect expert writers to achieve such interpersonal relations within their academic texts for a successful writer-reader communication, but the situation may not be the same for novice researchers, no matter how expert they may be in academic language use, as this could differ depending on the genre they are writing (e.g., essays, articles, or dissertations). The context of postgraduate (master's) students provides a stage of transition between features of undergraduate-level literacy and characteristics of expert academic practices. One of the central roles of contributing to academic literacy requires them to adapt their previous literacy into the expected and approved discourse conventions and practices in their discourse community in order to meet the expectations of the markers.

In the English educational contexts, a range of EAP programmes are offered to support postgraduates, especially for non-native speakers of English, and assist them in acquiring disciplinary or genre-specific practices as mentioned in Section 1.3.2. Thus, postgraduates are given the chance of enhancing their engagement with academic knowledge and learning how to construct and present it in their texts. As postgraduates progress to complete their degrees, they are generally expected to write a report or dissertation to make a contribution to the discourse community they are in. Therefore, as provisional members of the academic community, they carry out their research for the completion of their degree and contribute to existing literature by building up new knowledge from their perspectives and contexts.

The final product of postgraduates is the focus of the present research; it is important to investigate the specific practices of postgraduates because they are the 'next generation' scientists of their communities, to which they will bring some changes as they develop their careers. As the academic practices or discourse conventions of any community depend on the practices of the people in it, it takes some time for any particular change to become acceptable and widespread in this community (e.g., research article conventions in 1970s vs. 2010s). Hence, the potential future changes, the next generations in academia might bring, in a discourse community will presumably characterise new academic writing traditions as the language in use will also evolve. That is to say, on the one hand, the new generations (as postgraduates) will adapt their own literacy practices to be accepted in the community; on the other hand, they potentially have their influences on the new literacy practices and harmonise what they know and how they are expected to do it.

2.4 Discourse, corpus-informed analysis and rhetoric in written academic discourse

2.4.1 Definition of discourse

Before dealing with corpus-informed discourse analysis and rhetoric in written academic discourse, it is of great importance to define what discourse is. Cook (1989) defined discourse as 'language in use' with the purpose of communicating with other participants (p.6). In other words, as long as the participants accomplish communication through the use of language, no matter how short/long or (un)grammatical it may be, that is discourse. Although Cook (1989) regards the traditional way of categorising language into just two major parts (spoken and written) as crude since such a categorisation would hide the distinction between one-way (lecture) and two-way (conversation) interaction in speech. However, as this does not relate to writing, where a writer produces texts and conveys meaning before the reader starts interacting with the

texts. There is clearly lack of some features of spoken discourse whereby the listener can also grasp the meaning through gestures, body language, or the listener might even request clarification of what is meant during the interaction. Therefore, the duty the writer has is complicated. Not only does s/he produce meaningful stretches of language, but also s/he makes sure s/he effectively transfers what is meant and engages with the reader.

2.4.2 Corpus-informed discourse analysis

Gee (2011) argues that Discourse Analysis is mostly concerned with generating hypotheses which can be explored in empirical studies to support/reject the hypotheses based on evidence from data. That is mostly achieved by taking a qualitative approach towards exploring and analysing the context. On the other hand, Corpus Linguistics attempts to use computers and related tools to investigate spoken or written domains of language in use. In relation to Discourse Analysis and Corpus Linguistics, Hyland (2009) simply states:

> Corpora and discourse approaches are perfect bedfellows. While they are two aspects of applied linguistics which have not always had a lot to do with one another, they are increasingly seen as complementary approaches which can inform and enrich each other, thereby leading to more insightful analyses of language use. (p.110)

King (in press) combines the two and defines 'Corpus-assisted discourse analysis' as a crucial approach for digital practices by employing software tools to quantify the lexical markers investigated within a particular context. For example, in King (2009), he built a corpus to investigate the lexical choices of users concerning 'sex' and 'sex talk' in queer chat-rooms and employed a qualitative discourse analysis approach enhanced with quantitative corpus analysis. The qualitative and in-depth analysis of the concordance lines or occurrences in the corpus helped the researcher to explore kinds of sexual practices referred by the participants during their chats. This

approach increased the chance of identifying and determining tokens and collocations while analysing the context within which the relevant lexical markers occurred. Regarding the proportion of corpus approach to discourse analysis, King (2009) also suggested that by spending some more time and effort on the aim of his study, while quantifying the lexical markers, it is possible to obtain a critical insight on the sexual practices of the participants via finding 'the who', 'the when' and 'the how often' in these chat-rooms.

Conrad (2002) pointed out that a corpus linguistic approach to investigate any functions of language in use can allow a multi-examination of different phenomena within the discourse. However, there are some important aspects in designing a corpus in order to assess the target feature in the context and gain insights about language in use. When the corpus under investigation is very well designed, looking at aspects ranging from the size of the corpus to the type of the texts (see Section 3.3 for more information), it will be more reliable investigate any individual or community practices in a specific domain of language evidenced by the real-life examples from the corpus. Baker et al. (2008) also suggested that an integration of these two approaches enabled them to quantify the qualitative findings and interpret the quantitative findings with the help of relevant theory.

Therefore, integrating corpus linguistics into discourse analysis, or vice versa, in order to make use of large collections of authentic data, can make field researchers access and evaluate contextual information affecting the language choices of users and reach generalizable results. As one of the main aims of the present research is to contribute to our understanding of postgraduate academic discourse with a focus on a specific genre, applying both quantitative and qualitative approaches, combining corpus linguistics and discourse analysis, is important if one is to explore the rhetorical choices of novice writers in building interactional relations in their texts.

2.4.3 Interpersonal relations in written academic discourse and rhetoric

Researchers have carried out many studies on written discourse in order to examine written discourse-based features, such as interaction between reader and writer, and how interpersonal relations are achieved. Hyland (2005) argues the significance of writing in the lives of people in different contexts and points out that ‘‘writing is central to our personal experience and social identities’’ (p.6). In his (2005) book, for example, Hyland explores how academic writing represents writers’ personal experiences and social identities through employing metadiscourse devices consisting of a range of rhetorical choices of linguistic strategies. As one of the rhetorical strategies of written academic discourse, Meyer (1997) investigated the concept of hedging by differentiating its role in spoken and written communication. Even though in oral communication, the use of hedging is often regarded as a ‘‘powerless speech style’’, hedging can have a more ‘‘strengthening the argument’’ nature (Meyer, 1997, p.21). From this perspective, there are clearly different uses of language and items in spoken and written discourse, but as academic writing is the major emphasis of the present study; I shall concentrate on written academic discourse conventions and refer to writers as the ‘producers of the discourse’ who are the postgraduates, and readers as the ‘intended audience’ who are examiners of the dissertations or other academics/postgraduates. Although the dissertations are produced to meet the expectations of the examiners in the first place, the audience could be extended to other people after the dissertations are successful and become publicly available.

Beaugrande (1997) points to three main disciplines related to language, namely *grammar*, *rhetoric* and *logic*. The discipline of grammar is concerned with language, since it focuses on ‘‘the organisation of a language in terms of form, pattern, and rules’’ (p. 22). Rhetoric was identified as dealing with how ‘‘to teach active and public skills’’ as the rhetoricians consider language as ‘‘an armory of discourse strategies for practical

goals'' (Beaugrande, 1997, p.23). In other words, the major issue with rhetoric is using language as a tool to persuade other discourse participants. The last discipline relating to language is logic, which is, according to Beaugrande (1997), ''constructing proofs on certain and objective premises rather than uncertain and subjective premises of rhetoric'' (p.24). However, Kaplan (1966) remarks that logic is the basis of rhetoric and both have non-universal features; although rhetoric has variations from culture to culture, logic develops and remains culture-free. Turning back to the main aim of rhetoric, writers choose different rhetorical strategies in academic discourse to persuade their intended audience, in the sense that they 'discuss' the truthfulness of what is asserted with a system of principles, logic.

The three important elements of persuasion in academic discourse are *ethos, pathos* and *logos* (Hyland, 2005), and Hyland described the relationship between these elements of persuasion and metadiscourse (see 2.6 for metadiscourse) as follows:

> [w]e can see metadiscourse projecting the rational appeals of *Logos* when it explicitly links elements of the argument; it conveys an *Ethos* where it refers to the writer's authority and competence; and it relates to *Pathos* when it signals respect for the readers' viewpoint or that the message has direct relevance to the audience (p.65)

The credibility that the author might have prior to the research s/he carries out is reflected or established in the discourse, which is *ethos*. The author's consideration of the intended audience from different angles, such as background, level of education, or community is related to *pathos*. The last element, *logos*, indicates the style of persuasive argument supported with evidence and reasoning. These elements occasionally occur together in the texts for the purpose of persuading the reader by carrying out a careful selection of language use and forms to demonstrate that something has the potential to be true. All in all, then, rhetoric is defined as the discoursal practice of convincing readers (Hyland, 2005).

In order to start persuading readers, one needs to appeal to readers through the argument within the discourse. Such a way of appealing to readers is displayed by demonstrating the relationship between the rationale for and evidence for ideas or arguments through the academic prose developed by the author. In other words, the 'filters' the author uses, such as evaluating, interpreting, or claiming to convey his/her own ideas persuasively form the author's representation of what the issue/argument is from his/her perspective, with the proofs obtained through experiments or observations in the real world. This also signals the feature of academic writing gaining a subjective and personal nature as stated previously. Hyland (2005) puts the relationship between academic discourse and rhetoric another way:

> [a]cademics do not simply produce texts that plausibly represent an external reality, but use language to acknowledge, construct and negotiate social relations. This involves metadiscourse and the rhetorical construction of a convincing writer with something interesting and plausible to say. Writers seek to offer a credible representation of themselves and their work by claiming solidarity with readers, evaluating their material and acknowledging alternative views, so that controlling the level of personality in a text becomes central to building a convincing argument (p.66)

As argued by Kaplan (1966), different communities have different rhetorical styles and practices depending on their cultural characteristics or linguistic choices. For instance, Hinds (1987) suggested that the responsibility for creating effective communication belongs to the writer in some languages (like English) whereas it is the reader in some other languages (e.g., Japanese) who needs to make the connections and links between topics, arguments, or ideas and is responsible for digging out the meaning from the texts. Another example comes from Vassilieva's (2001) study (discussed in 2.7.4.3.), although Bulgarian writers produce in English, they still devote themselves to a Bulgarian style of academic writing and commit themselves to their propositions as strongly as possible. It could be argued that although writers perform their writing in a different language, they tend to follow their native language rhetorical style as in

Vassilieva's (2001) study. Some early studies investigated that phenomenon of L1-L2 writing transfer by comparing English texts written by natives and non-natives. The assumption behind such studies was to pin down distinctive language forms or practices occurring with the non-native speakers to attribute them to potential transfer from the mother tongue, which was out of the research scope in their studies. However, as Hinds (1983) pointed out, such distinctive occurrences may not stem only from negative L1 transfer in the target language, and therefore it is crucial to examine the rhetorical choices of the mother tongue of non-native speakers of English. In addition, Adel (2006) highlighted that the texts from L1s (Swedish and English in her case) are needed to be able to make valid inferences about the writing of L2 (Swedish writers of English) writers. That is why the present research aimed at investigating the writing of the postgraduates with a three way comparison: Turkish (L1), English (L1) and English (L2 by Turkish postgraduates). Such a contrastive perspective can increase the chances of linking the distinctive features specific to a group of writers to the analysis of culturally (i.e. TL1 & EL2) or linguistically (i.e. EL1 & EL2) identical groups.

2.5 Contrastive analysis perspective on academic discourse

Contrastive Rhetoric (CR hereafter) is the field of research which attempts to clarify the conventions and traditions of different writers through the concept of culture. Kaplan (2000) explains the potential achievement of CR as the identification of ''differences between languages in rhetorical preferences'' (p. 84). Atkinson (2004) points out that CR has three compound elements which are combined: writing; learning and using the target language; and culture. In other words, as Connor (1996) notes, the exclusive rhetorical traditions and conventions of every language could be regarded as a cultural phenomenon consisting of two major ingredients, language and writing. This simply stresses the main interest of CR studies since Kaplan (1966), as his study was a

prominent research in drawing other researchers' attention to effects of culture and L1 transfer, which might not meet the expectations of the target reader.

However, due to the complexity of explaining culture in a concise packaged way, there are different views about it. Atkinson's (2004) study introduced three major perspectives on culture: received, post-modern, and cultural studies. The first (received) includes the notion of observing culture in a more traditional way, whereby diversity in the world is attributed to the culture that different groups have. Thus, Connor (1996) defined culture as ''a set of patterns and rules shared by a particular community'' (p.101). This definition is in line with the received culture view of Atkinson (1999, 2004) and basis of the assumptions made by early CR researchers, as stated in 2.4. Nevertheless, since then, transfer from the L1 has not been regarded as the only explanation for the distinctive features of L1 and L2 writing by the same group of writers. Other attributions could include educational background, genre variations, and community-based conventions. Thus, as pointed by Connor (2002), CR is currently more open to 'intercultural' issues. This is mostly due to a move from the definition of culture in a broad sense, towards presenting it in a more detailed way, using key concepts such as *identity* and *difference* (Atkinson, 1999, p. 625). Atkinson's (1999) work contributed to enlighten this issue by making two main views towards explaining cultures clearly distinguished: (1) *conceiving culture,* which is an unvarying concept with geographical and national boundaries across the world constitutes the received culture view; and (2) a *postmodernist perspective on culture* (implying alternative or nonstandard views), which appeared after the critiques of the traditional view and other concepts (such as identity, power, and resistance) gained popularity and acceptance. Supporting this with Hyland's (2005) argument, it is important to note that even there can be marked individual differences between people from the same geographical or national contexts. Additionally, people may not be following cultural conventions due

to the fact that identities come into being as a result of individual experiences based on language and culture. In line with this, Connor (2004) comes up with a recent term of *intercultural rhetoric* in order to highlight the interactions of 'small' cultures (e.g., classroom culture, disciplinary culture, or youth culture) with the national culture, which can lead to the investigation of contexts in addition to the texts of writers.

Such investigations which stress contextual factors, as compared with text analysis and genre analysis from contrastive perspectives, result in individual ethnographic and case studies. However, as suggested by Hyland (2000), it is still necessary to examine a large number of texts to find out the conventional ways of producing texts in a specific group of people who constitute a kind of community. Therefore, as previously stated, this study has a contrastive perspective of postgraduate academic writing with a reasonably large number of texts; and investigates how the writers produce persuasive and effective pieces of writing by reflecting a degree of commitment-detachment and authorial presence in their discourses, and differ from one another. Since the phenomenon under investigation in the present study has a direct relationship with rhetoric in organising a communicative and successful text to persuade an intended audience, the related concept of metadiscourse is also of great importance in this study.

2.6 Metadiscourse in academic writing

Building upon Williams' (1981) definition, Vande Kopple (1985) described metadiscourse as ''discourse about discourse or communication about communication'' and added a new perspective to interaction between discourse participants (p.83). Vande Kopple (1985) also stressed two levels of discourse where the language users ''expand propositional content'' and ''help our readers organize, classify, interpret, evaluate and react'' to the propositional content (p.83). Hyland's (2005) contribution to the concept of metadiscourse was to treat ''communication as a social engagement'' (p.4). In other

words, while communication takes place, the social engagement between participants (speaker-listener/writer-reader) become explicit through the second level of discourse as described above. In fact, what Hyland (2005) suggested reveals the function and importance of metadiscourse within discourse:

> Removing these metadiscourse features would make the passage much less personal, less interesting and less easy to follow. By offering a way of looking at these features systematically, metadiscourse provides us with access to the ways that writers and speakers take up positions and align themselves with their readers in a particular context. (p.4)

The functions of metadiscourse have mostly been related to Halliday's (1973) classification of the metafunctions of language; namely, Ideational, Interpersonal, and Textual. The first category could be explained by the primary level discourse, which conveys propositional content what language user produces, whereas the Textual and Interpersonal functions are widely agreed to constitute the base of metadiscourse as featuring in the second level of the discourse. At this point, it is worth giving some examples to illustrate the functions of metadiscourse in the secondary discourse:

(2) Harmison returns to the attack, <u>but</u> he overpitches. (Hyland, 2005, p.42)

(3) <u>Of course</u>, these survey findings provided a more objective and independent perspective on police performance. (Hyland, 2005, p.43)

(4) The poor market performance <u>could be</u> due to customers switching to alternative on-line sources for their groceries. (Hyland, 2005, p.48)

(5) <u>We</u> can clearly see this in the case of animals with simple habits. (Hyland, 2005, p.71)

The examples above demonstrate how interpersonal aspects of discourse are achieved by writers in different ways. For instance, (2) has the linguistic device *but* (transition) functioning as the signal of the relation (contrastive) between two different sentences Example (3) marks the writer's confidence in the proposition following the underlined linguistic device (*of course*) to boost what is meant, whereas the hedging device (*could*) in (4) clearly shows the writer's consideration of other possibilities but

expresses only one of them. The writer in (5) makes him/herself equal with the intended audience as discourse participant via the use of *inclusive* personal pronoun 'we' in his/her discourse.

From the point of view of producing to persuade readers, the writers are conveying their degree of commitment towards what they propose in (3) and (4) explicitly through boosters and hedges respectively. Whereas example (3) adopts a style of reassurance to gain the acceptance of the reader, (4) simply opens a dialogue between writer and reader to show that the writer is assessing potential reasons for poor market performance and relating ''alternative on-line sources'' tentatively to it. These propositions still need the acceptance and confirmation of the readers, but the propositional contents are ''made coherent, intelligible and persuasive to a particular audience'' (Hyland, 2005, p.39). In other words, rhetoric is employed to accomplish interpersonal relations and get the reader to accept the writer's assertion.

One of the most comprehensive and recent taxonomies of metadiscourse is Hyland and Tse's (2004) framework. Treating metadiscourse with two clearly distinguished categories borrowed from Thompson (2001), *interactive* and *interactional* metadiscourse, Hyland and Tse (2004) showed how the interpersonal dimension of academic writing can be principled in a systematic way. Briefly, *interactive* resources refer to the devices that writers use to achieve a coherent and systematic organisation of the text. The subcategories in interactive dimension of metadiscourse include *Transitions, Frame Markers, Endophoric Markers, Evidentials* and *Code* Glosses. On the other hand, their *interactional* category of metadiscourse includes linguistic expressions which signal the writer's stance, engagement and attitude towards content material and the intended audience. The subcategories of that dimension include *Hedges, Boosters, Attitude Markers, Engagement Markers*, and *Self-mentions*. As the present study explores the degree of commitment-detachment and authorial presence in

academic texts, some of the concepts from the interactional dimension of Hyland and Tse's framework are particularly relevant: *Hedges, Boosters* and *Self-mentions*. The next two sections will focus on these concepts with some relevant studies.

2.7 Exploring the concepts of commitment-detachment through hedging and boosters in the literature

While structuring utterances in a written or spoken discourse, the producer qualifies his/her degree of commitment-detachment with an explicit linguistic expression in order to display his/her assessment of the truth of what is uttered. A range of terms have been used to refer to this issue of language in use such as 'epistemic modality', 'hedges and boosters', 'certainty markers', 'downtoners', and 'emphatics'. That is because there is a close connection between such concepts, as they signal a particular degree of commitment-detachment no matter how different functions they would have such as vagueness, tentativeness, uncertainty, or positive/negative politeness strategies. Aull and Lancaster (2014) stated that ''hedging and boosting allow writers to express more or less commitment to their claims, and they are regularly featured in research on academic stance'' (p.159). Therefore, it is feasible to investigate such interpersonal functions from the point of view of commitment, as each item can signal a noticeable degree of commitment. Lyons (1977) put it another way by using the term 'epistemic modality':

> Any utterance in which the speaker explicitly qualifies his *commitment* to the truth of the proposition expressed by the sentence he utters, whether this qualification is made explicit in the verbal component in the prosodic paralinguistic component, is an epistemically modal or modalized utterance. (p. 797) (my emphasis)

The examples below provide a straightforward clarification of what Lyons (1977) argued:

(6) The bird flu might spread if the infected birds are shedding the virus in their nasal secretions.

(7) It is clear that the bird flu will spread when the infected birds shed the virus in their nasal secretions.

The packaged information in the two context-free sentences is almost the same, except for the degree of commitment that the writers show towards the truthfulness status of the explicitly modified propositions. As claimed by Holmes (1982), it is better to mention the scale of certainty or degree of commitment-detachment as it is in this study while explaining such issues with a comparative approach. It is possible to arrive at different interpretations with the investigation of the discourse to which such sentences belong, and contextual factors could explain the choice of the writer instead of looking at context-free sentences to evaluate them. However, by looking at the linguistic resources signalling certainty/uncertainty, we can say that example (6) clearly demonstrates a linguistically modified (with a modal verb and conditional sentence) proposition signalling the writer's uncertainty or doubt based on his/her evidence. In other words, the assessment of the writer about the truthfulness status of the spread of bird flu is possible and signalled via *might*); other possible circumstances might also cause that spread. That is at least something that the intended audiences would come up with while reading this sentence, and exploit from the room left by the writer for their own interpretation. The encoded degree of commitment to spreading in (7) is definitely stronger than that of example (6). Example (7) simply displays a higher degree of certainty qualified with the expression '*it is clear that*'. These sentences would be placed into the 'Possible' and 'Certain' categories on the scale of certainty offered by Holmes (1982), as the degree of certainty asserted in the example (7) is ostensibly greater than that in example (6).

However, before investigating particular language uses, the terms of 'commitment' and 'detachment' need to be explored by the linguistic items (*might*, and *it is clear that*) and concepts (hedges and boosters) signalling different degrees of

commitment-detachment. That is because, according to Grabe and Kaplan (1997), these two concepts are tightly connected to each other, and it is quite hard to separate them. As an introduction to the concepts of commitment and detachment, how they are conceptionalised throughout the study can be briefly stated as:

Expressing a degree of commitment occurs when the author attempts to signal a confident voice of authority and indicate a higher level of certainty towards the truthfulness status of the propositions. This can also be regarded as reinforcement of the truth value with a boosting effect in the statements via a range of linguistic items that can also be classified as *boosters*.

On the other hand, *expressing a degree of detachment* occurs when the author withholds commitment so that a degree of doubt and hesitancy can be included in the presentation of the propositions. This can also be regarded as avoiding the presentation of definitive and factual knowledge claims, to open up the alternative voices for the reader's consideration. The linguistic items classified as *hedges* can be used for explicitly qualifying a degree of detachment from what is asserted.

The following sections describe the concepts of hedges and boosters in academic discourse resulting in commitment and detachment and discuss a range of substantial studies carried out in different contexts.

2.7.1 Definition and realization of hedging in written academic discourse

As a multi-faceted concept involving linguistic realisations of being vague and tentative towards propositions, hedging has been portrayed by Salager-Meyer (1994) as ''understatements used to convey (purposive) vagueness and tentativeness, and to make sentences more acceptable to the hearer/reader, thus increasing their chance of ratification and reducing the risk of negation'' (p.150). In other words, as Meyer (1997) points out, hedging is the strategy that language users employ to accomplish producing weaker claims in order not to be falsified. Skelton (1997) treated hedges from the point

of view of *mitigating responsibility* and *certainty* of commenting on what is being said. It could be argued that such linguistic expressions, when inserted into sentences, serve as modifiers of utterances to shield writers from the potential reactions of intended audiences towards the acceptability of the propositions. However, Vartalla (2001) emphasises that it is either uncertainty in expressing the truth status of the affair, or limitations of natural language in conceptualising the universe, which leads language users to employ hedging resources in their discourse:

> [t]hey may be seen to either increase or decrease the fuzziness of our conceptualizations of the universe because of either uncertainty regarding a given state of affairs or due to the limitations of natural language that render the correspondence between linguistic conceptualisations and the universe less than absolute. (p.34)

It is evident through literature about hedging and boosters that the former has received more attention than boosters. Although Grabe and Kaplan (1997) highlighted that the concepts are sometimes inseparable, some researchers from different contexts (primarily English and contrastive studies of native and non-native speakers) exploring different genres (like textbooks, research articles, or abstracts) intentionally focused on only the concept of hedging; examples are Atai & Sadr, 2006; Clemen 2002; Crompton 1997, 1998; Falahati, 2004; Hamamci 2007; Hyland 1994, 1996; Kranich 2011; Lewin, 2005; McLaren-Hankin, 2008; Nikula, 1997; Peterlin 2010; Resche, 2000; Salager-Meyer, 1994; Seskauskiene, 2008; Vartalla 1999, 2001. Some studies provided insightful information about the fact that hedges can have numerous functions in texts, like authorial caution (Vartalla, 1999), modesty of claims (Crompton, 1997; Hyland, 2005), or face-saving strategies (Myers, 1989). The definition of hedging by Hyland (2005) stresses the point which the present study explores, the concept of commitment as hedges ‘‘indicate the writer's decision to recognize alternative voices and viewpoints and so withhold complete commitment to a proposition’’ (p.52). Therefore, whatever the function of hedges in the context of use, the idea of restricting the degree of

commitment the writer has toward his/her propositions is considered as the main focus in my study. This is supported by Vartalla's (2001) study, which defines hedging in a broad sense as something by which one may indicate different degrees of less than full commitment to conceptualisation of the universe. In line with this argument, Crompton's (1997) test for a hedged proposition reflects the idea that hedging is more related to withholding degree of commitment rather than being used for different purposes, but limiting the author's commitment:

> Can the proposition be restated in such a way that it is not changed but that the author's commitment to it is greater than at present? If "yes", then the proposition is hedged. (The hedges are any language items in the original which would need to be changed to increase commitment). (p. 282)

In written academic discourse, as previously stated, the ratification of the claims by the intended audience, i.e. reviewers, dissertation markers, or interested readers, is crucial if the writers are to gain acceptability and credibility. Therefore, writers employ hedging resources and present their degree of commitment within their statements to a level of caution that they hope will be found acceptable.

2.7.2 Definition and realization of boosters in written academic discourse

Another communicative resource in written academic discourse is boosters which may be seen as the side of the same coin and having the inverse function of hedges. Hedges and boosters together contribute markedly to the presentation of scientific language with different effects on the persuasiveness and success of communication in written academic discourse. Compared with the effect of toning down attained by hedging resources, the way writers emphasise and strengthen the communicative force of a proposition with conviction shows how confident the writer is about asserting it. Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen (1993) saw boosters as 'certainty markers' and stated that hedges and boosters are closely connected to each other in signalling the degree of commitment writers have towards the propositions. However, the amount of

research on expressing full commitment in academic texts is rather less than that devoted to hedges. The notion of boosters is nevertheless of great importance in academic persuasion with an interpersonal function. There have been quite different labels used in order to refer to that phenomenon such as 'boosters' (Holmes, 1982), 'emphatics' (Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore 1989), 'certainty markers' (Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 1999) or 'intensifiers'.

Boosters enable writers to assert their propositions confidently enough to flag a high degree of commitment and create an effect of strong conviction by limiting and suppressing possibilities. Nevertheless, if the resulting texts always seem very manipulative, by restricting readers' consideration of other possibilities, does that allow the intended audience to ratify what the authors assert? This question could be asked in another way by highlighting the need to leave some space for the reader to accept or reject the idea presented by the author. Therefore, a contradiction might come out: seeming too manipulative, by strengthening the force and validity of the proposition via boosters, or seeming protective by weakening the claims due to doubt via hedges. Harwood (2003) argues that the written texts seeming manipulative need to be balanced or nuanced; otherwise, such a way of reaching the intended audience might bruise the relationship between writers and readers and not appeal to readers. In contrast, Myers (1989) argued that boosters help writers not only to intensify the force of the propositions but also to apply a positive politeness strategy. Hyland (1998a) supported the importance of such a strategy by building on Myers's view and pointing out that the writer's assessment of the truth can be presented with a presupposed consensus, establishing equality between readers and writers as a means of solidarity.

Although the concept of hedging and its linguistic realisations have been extensively researched from different perspectives, as mentioned in 2.7.1, research studies focusing solely on how writers boost their claims and signal high levels of

certainty are limited. Some of the very few studies investigating boosters by drawing the distinction line against hedges are Bondi, 2008; Heiniluoma 2008; Koutsantoni 2005; Vazquez & Giner, 2009. However, a range of studies have concentrated on hedges and boosters or doubt and certainty (e.g., Holmes, 1982, 1984; Hyland & Milton, 1997; Rubin 2010) by examining the concepts together or with other rhetorical items in metadiscourse studies (e.g., Abdi, 2002; Crismore, 1985; Crismore et al., 1993; Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010; Hyland & Tse 2004; Intaraprawat & Steffensen, 1995).

2.7.3 Certainty and doubt

In academic writing, it is vital for the writer to express a particular degree of certainty while presenting the propositions in order to construct interpersonal relations. Doing so not only identifies how strongly the writer wants to be aligned with the statements presented in the texts (commitment-detachment) but also makes it easier for readers to comprehend how reliable the claims are in terms of validity. Coates (1987) argues that epistemically-qualified expressions (e.g., *it is possible that, this might be, it is obvious that*) unveil degree of confidence and allow an assessment of the accuracy of the propositions delivered to readers, and that such modifications have a considerable effect on readers' assessment of the sentences. In other words, readers' understanding of the particular level of commitment of the writer while he produces the statements makes the overall text more apprehensible from the readers' perspective. This also makes considerable contribution to the exhibition of the writer's stance towards the argument.

Simon-Vandenbergen and Aijmer (2007) remark that epistemic modality, stance and evidentiality are interrelated so closely in marking how reliable a statement is and expressing less certainty than a bare assertion resulting in lower degree of commitment. As the novice writers of the community, the style postgraduates achieving in asserting their statements in their dissertations, to be accepted and confirmed by their markers, might not conform to expectations of the markers. The markers are already members of

a particular scientific discourse community and would like to see a style they are familiar with and which is accepted by the community. That is because, according to Myers (1990), the social structure of any scientific community has a great impact on the choices of a writer's style in that field, as the writer is expected to be constructing and negotiating knowledge in the way this community is familiar with. Examples of the choices that postgraduates need to make concern can be the author's persona, stance, citation practices, making clear points, creating a well-organised text, and the use of the literature. As student writers are novices and not yet full members of the community they are writing for, it could be quite difficult to acquire this skill of building interpersonal relationships through displays of stance up to an acceptable level.

When defining stance, Hyland (1999, 2008b) highlights the significance of *evidentiality*. This expresses how a writer shows his commitment to the truth of his propositions in order that he is able to negotiate new information with the readers using a more persuasive style. Therefore, it is of great importance to be able to control the degree of commitment explicitly in successful academic writing, and to promote global comprehension. The writer obtains a dialogical interaction with the intended audience either by expressing a high level of certainty (to make the statement free from doubt) or by scattering items expressing doubt (to enable him to put the claims by avoiding personal accountability). As one of aims of the academic texts is to persuade the readers, presenting some assessment with a sense of reassurance or complete definiteness helps the writer bring his readers closer to being convinced. Alternatively, the writer could make the statements seem less convincing and ask for readers' consideration of evidence for the acceptability of the statements, and this can be a more tentative approach which does include uncertainty itself. Either way, the writer needs to take a strategic approach to manipulating readers' understandings for interpersonal communication purposes.

Some of the crucial studies in line with the present study will be discussed in the following sections. However, it should be noted that there is a very limited number of research studies about how hedging and boosting are expressed in Turkish, or the concept of certainty and doubt. Therefore, I will rely on studies and concepts in English and attempt to build on them.

2.7.4 Studies about hedges, boosters and related concepts

2.7.4.1 Holmes 1982 and 1984

Two crucial studies carried out by Holmes in 1982 and 1984 exploredcertainty and doubt in the English language. She considered that expressing and interpreting modal meaning in English would be quite challenging for second language learners. Inspired by this, her first influential study accordingly proposed one of the earliest certainty categorisation models of language use. Her scale of certainty, based on a corpus of reasonably small (50,000 words) spoken and written materials, had three elements: Certain, Probable and Possible. In line with my study, these three degrees of certainty relate to the extent to which the user is committing him/herself to the truthfulness of what is asserted. Three examples by Holmes ostensibly explain her classification of user's commitment towards the propositions:

(8) There is no question that the economy is facing some serious problems. (Holmes, 1982, p. 12)

(9) I doubt that she is coming now. (Holmes, 1982, p. 14)

(10) They might keep them in that backroom. (Holmes, 1982, p. 14)

Different degrees of certainty are displayed by three writers along with their statements. Example (8) demonstrates a higher degree of commitment than (9) and (10); it was placed in her *Certain* category as it ''assert[s] with certainty that the proposition is true or not true'' (p. 13). The degree of certainty displayed by example (9) was categorised as *Probable* as ''the proposition is probably true or not true/improbable'' (p.

13). In (10), the speaker's lowish degree of certainty is signalled and modalized by 'might', to express the fact that ''the proposition is possibly true or not true'' (p. 13).

The 1982 study was of great importance as the categorisation contributed to classifying a wide range of linguistic devices on the basis of just three levels of certainty. However, if the continuum of certainty is accepted, it is possible to insert other categories into the scale, as Rubin (2006) has done by placing two extremes (Absolute Certainty and Uncertainty) to Holmes' categorisation and modified her categories. My study analysing commitment-detachment that postgraduate writers show towards what is being asserted will also be open to such modifications. As this includes PG writer's subjective assessment or evaluation of the truth or falsity that their propositions have, I will reassess their assessment signalled by a range of linguistic items to qualify their commitment-detachment based on a free and not predetermined scale.

The second important study by Holmes included how the illocutionary force of particular speech acts was modified through emphasising or weakening it. The idea of attenuating and softening the force of sentences was assumed by Holmes as complementary, as it is widely argued by researchers in the field that hedges and boosters complete each other, in the sense they present different degrees of conviction to the discourse participants. One of the reasons why the language user wants to modify the illocutionary force of his/her statement was pointed out by Holmes, as follows:

> The modal meaning of an utterance involves the speaker's expressed degree of certainty concerning the validity or truth of the proposition asserted in the utterance. The speaker may, for example, be very doubtful about the validity of the information contained in the proposition. By attenuating the force of the speech act asserting the proposition, the speaker can express this uncertainty or unwillingness to take responsibility for its validity. Alternatively, the speaker may be aware that an addressee is doubtful or hesitant about some proposition, and may use devices to boost the illocutionary force of the speech act asserting the proposition, expressing great certainty or conviction concerning its validity. (p. 348)

As Holmes points out, the need for the language users to hedge or boost what they assert depends on their assessment of the truthfulness of the proposition and how eager they are to take responsibility for such an assessment. This is quite crucial in scientific writing as the understanding how confident a writer is in his/her assessment of the truth or falsity of the proposition affects the interpretation by the intended audience so that they accept the proposition as tentatively claimed and open to other possibilities, or they reject what is challengeable due to flagging of strong conviction. She also discussed how solidarity and social distance between discourse participants can be increased or decreased by employing linguistic devices to boost or hedge the meaning. Although 'negatively affective speech acts' for attenuating devices can increase solidarity as in (11), Holmes (1984) claimed that it was the 'positively affective speech act' for boosting resources, which increases the solidarity in (12). Similarly, the effects of attenuating and boosting can both result in increasing social distance between discourse participants in (13) and (14) respectively. It is better to exemplify such increases or decreases in terms of solidarity and social distance from Holmes' examples based on their anticipated effect (welcome or unwelcome) over the hearer:

(11) You are *a bit of* a fool you know. (Holmes, 1984, p. 346): Weakening to increase solidarity

(12) *Really you* are *amazingly* pretty. (Holmes, 1984, p. 347): Emphasising to increase solidarity

(13) You are *kind of* pretty *in a way* (Holmes, 1984, p. 347): Weakening to increase social distance

(14) My *god* you are *such* a fool (Holmes, 1984, p. 346): Emphasising to increase social distance

According to Holmes (1984), another way of emphasising the force of what is asserted is using tag questions and rhetorical questions which do not add much to the propositional content of the message, but display the extent of the language user's commitment strength, as in 'This is great for you, isn't it ?'. However, such items have

only recently been included as *Engagement* category of metadiscourse in terms of the interaction between readers and writers in academic prose (see Hyland, 2005).

Holmes' (1984) main contribution to the literature was that she introduced the concept of Speaker-Oriented, Hearer-Oriented and Content-Oriented lexical devices to boosters and downtoners[16]. The bases of the reliability of the speaker, the hearer's knowledge or the validity of propositions for boosting or weakening were taken into account by Holmes to classify such concepts. It is crucial to differentiate the source of boosting or hedging which results in different degrees of commitment-detachment. This supplements how certainty is displayed, based on different sources of knowledge. This is going to be taken into account when analysing the corpus of the present study and exploring commitment-detachment.

2.7.4.2 Qualification and certainty in L1 and L2 students' writing by Hyland and Milton (1997)

One of the earliest comparative studies was carried out by Hyland and Milton (1997) to see the ways student writers, both native speakers of English and Cantonese speakers of English, convey a degree of certainty or doubt. Inspired by the complex task of expressing doubt and certainty for L2 writers (as mentioned in 2.7.4.1. by Holmes), Hyland and Milton built two large corpora collected from (1) Hong Kong students, consisting of 500,000 words of 150 A level ''Use of English'' exam scripts, and (2) 770 exam scripts by A level ''General Studies'' British school leavers consisting of 500,000 words. Although the participants were from different contexts and the writing tasks were not identical, which reduces the validity of the comparison, the similarities between the samples, such as having a similar education history, following the British curriculum structure, and texts written in the same language, resulted in acceptable

[16] The term *downtoners* was used to describe the resources decreasing the illocutionary force to imply ''the content is dubious or uncertain.'' (Holmes, 1984, p. 360), and can be realised as a parallel label used for hedges in the literature and in the present study.

comparability of these corpora from the point of view of pragmatic features of writing. The researchers compiled a list of search items signalling doubt and certainty by analysing research studies and the modality literature, which enabled them each to examine both corpora individually, for the purposes of checking intercoder reliability. The procedure involved extracting a certain number of sentences which contained search items, followed by systematically classifying and categorising them based on their pragmatic functions and values within the discourse contexts. This kind of classification will be applied in the present study (see Section 3 for more details).

The overall frequency of the linguistic expressions with epistemic meanings was almost equal. The non-native corpus included 1.83 instances per 100 words, and similarly, the native speakers of English employed 1.82 instances per 100 words. In addition to that similarity across corpora, the top ten commonly used devices by the two writer groups included four particular devices, *will*, *may*, *would* and *always*, though strikingly non-natives used three of these common devices more than the native speaker students (except for *would*, which was used more frequently in the native corpus). However, it is interesting to note that the range of items expressing the writer's assessment towards the information presented in the native-spekaer texts was more varied than the reasonably limited selection used by the Hong Kong students. Surprisingly, the ten most frequently-used certainty expressions in the non-native speaker corpus constituted 75% of all devices found in that corpus. The analysis of grammatical distribution revealed that the native speakers of English employed modal verbs and adverbials almost equally to mark their confidence in the truthfulness of their assertions, whereas the texts in the non-native speaker corpus exhibited devices mostly from the grammatical category of modal verbs. Moreover, most of these devices in the L2 writing functioned as boosters, whereas the L1 writers generally used hedges in their

texts, which resulted in two contradicting styles: highly assertive versus highly tentative.

With a contrastive perspective to student writing, Hyland and Milton's study is related to my study, in that I shall explore how differently and frequently native writers of English and non-native writers of English employ linguistic expressions to qualify their personal commitment. However, my corpus consists of a more specific and scientific genre of student writing, compared with Hyland and Milton's corpora of exam scripts. Due to the nature of the texts selected by them, it is not unexpected to find the writing style being a combination of both formal written and informal spoken registers, as there was not much information about how exam scripts should adopt and they were mostly written under time pressure. That is why the lexical choices of the students writing the exam scripts are not fruitful. For example, they pointed out that the number of lexical verbs used by the two groups is limited to ''think and know'' in Hong Kong students' texts, and ''believe, seem, and think'' in the British exam scripts.

The analysis of the corpora by using a 5-level classification of modality use (Certainty, Probability, Possibility, Usuality and Approximation) demonstrated numerous differences across corpora in terms of expressing epistemic commitment concerning writers' assessment of the truth of the propositions. Although similar distributions for the devices indicating Possibility, Usuality, and Approximation across the corpora were observed, non-native writers employed around 60% more certainty markers and approximately 73% fewer probability markers. That simply indicates that Hong Kong students probably had greater difficulty in balancing their claims to present them in a modest style (as in 15 &16) than did the native writers of English in their texts (as in 17 & 18).

(15) It is *certain* that Hong Kong will continue to develop prosperously.
(Hyland & Milton, 1997, p. 194)

(16) This will *definitely* improve your English. (Hyland & Milton, 1997, p. 194)

(17) In such cases, the press *appear* to have forced unnecessary actions. (Hyland & Milton, 1997, p. 194)

(18) More broadcasting equals worse broadcasting is *perhaps* too simplistic. (Hyland & Milton, 1997, p. 194)

As clearly seen from the examples (15) and (16), the non-native writers of English asserted what they claimed in a highly confident manner despite, the fact that L1 writers mostly moderated their claims (as it is in (17) and (18)) with less firm assertions. Nevertheless, one of the most striking results of their analysis of L2 exam scripts based on grade bands was that L2 students who adopted a more balanced and modest way of asserting their claims had higher grades than the others. In parallel to this finding, they observed that the lower the grade band that L2 students were in, the more an authoritative and less tentative style appeared. In other words, L2 writers close to standards of L1 writing (band A-B) produced a similar tone of writing and the differences between the two groups stemmed from students who used a more 'boosting' style for their claims (band C to F). Going back to the standards in my study, the dissertations had already been awarded a master's degree which confirms that the language used in them was appropriate for scientific argumentation and was at an acceptable level for markers. Therefore, such a comparison across corpora in the present study is not available due to the assumption mentioned. On the other hand, as pointed by Hyland and Milton (1997), although L1 writers of English represent a more convenient and balanced degree of assurance and tentativeness in their commitment towards the validity of the information given, non-native writers of English sometimes fail to achieve such a standard, due to problems in employing epistemic commitments such as an excessive combination of certainty and definiteness. However, as previously stated, by including L1 texts of the same genre (in Turkish), my study will also

investigate issues (if any) of transfer from L1 to target language. Thus, the similarities and differences across groups could be attributed to contextual factors like cultural tendencies and writing in same/different languages.

2.7.4.3 Commitment and detachment in English and Bulgarian academic writing by Vassileva (2001)

One of the most crucial studies was carried out by Vassileva (2001), which focused extensively on the notions of commitment and detachment in the writing of experts. The discipline under investigation was Linguistics. Vassileva's (2001) corpus study consisted of texts from three different writer groups: English, Bulgarian and Bulgarian English writers. The research articles gathered from native speakers of English were by both British and American writers, which could bring another angle to the study, as they might follow different rhetorical strategies. However, the researcher preferred to explore Anglo-American writing conventions from a wider perspective.

Vassilieva (2001) is one of the rare cross-linguistic discourse studies to pay equal attention to both hedges and boosters rather than just include the concept of hedging. Following the distinction made by Holmes (1984), she explored the degree of commitment and detachment (C/D) resulting from either strengthening/increasing or weakening/decreasing the illocutionary force. Although she considered the adaptation of hedges and boosters in her study as loose, the comparison of the adopted list of linguistic resources with the ones from Salager-Meyer (1994)[17] made it possible to investigate commitment-detachment through such devices, as it is done in the present study.

Limiting the study to the three parts of research articles, viz. Introduction, Discussion, and Conclusion and ignoring the rest of the text might have made it hard to arrive at a conclusion concerning significant general differences and similarities.

[17] Salager-Meyer (1994) treated hedges and boosters from a wider perspective as signals of author's doubt or certainty resulting in detachment or direct involvement.

Nevertheless, the study still revealed a large number of crucial points in the expert writing of Bulgarian and English writers in the field of Linguistics. Surprisingly, the overall results suggested that the English texts appeared to include more detachment due to large number of hedges compared with the Bulgarian English texts; the Bulgarian texts were in the middle. This result contradicted with the concept of interlanguage theories according to Vassileva, where the expectation was for Bulgarian English to stand in the middle between English L1 and Bulgarian L1. The number of boosters overall differed slightly between the groups but Bulgarian English texts with the least detachment had the highest number of boosters and that again was unexpected. She accounted for this in two ways. Firstly, she focused on the unfamiliarity of Bulgarian English writers in expressing how they could detach themselves from the discourse they produced and offer more tentative propositions by letting other possibilities be imagined by the readers. The second possible explanation was an unawareness of the need to employ hedging resources to soften claims, instead of presenting them with great confidence. No matter what the reason was for this specific context of expert writers, the fact that the Bulgarian English writers were very assertive (maybe more than what was expected from the discourse community) in their research articles remains. However, when it is taken into account that the Bulgarian English research articles were from leading international journals, it might not be convenient to talk about the unfamiliarity or unawareness of the writers, as the papers had undergone peer review, suggesting that what they did was still acceptable. In this line of discussion, Vassileva (2001) suggests that the Bulgarian tradition of academic writing mostly relies on the practice and convention of using high certainty propositions in order to limit other potential alternatives or voices to be heard in the light of evidence presented.

Vassilieva's study is important as it elegantly investigated the concept of commitment and detachment across different writer groups and showed up cultural and

linguistic tendencies. For instance, the fact that the native English expert writers preferred to construct and present knowledge in a more tentative style contradicted with the Bulgarian expert writers (both L1 and L2) who equipped with highly committed style in negotiating knowledge. It is interesting to note that the way English L1 writers start by asserting their claims with an 'open to discussion' style in their introductions and justify their initial claims after getting relevant evidence from their research in conclusions, was dissimilar to what the Bulgarian L1 writers did. Instead of stating their initial claims tentatively at the beginning of their papers, the Bulgarians started by asserting their claims in a highly confident style in their introductions and kept signalling high degree of commitment throughout their texts. Vassileva explained this tendency in terms of the generally accepted Bulgarian standards: ''if you claim something you should stick to it consistently notwithstanding any possible deviations from the expected results which may appear in the course of the investigation'' (p.89). As argued before, the way the Bulgarian English writers had displayed quite extraordinary route in general, and that was also completely contradictory to what English L1 writers did. Their highly committed style in EL2 introductions and discussions, as with the Bulgarian L1 writers, was converted into a more indirect and intensely hesitant style in their conclusion sections. Thus, the Bulgarian English texts resulted in letting intended audience accept the possible outcomes of the study with tentative propositions.

2.7.4.4 Certainty across cultures: A comparison of the degree of certainty expressed by Greek- and English-speaking scientific authors by Koutsantoni (2005)

The study carried out by Koutsantoni in 2005 has demonstrated how cultural values influence the avoidance of uncertainty (in other words the expressions of certainty) in claims in the research articles from the field of engineering, viz. electronic, electrical and chemical engineering written by English and Greek researchers. Her corpus

consisted of three data sets (as it does in the present study): research articles written by 17 native speakers of English, 17 of, and 15 Greek speakers of English; making 49 research articles in total. The Greek L1 articles were almost four times shorter (the exact number of words is not known as the number of lines was presented) than the English L1 and Greek English texts. The research articles written by native writers of English belonged to British, American, Canadian, and Australian English speakers, though the potential cultural differences among them were ignored; their origin was given as 'Anglo-Saxon'. The English texts written by native speakers and Greek researchers were between 1989 and 2001 whereas the Greek texts were papers presented at conferences, which had not been published. With a specific focus on certainty markers/ boosters, she explored rhetorical variations across three groups of writers in terms of how they expressed the status of their conviction and commitment towards their claims.

Koutsantoni's quantitative analysis of the three sets of data revealed that researchers differed in employing certainty markers to emphasise their conviction over the propositions they claimed. The difference between the groups was obtained through density method in which the occurrences of certainty markers were divided by total number of lines within texts. This calculation indicated that native speakers of English employed fewer certainty markers with 0.008 per line; Greek writers of English were in the middle with 0.01 per line; and Greek L1 writers were found to be presenting highest amount of certainty in their texts, with a figure of 0.02 per line. The effectiveness of using such a density calculation per line is arguable but the results supported the predictions of interlanguage theories, as the rates for Greek writers of English were in between those of the two L1 groups in contrast to the results of Vassileva's (2001) study in the previous section.

The frequent employment of certainty markers by the Greek writers was attributed to the solidarity orientation of Greek culture, in comparison with the

avoidance by native English writers of expressing too authoritative and certain claims in their research articles by looking at certainty markers/boosters without hedges[18]. The questions arise: Is avoiding an authoritative and high certainty style achieved by employing fewer boosters? Does that fewer use of boosters match with a high use of hedges? Possible explanations also included the cultural factor of Greek's marked avoidance of uncertainty and a social structure involving a high power-distance; covering for example, Greek attempts to create group consensus by limiting tolerance to other opinions, and so on. Interestingly, Koutsantoni (2005) pointed out that Greek researchers tended to present their opinions and claims as certified as possible in order to be respected as the power-holders in the texts with the creation of convincing knowledge through their arguments. Compared with the Greek writers, the native English writers' low level of avoidance of uncertainty was grounded in their tolerance and willingness to express their uncertainty in claim making and signalling the truth and validity of what they asserted.

Koutsantoni's (2005) study is noteworthy in that she attempted to differentiate writers' rhetorical preferences about expressing how certain they were about the propositions they presented to their audience in scientific writing. However, some issues could have been better dealt with if she had also included and investigated linguistic expressions signalling uncertainty without ignoring the nature appropriateness of such devices in revealing a degree of certainty. Had she so, the findings might have established whether Greek researchers really displayed high levels of uncertainty avoidance by employing more certainty markers. In other words, without looking at uncertainty expressions such as hedges or downtoners, one cannot establish whether

[18] Koutsantoni (2005) only investigated certainty markers or boosters that the authors employed in stressing their certainty and conviction. The markers included ''certainty adverbs (such as clearly, obviously, *fanera* in Greek=obviously), certainty adjectives (such as obvious, apparent, evident, *fanero* in Greek=obvious), verbs such as will and be going to (*tha* future in Greek), and demonstrate and show (*deixno, katadeiknyo* in Greek=show, demonstrate), expressions of common knowledge (e.g., *it is known*), and discourse-based expressions of confidence in results or contributions of research'' (p. 130).

Greek writers are genuinely more certain and authoritative than the English writers. It might be the case for Greek writers that they also balance their high certainty and hedging their bets by employing resources weakening the claims, but due to the fact that such expressions were not included by Koutsantoni in the search list, it is hard to draw valid conclusions. That is why the present study approaches both certainty and uncertainty expressions equally; as such devices enable writers to reveal their closeness to the propositions and commit themselves to or detach themselves from what they assert. Two related issues of her study concerned the imbalance of the corpora to explore certainty markers and the inclusion of different genres. Although an approximately equal number of texts (17-17-15) were included from each of the writer groups, the texts by the native speakers of Greek seem to be quite short (just 1626 lines vs. 6006 lines of L1 English and 6476 lines of L2 English texts). This could be due to the genre of the L1 Greek texts, which were collected from papers presented at different conferences and included in conference proceedings. It could be argued that conference proceedings might display different generic features and be shorter than published research articles. This might have resulted in Koutsantoni inadvertently comparing two different genres (although they are similar in a broad sense as professional academic writing); and she did not mention any of the similarities and differences based on the genres included. In the event this may not have been so crucial, since the focus of the study was on exploring the phenomena across expert writers. Yet, a detailed comparison of Greek L1 writers and Greek writers of English would have made a great contribution to how language change affected the style of writers coming from a shared cultural background.

2.8 Exploring the concept of authorial presence and self-representation in literature

This section introduces the concept of authorial self-representation in academic writing with a focus to the construction of discoursal identity in academic text. In addition, I shall discuss some of the substantial studies in different contexts examining signals of the writer's presence in the texts.

The actual reason for writers' explicit reference to themselves could simply be the fact that writers would like to arouse in their intended audience's minds the contribution they are making. As argued by Hyland (2001), mentioning the writer's own self explicitly has been one of the strategies that help writers to create successful discourse conventions for active interaction between themselves and their potential readers. However, a recent discussion by Molino (2010) simply points out that writers are expected to adapt themselves to the academic conventions of the discourse community they are in, for the sake of objectivity. Therefore, they make choices rhetorically, either explicitly to generate interaction, or implicitly in order not to intrude much into their discourses. Nevertheless, the question is how and to what to extent writers foreground their explicit manifestations or hide their personal projections with impersonal forms. Such issues have become more debatable since a more 'social' view in academic writing was developed in the1980s compared with earlier perceptions, when academic writing was seen as ideally agentless (Ivanic, 1998). Albert Einstein's way of seeing academic research exposition, as cited in Hyland (2001), is a reiteration of earlier views on the persuasiveness of academic writing using an impersonal mode of exposition: ''when a man is talking about scientific subjects, the little word 'I' should play no part in his expositions'' (p. 2). Nonetheless, a number of researchers have attempted to change the view of science as something purely objective and impersonal (see Harwood, 2003; Hyland, 2001; Vassileva 1998) by showing and highlighting the

subjective and personal features of academic texts. From that perspective, it could be argued that academic writing is in a transition phase and a combination of such features makes texts richer instead of presenting scientific exposition as purely impersonal or purely personal. In other words, if the most crucial issue is to get at objectivity through impersonalisation, there is a growing bulk of literature displaying the fact that personal features add an interpersonal dimension to academic discourse and harmonise objectivity and subjectivity. Hyland (2002a) clearly favours the idea that writers attain greater credibility by explicitly accommodating themselves in their texts and subjectivity rather than producing just an impersonal academic prose.

According to Ivanic (1998), the recent changes in writing research and writing pedagogy have brought changes in envisaging how text is constructed by writers. This construction not only includes the subject matter discussed throughout the texts, but also how writers portray ‘‘themselves, the reader, their relationship, the writer’s commitment to the ideational content, and their assessment of reader’s knowledge and beliefs’’ (Ivanic, 1998; pp. 94-95). Hence, how the writers portray themselves through their texts is an invaluable component of the text showing the writer’s commitment towards propositional content (see 2.7 as the other focus of present research). The studies focusing solely on the discoursal construction and self-representation of writers are relatively limited compared with studies of other rhetorical choices and strategies that different discourse communities follow (some of them will be overviewed in the subsequent sections). Researchers, in other words, have preferred combining the concept of authorial presence, as is done in the present study, with other interpersonal features of academic writing and investigating the selected features altogether. A range of studies (e.g., Hyland (2001); Kuo (1999); Lores-Sanz (2011); Mur Duenas (2007); Tang & John (1999)) exploring self-mentions with the focus on personal pronouns have shown that personal pronouns have a marked effect on the representation of the writer’s

voice and presence across different text types. In a comparative study of L2 writing of Hong Kong students versus expert researcher writing, Hyland (2002) has illustrated the effect of self-mentions on indicating the contribution of the writer in expert writing (namely, research articles) although using self-mentions has not been favoured by most L2 writers in their thesis writing due to its effect of claiming to be an authority. This is just an example of how differently linguistic expressions signalling the writer's persona contribute to overall discourse, depending on contextual features and the aims of the writer such as creating an effective *persona* or downplaying their roles.

Stressing the distinction between two mostly conflated terms *ethos* and *persona*, Cherry's (1998) work introduced the idea that writers may have different roles in the production of their discourses, by referring to *persona* in academic writing. Although the work did not go any further than that, and explain any specific roles that the writer might adopt intentionally, later research studies by Ivanic (1998), and Tang & John (1999) followed and built upon the idea of *persona* by adding context-based functions and roles (see following sections for details). Briefly, those studies revealed how the identities of the researchers in Ivanic's work and the Singaporean students in Tang and John's work are reflected in their essay writing.

Some of the crucial studies on authorial presence and voice which are congruent with the present study shall be discussed in the following sections.

2.8.1 Studies of authorial presence, voice & identity

2.8.1.1 The `I' in identity: Exploring writer identity in student academic writing through the first person pronoun by Tang and John (1999)

Focusing on the explicit manifestation of the writer's presence through a text, Tang and John (1999) created six different functions of first person pronouns in academic texts, to explore how 27 first-year undergraduate students performed such functions in their academic writing. As there was only one type of student (from Singapore and studying

Linguistics), their study contributed a functional taxonomy in student texts but did not involve any comparative study to see differences and similarities across languages, cultures or disciplines. To find out the different roles of writers in their texts, Tang and John stressed the relationship among language, reality and the idea of self. According to them, reality is not reflected by language, however it is created. The function of language is not to be a tool but to be a kind of resource to represent the user's own self. Therefore, it is pointed out that reality is created through the writer's use of language which represents the writer's self. This was supplemented by one of their main arguments as it follows:

> If the *self* is not a fixed pre-language entity, then writers can be sensitized to the possibilities of inventing their 'selves' through their writing. They can, as it were, break free from the real or imagined moulds of behaviour imposed upon them by their discourse situations to inhabit different, chosen roles in their writing.'' (p. 24)

They built upon Cherry's (1988) work which also differentiates *ethos* and *persona* but did not come up with potential different roles of writers. In Ivanic's work (1998) which inspired them to carry out the study, there was a continuum from using *I* frequently to not using it at all. Those functions of *I* included *I* as the representative; the guide through the essay; the architect of the essay; the recounter of the research process; the opinion-holder; and the originator (that the students used in their 1000-word essays). The most powerful role explicitly taken over by the writer was '*I*' as the originator which was the least used function of authorial reference. This function was used by student writers when they believed they had originated new ideas in the texts and displayed themselves as the source of authority, as in the following example:

> (19) To *me* the phrase embodies the whole evolution process of the language to its present day status. (Tang and John, 1999, p.37)

The work of Tang and John relates to my study as they investigated explicit first person pronouns in academic single authored and student texts, although the focus of

the present study is a totally different genre (master's dissertations) and a bigger piece of comparative data. However, I argue that the writer's presence in the texts needs to be explored with impersonal features as well as these with which writers sometimes distance themselves from what they think, believe or claim. In addition, it is important to explore when writers choose to display their presence explicitly or shelter their presence by projecting themselves implicitly behind their ideas, or presentation of knowledge. The cross-cultural and cross-linguistic investigation of these phenomena would contribute more to the body of literature in marking similarities, differences and tendencies across different writer groups as their linguistic choices of authorial reference flag who the writers are and help them achieve interpersonal relations.

2.8.1.2 Humble servants of the discipline? Self-mention in research articles by Hyland (2001)

The study carried out by Hyland (2001) is one of the most significant studies investigating authorial presence through personal pronouns in academic texts. The textual analysis of 240 research articles from eight disciplines was supplemented by semi-structured interviews conducted with the experienced researchers from the fields under investigation. To see the disciplinary variations, Hyland (2001) compiled texts from 'hard' fields (such as Mechanical Engineering, Electronic Engineering, Microbiology, and Physics); and 'soft' fields (e.g., Marketing, Philosophy, Applied linguistics and Sociology). Hyland's corpus comprised to 1.4 million words and the searched items included personal pronouns referring to authorial presence such as *I, me , my, we, us,* and *our*. The study is also noteworthy as it attempted to find disciplinary variations for self-citation practices in the texts of selected experienced researchers.

There was a striking difference between hard and soft field texts in terms of the use of personal pronouns. Overall, researchers from the soft fields tended to use more personal pronouns (33.6 instances per paper) as authorial references to stress their

presence than did researchers from hard fields (11.6 instances per paper). Individual analysis of pronouns showed marked differences across disciplines. For instance, soft field researchers mostly used *I* whereas hard field researchers tended to prioritise their presence by using *we*. In other words, the use of the first person singular pronoun *I* by hard field researchers did not occur except for a few instances in Physics and Microbiology papers; however, a higher use of *I* was observed in soft fields, especially Applied Linguistics (36.1 instances per 10,000 words) and Philosophy (35.6 instances per 10,000 words). One of the researchers from the soft fields explained the use of *I* in his/her writing by stressing the idea of personal ownership of ideas and community-based conventions as s/he also adopted that personal pronoun from papers s/he read:

> Using 'I' emphasizes what you have done. What is yours in any piece of research. I notice it in papers and use it a lot myself. (Hyland 2001, p.217)

Compared with this view, the first person plural pronoun of *we* was widely used in hard sciences. Two of the informants in Hyland's study clearly point out their reasoning as to why they rhetorically chose the first person plural pronoun for explicit authorial presence rather than *I*:

> I suppose we are encouraged to keep ourselves in the background in our writing, to give prominence to objective physical events, but of course we are involved in research and using 'we' emphasizes this. It avoids generalities and focuses on specifics without being too aggressively personal. (Hyland, 2001, p.218)

> In terms of what it refers to, I often think that 'we' is right to some extent. I am always reporting research that I've done as part of a team, even if I am writing a solo paper. It's a kind of shorthand acknowledgement of the part played by my colleagues. (Hyland, 2001, p. 218)

Nevertheless, although the second interviewee talked about researching as a part of team, the large number of *we* was mostly due to the fact that there was a very limited number of single-authored texts from the hard fields (11% of 120 research articles) in

Hyland's corpus. The rest were multi-authored (104 research articles), where writers needed to call themselves *we* instead of employing *I*. In contrast, it was interesting to see that the use of the first person plural was also popular in soft fields (Sociology 23.6; Applied Linguistics 42.7; and Marketing 51 instances per 10,000 words) although 63% of 120 research articles (75 research articles) were single-authored. Due to the reasons mentioned about the imbalance of Hyland's corpus, it is almost impossible to find out how individual expert writers employed personal pronouns and their specific choices or shifts throughout the texts; this would have only been possible by including single-authored texts. Harwood (2005) has considered and highlighted this issue in his study and built his corpus from single-authored research articles (see 2.8.1.4 for details). This is one of the reasons why my study concentrates on originally single-authored texts due to requirement for dissertations to be undertaken and written by individuals. Therefore, the present study is going to be an attempt to explore the issue of authorial presence in single-authored texts from different contexts and exhibit how credible author image/identity in selected contexts is achieved by authors via linguistic choices.

2.8.1.3 Authority and invisibility: authorial identity in academic writing by Hyland (2002a)

Hyland's (2002a) study on authorial identity explores the use of personal pronouns across two academic corpora, excluding the use of inclusive *we* from his categorisation. The student corpus consisted of multidisciplinary research reports written by 64 Hong Kong students in their final project and the expert corpus included 240 published research articles in eight different disciplines (such as Biology, Physics, Mechanical and Electronic Engineering, Applied Linguistics, Business studies, Sociology and Philosophy), which are similar to disciplines in which the researcher collected texts from the student writers. Admitting the fact that comparing student and expert practices in terms of personal pronouns and their authorial identities in texts can result in

unhelpful comparisons, Hyland attempted to provide insights into how different language users achieve interpersonal relations through academic use of personal pronouns. There was an issue about the comparison of two different genres in his work; however, he simply mentions that the format of student projects is likely to include a review of literature, reporting how the research was carried out, a proper analysis of results, and sharing findings with the intended audience, all of which are identical to research papers. A more qualitative part of the study involved interviews with the supervisors from the students' disciplines and focus groups of novice Cantonese writers of English.

The textual analysis revealed that the student writers operated personal pronouns (mostly *I*) to unveil their authorial identity almost four times less than expert writers included in the study. Instead of underlining their authorial presence with explicit personal pronouns, the students mostly preferred other ways of presenting their arguments through passivization of what they believed, thought, found as in:

> (20) Overall, there are several interesting findings in this research. First, *it has been found* that the abnormal return of the Hang Seng Index Component Stocks trends to be negative during the pre-event period but positive in the post-event time. (Hyland, 2002a, p.1004)

> (21) Therefore, *it is believed* that motivating oneself is a way to get good school academic results. (Hyland, 2002a, p.1003)

Alternatively, they used the inanimate objects to state what they suggested, by downplaying their personal role as in:

> (22) *The results suggested* that affectively most of the students preferred authentic materials and found them interesting and motivating to use. (Hyland, 2002a, p.1004)

One of the focus group interviewees supported their use of passive forms by associating it with being neutral and scientific, in order that the study could be

replicated by other researchers in the field. Some students also claimed that what their tutor advised them was to avoid using *I* for the sake of presenting factual information.

Nevertheless, students employed personal pronouns in their acknowledgement sections (more explicitly) and within other parts of their texts, as concluding remarks without much hesitation, due to the fact that it is not possible to be criticised for how they wrote their acknowledgements, in which they also performed an interaction with their readers. Such a function was labelled by Hyland as *self-benefits,* where writers preferred to be in front with their authorial presence to express what they had gained from their particular research (23). Hyland reported that the corpus of research articles written by expert writers did not have any 'self-benefits' function of personal pronouns, as it was in student corpus. This is mostly because the nature of student reports and research articles, as two different genres, is not identical in that respect, as such functions appear at the times when student writers simply insert their comments on what they gained from the experience of carrying out particular research in the field. One of Hyland's informants emphasises the less threatening nature of this specific part, the acknowledgement, in their reports: ''I like the acknowledgements. I can write for myself and say what I want. There is no need to write like the textbook.'' (Hyland, 2002, p.1007). The example below with explicit authorial references shows how a student stresses his presence with the 'self-benefits' function using first person pronouns:

> (23) This is a worth experience to *me* especially in last year of *my* tertiary study. I hope the success of the fatigue test program will become an educational tool for the student to know more about fatigue in the Mechanical laboratory. (Hyland, 2002a, p.1100)

Apart from such unthreatening features of personal pronouns, a very limited number of occurrences were found in the corpus of project reports written by novice student writers signalling their commitment through explicit personal pronouns. These

are introduced as cases revealing ‘high-risk’. In contrast, the great majority of the expert writers’ texts demonstrated that the experts made their claims and arguments seem more personalised through such personal pronouns, either followed by a cognitive verb, to display the reasoning behind their ideas or beliefs (*I think*) or by persuasive utterances to call readers’ attention to the potential contributions (*We have now discovered*; *I have offered evidence that*)

(24) *I think* it works something like this: suppose we start with a new, just-assembled ship S. (Hyland, 2002a, p. 1103)

(25) *We have now discovered* that the Byr2 kinase catalytic domain can also bind to the regulatory domain of Byr 2. *We* have determined the minimum binding domain for each of these interactions by characterizing the binding profile of a series of Byr 2 deletion mutants. (Hyland, 2002a, p. 1104)

(26) Likewise, *I have offered evidence that* some critical thinking practices may marginalize subcultural groups, such as women, within U.S. society itself. (Hyland, 2002a, p. 1104)

In contrast to expert use of ‘high-risk’ self-references, the Hong Kong writers of English displayed their authorial presence with the employment of ‘low-risk’ self-references which mostly presented the discourse *persona* who described the purpose of the paper or gave procedural statements as in (27) below. This function was held to have a less face-threatening value than the examples taken from the expert writers above.

(27) *I have interviewed* 10 teachers, there were 10 teachers from different primary and secondary schools in Hong Kong. (Hyland, 2002a, p. 1101)

Hyland (2002a) clearly demonstrated that the student writers (Hong Kong L1) did not want to gain acceptance through highlighting their authorial presence within their texts, or at least not as much as did the expert writers. However, it would have consolidated the findings of the study if the interviews had been conducted with the same student writers who wrote the texts. The absence of mother tongue (i.e. Chinese) traditions and conventions in his study did prevented Hyland from attributing reasons to

some of the functions or uses of personal authorial references, as it can be generally claimed in the contrastive studies (e.g., Hinds, 1983; Indrasuta, 1988; Ridha, 2012) that inexperienced and novice L2 writers of English tend to follow the rhetorical features of their mother tongue, which might be labelled as negative L1-L2 transfer[19] or interference from L1 writing. Apart from these cases, this study is a milestone in the field as it contributes enormously to the understanding of novice-expert writing traditions and conventions.

2.8.1.4 'We do not seem to have a theory … The theory I present here attempts to fill this gap': Inclusive and exclusive pronouns in academic writing by Harwood (2005)

Like Hyland (2001), Harwood (2005) carried out one of the most important corpus-based studies to explore variations in authorial presence by focusing on academic texts from different disciplines. Selecting 10 articles from each of four disciplines (Physics, Computer Science, Economics, and Business and Management), Harwood built his corpus for the investigation of *I*, and exclusive and inclusive *we*. However, all of the articles, unlike Hyland's (2001) study, were single-authored texts, and the corpus was fairly representative with 325,000 words in total. Although he admitted that it was quite hard to find single authored research articles in Physics due to the nature of this field, he had the chance of analysing *I* and *we* in the selected articles and finding out individual choices of expert writers by not including multi-authored texts or mixing both.

Quantitative data analysis revealed great disciplinary variations across research articles from different fields. For instance, researchers in Physics and Computer Science preferred using exclusive *we* to refer to themselves (5.45 and 4.82 per 10,000 words respectively), in contrast to the first person singular pronouns used by Economics (3.24

[19] However, it should be noted that there are contrastive studies claiming that the negative transfer may not solely be the answer. Kubota (1998) states that ''non-nativeness in ESL essays can be a reflection of various factors other than L1-specific rhetoric […] what influences L2 texts is not only L1 rhetoric, but also various factors such as previous English instruction, strategies specific to L2 writing, L2 proficiency, and L1 writing ability." (Kubota, 1998, p. 75)

per 10,000 words), and Business and Management (4.24 per 10,000 words) researchers in their texts. In other words, the instances of *I* in 'hard' fields were very limited (1 in Computer Science, and 4 in Physics), and similarly, the use of exclusive *we* in 'soft' fields was not found, except for one instance in an Economics paper.

Distinguishing exclusive and inclusive uses of '*we*', Harwood (2005) pointed out that the former is used by writers to refer to themselves as the authority in the papers whereas the latter is employed to 'diminish writer responsibility for an imperfect state of affairs' (p.348). Although 'soft' field researchers did not employ *we* exclusively, the inclusive use of *we* per 10,000 words in Economics (0.62), and Business and Management (1.05) texts was higher than in the Physics (0.52) texts. Interestingly, each of the three instances of *we* in Computer Science research articles was inclusive.

Harwood's qualitative analysis of his corpus was more fruitful. He came up with eight different disciplinary practices and situations where personal pronouns were used:

- Moving between inclusive and exclusive pronouns to construct novelty;
- Describing disciplinary practices;
- Critiquing disciplinary practices;
- Elaborating arguments: community or researcher;
- Elaborating arguments: asking questions;
- Methodological description;
- Discourse guide;
- Further research and state-of-the-art concerns.

Some of these practices are straightforward and easy to grasp, like using personal pronouns in methodological descriptions to construct solidarity, acting as a discourse guide to point to different parts of the research, or specifying agenda for further research. However, some practices were unique to different fields in his corpus. For instance, the writers pointed out novelty by stressing the missing knowledge in their community via use of inclusive *we* and promoted their own research by highlighting their contribution with *I* (mostly used by 'soft' field researchers as mentioned above), as in the shortened extracts below from Harwood's corpus:

(28) *We* do not seem to have [a] theory…*I* present here attempts to fill this gap…(Harwood, 2005, pp. 352-353)

(29) [i]t seems that *we* need to answer three general questions about stakeholders…Here, *I* intend to suggest…(Harwood, 2005, p. 353)

(30) In general, *we* need a treatment of compatibility…*I* am developing a formalization of compatibility…(Harwood, 2005, p. 353)

However, such uses of personal pronouns and moving between them to create a research space (Swales, 1990) were mostly limited to soft field researchers, as very few occurrences of *I* were found in hard fields. Instead, hard field researchers generally moved between inclusive and exclusive *we* or vice versa. Displaying his/her achievement in reaching a significant outcome in one of the Physics articles, the writer simply changed his/her authorial presence from referring to him/herself exclusively, as the originator of the assumption, to inclusive use of the pronoun to make sure the intended audience accepted the result for the sake of community membership:

(31) *We* have assumed a 60 per cent heavy quark tagging efficiency corresponding to the expectations for linear colliders, an electron beam polarization of 90 per cent, a 10 angular cut around the beam pipe and included of initial state radiation. *We* see that these distributions provide a statistically significant and outstanding signal for graviton exchanges. (Harwood, 2005, p. 353)

Harwood's study is of significance with his separation of inclusive and exclusive first person plural pronouns *we*. Although a great deal of research has been carried out and different taxonomies have been proposed, Harwood (2005) has elaborated the issue of the inclusive and exclusive distinction, which was previously discussed in Kuo (1999), but not investigated in detail. However, it should be noted that the authorial presence conveyed by the effect of inclusive *we* is not as powerful as that conveyed by exclusive *we*, as such uses mostly (a) display representativeness in discourse communities, with the effect of equalising reader and writer, and (b) perform a discourse guide role by underlining discourse participants' presence. As mentioned in

2.8.1.3, Hyland (2002) excluded inclusive *we* in his study due to the multi-functional nature of this type of use. It can be better to examine inclusive uses of *we* in the sense that it promotes reader-writer interaction and engagement. This was included in Hyland's (2005) comprehensive metadiscourse typology as one of the resources of engagement since inclusive *we* helps the writer to draw readers' attention by addressing them directly by discourse participant. Apart from that, the clearly distinguished variations across different writer groups and the qualitative analysis of his corpus significantly contribute to the body of literature investigating authorial presence in scientific texts. This has been achieved mostly by his treatment towards the corpus, in which he concentrated on the use of pronouns quantitatively and qualitatively, in contrast to the view of avoiding personal pronouns in academic texts in order to present a more detached style of writing (see Swetnam, 2000).

Having shown the crucial studies exploring the identification of authorial presence, I will present the methodological considerations and decisions made for the present study in the following chapter.

Chapter 3
Methodology & procedures

3.1 Research questions

Before presenting the questions that the present study is aiming to answer, it should be underlined that the 'postgraduate writers' in the present study included a sample of

native writers of Turkish (from Turkey) and English (from the UK) and Turkish writers of English (L2 postgraduates from Turkey).

The two main research questions addressed in this exploratory study are:

RQ1. How do postgraduate students (L1 writers of Turkish, of English, and Turkish writers of English) display their commitment-detachment towards their propositions in their academic texts?

1.1. What are the most commonly employed linguistic means of qualifying commitment-detachment in the postgraduate texts?

1.2. Are there any similarities or differences across groups in terms of commitment-detachment?

To answer the two sub-questions the following procedures were followed:

- To identify and categorise linguistic devices serving as hedges and boosters;
- To describe how these devices display commitment-detachment across the sub-corpora;
- To find out the frequency of these linguistic devices;
- To determine similarities and differences among the three different groups;

The linguistic means of qualifying the writer's commitment-detachment towards what is conveyed to the reader included lexical items, modal verbs, and various lexical constructions like bundles.

RQ2. How do postgraduate students (L1 writers of Turkish, of English, and Turkish writers of English) construct their authorial presence in their academic texts?

1.1. What are the strategies employed to construct authorial presence in their academic writing?

1.2. Are there any similarities or differences across groups in terms of how they display their authorial presence?

To this end, the following procedures were followed:

- To identify strategies used by the postgraduates to construct authorial presence;
- To describe how these strategies contributed to the discourse produced;
- To find out the frequency of the strategies used to build authorial presence;
- To determine similarities and differences among the three different groups.

3.2. Overview of the research: Design of the study

As previously stated, this study takes a comparative data-driven approach towards exploring (a) how differently postgraduates qualified their commitment-detachment to their propositions, as well as (b) how they varied in building their authorial voices in their academic writing. Each of the sub-corpus data sets was made up of 30 discussion sections of successfully-completed master's dissertations from the Social Sciences. In total, 90 discussion sections of master's dissertations were analysed by employing an 8-step method of analysis with three main phases:

(1) The first phase involved analysing seven texts from each of the sub-corpora manually to find out the linguistic expressions signalling commitment/detachment and signalling authorial presence. This was achieved through a piece of computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software (Nvivo) as this software facilitated a more fruitful way of relating items found in the qualitative content analysis. This phase also included a close contextual analysis and the categorisation of the instances of commitment-detachment/authorial references based on the contexts in which they occurred. Additionally, a list of linguistic items for further analysis and electronic search was compiled from the actual data.

(2) The second phase was an evaluation of randomly selected instances of commitment-detachment/authorial references (150 instances per group) and their categorisations with second coders who were provide with the codebook. Then, the intercoder reliability tests were applied.

(3) The third phase was to analyse the whole corpus quantitatively and qualitatively with an updated version of the lists and categories agreed upon with the second coders. That led to the quantitative results followed by the statistical analyses of the data. The whole methodology is illustrated in Figure 3.1 below.

As the present research is largely based on the researcher's subjective and individual interpretations of the occurrences, some problems were bound to occur. For instance, I could be criticized for the inaccuracy of my identification of instances signalling commitment-detachment and authorial presence. I attempted to resolve by consulting second coders to check my interpretations of the selected cases from lexical items to sentences (see Section 3.6 for the details of intercoder reliablity). As stated by Lombard, Snyder-Duch and Bracken (2010), ''intercoder reliability is the widely used term for the extent to which independent coders evaluate a characteristic of a message or artifact and reach the same conclusion'' (p.2). This enabled second coders to reflect their views (Accept/Reject) on the commitment/detachment and authorial presence signalling propositions; my interpretation of an instance, and its categorisation. Before sending the instances to the second coders for intercoder reliability, I conducted a manual analysis and coding of each sentence with explicit expressions displaying commitment-detachment or construction of themselves as the voice in the texts, evaluated and classified instances according to the value added to propositions by the writers.

Figure 3.1. Overall view of the research procedures.

Although the nature of quantitative and qualitative research will be considered seperately both in the analysis and the interpretation of the results, they will contribute to the investigation of the data. This is because the analysis of the data in terms of statistics will require the quantitative consideration, while the individual features of qualifying commitment-detachment by the postgraduates and how they constructed their voice will be based on qualitative analysis. In other words, the present research will combine qualitative examination of the commitment-detachment practices of

postgraduate student writers and how authorial voice is built in master's dissertations, with a quantitative analysis of frequency of use, consistency and tendencies.

The sub-corpora of the present study are suitable for comparison from many aspects. As the same text types are involved, genre-based features could be compared. In addition, as the dissertations are all from the Social Sciences, a range of potential and identical linguistic practices could be compared. For the detailed criteria for building comparable corpora, see section 3.3.3 and 3.3.4.

3.2.1. A brief theoretical introduction to the research: Corpus linguistics assisted with discourse analysis in written academic discourse

In order to understand the nature of an occurrence in a written text or sample of texts, there is a need to examine the co-text it occurs in. Corpus linguistics has recently been described as ''a fully-fledged discipline'' (Römer and Wulff, 2010, p.100). This can provide a robust means of analysing linguistic items or discourse practices objectively. In recent years, many researchers have made use of ''corpus linguistics as a method of linguistic inquiry'' (Cheng, 2011, p. 163) for genre-based investigations of academic written texts to explore how information is presented, or to identify discourse patterns, after compiling sample texts and building a corpus for a particular purpose. In line with this, I collected 90 authentic texts of the dissertation genre from three different postgraduate groups, to investigate particular linguistic references and created the corpus for the present study. This special corpus helped identify the tendencies of the three groups regarding the choices of postgraduates in signalling commitment-detachment and authorial presence as ''language in use'' rather than as ''the structural unites of the language'' (Biber, Conrad & Reppen, 1998, p.1) in discussion sections one of the most crucial parts of the dissertations. Then, a more qualitative approach, Discourse Analysis, was followed for making use of an in-depth analysis of concordance lines. Therefore, as mentioned in 2.4.2, a combination of both quantitative

and qualitative approaches contributed to an enriched understanding towards the particular academic discourse under investigation. To put it another way, the examination of the selected samples via corpus linguistics (as both an approach/method and the theoretical basis of the study) assisted with discourse analysos allowed the identification of specific communicative functions in novice academic writing with a specific focus on the dissertation genre.

3.2.2. A brief theoretical introduction to the research: Contrastive rhetoric (CR)

As is known, culture is a quite broad and complex entity (Williams, 1983), and can be explained and investigated with the help of a range of different fields, like anthropology, sociology, or history. It was decided that this study would not look at culture as a separate phenomenon or concept, or specifically explore the cultural characteristics of the novice academic writers. However, I do use *culture* as a label to indicate the grouping of Turkish L1 and Turkish writers of English and they are deemed to share cultural values, which could possibly differ in other groups of writers (i.e. British) from different cultures, although it can be hard to claim that all writers with the same mother tongue (L1) would also share all cultural features. In line with this, Hyland (2005) suggested:

> [a]lthough linguistic and cultural factors may distinguish first and second language writers, we should not ignore the cross-cutting influences of individual and group experience. Individuals from the same country cannot be lumped together as an undifferentiated group nor cultural norms be regarded as decisive. Writers have individual identities beyond the language and culture they were born into and the tendency to stereotype individuals according to crude cultural dichotomies should be avoided. (p.115)

Hyland (2005) also pointed out that the culture could be viewed as an influential factor in characterising people's schema knowledge as well as effecting on how they wrote and organized the texts. From this perspective, the writer groups (TL1 and EL2) represented a culturally-bound pair in comparison with the English L1 writers in the

present study, and the potential differences between the culturally-bound Turkish writers and the British writers could be attributed to some cultural values between the two. As an example to see how the culture is used as a label in this study, a similar study by Loi and Sweetnam Evans (2010) can be cited although their study was intentionally concerned with the investigation of cultural characteristics of the two groups. They compared contrasted the organisation of research articles written by Chinese and English writers from the same field to see whether the Chinese or English culture had an influence on their rhetorical choices. The distinctive choices were attributed to various cultural rhetorical preferences, such as avoiding making strong claims by Chinese writers, which was common in Chinese culture, and this contributes to our understanding of Contrastive rhetoric (CR) to a greater extent.

As recently defined by Connor (2002), CR examines the writing practices and tendencies of different communities regarding the differences and similarities with a focus on culture and language, which can be considered as the variables separating groups. Nevertheless, Atkinson (2004) points out the complexity of a CR investigation across texts to find out how specific choices occur in a cultural/linguistic context, since the components of the culture might be extremely complex. In spite of the complexity, there have been many substantial studies investigating different written genres which have contributed to our knowledge of how writing in a second language might be affected by the practices and developments in the native language. Achieving this requires an examination of texts written by writers from the same contexts in order to allow generalisations about the effect of cross-cultural or linguistic influences. Therefore, the inclusion of Turkish L1 and English L1 texts in the present study was needed to shed light on the writing practices of Turkish writers of English (EL2) regarding the contrastive examinations of possible transfer issues if there was any. This also contributes to knowledge of how particular linguistic choices are reflected in the

native languages (Turkish and English in this case), and could make the forthcoming novice members of these communities aware what is available and used as writing conventions in their fields.

3.3. The corpus for the study and data collection

3.3.1. The data collection process

The corpus for the current research includes 90 master's dissertations from the Social Sciences. However, as only discussion sections were included in the study, the three sets of data consist of 30 discussion sections produced in Turkish by native speakers in Turkish universities (TL1), 30 discussion sections produced in English by Turkish speakers of English who studied at Turkish universities (EL2), and 30 discussion sections in English written by native speakers of English from United Kingdom universities (EL1). The dissertations gathered from Turkey were recent (between 2009 and 2011) whereas the dissertations written by native speakers of English ranged between 2005 and 2012 due to the limited opportunities for collecting electronic versions through personal contacts, library searches. Some of the English L1 dissertations were digitized from the hard copies borrowed from the libraries as electronic copies were not available.

The dissertations written by Turkish postgraduates (TL1 and EL2) were downloaded from the thesis centre in Turkey (http://tez2.yok.gov.tr). All the authors whose dissertations were uploaded into the database were requested to sign a document in order to permit open access to the completed dissertations. The thesis centre required the visitors to be members of the site and allowed members to download only 10 texts every day. As it is easy to look for texts with a detailed search, I limited search terms to 'Master's Dissertations'; 'Social Sciences', year selection (most recent to previous years) and the language (Turkish or English).

However, this was not quite as straightforward and simple as it might seem. The random selection of dissertations either in English or Turkish in the dissertation and thesis database sometimes ended up with non-convertible 'pdf files' (e.g., scanned versions) which could not be processed as text files by WordSmith Tools (5.0). Another problem was the restriction of access given by the authors until a specific time, which varied from one year to three years after submission. Some of the dissertations were also written in non-traditional formats, so I preferred traditional ones which included Abstract, Introduction, Literature, Methodology, Results, Findings, Discussion, and Conclusion or similar to that labels. Due to the problems faced, I needed to go back to dissertations submitted before 2011 and find convertible files to be able to process them. It took almost four weeks to build the parts of the corpus involving TL1 and EL2 texts. Then, only discussion sections were taken from the sample dissertations for the pilot and main studies. The reason why the focus of analysis was the discussion sections is related to the significance of that section within the academic work of dissertation writing. This section is believed to be the part where the stance and voice of the author are expected to be heard, given the communicative purpose of the section; other sections have more informative roles such as introducing the research, reporting the results, or reviewing the relevant literature. In addition, while a great range of academic work has been carried out on the introduction sections since the appearance of the concept of genre, little attention has been paid to the structure and development of discussion sections in dissertations.

The sub-corpus of the texts written by English L1 writers was built after collecting master's dissertations written by British students who studied in the UK. The texts were accessed mostly through online databases such as White Rose eTheses Online (http://etheses.whiterose.ac.uk) as a result of the limited number of personal contacts. By explaining the aims of my research and attaching a consent form, I sent

emails to all PhD students studying in Social Science departments in some UK universities who might potentially be native speakers of English and have a master's dissertation. In the cases where the PhD students were not native speakers or did not have a master's dissertation, I asked to be directed to somebody they knew. However, the response rate was quite low, and most of the people stated that they did not have an electronic copy of their dissertations or they started their PhD without having master's degree. I then searched online libraries of British universities and the White Rose database. In short, the collection of texts for the EL1 part of the corpus was more difficult than expected, due to the reasons described above; nevertheless I managed to collect enough data for EL1 texts with similar and comparable texts I collected for the Turkish L1 and Turkish writers of English sub-corpora. Once again, the discussion sections of these dissertations written by English L1 writers were separated and included in the analyses of the pilot and main studies.

3.3.2. Description of the data

As stated previously, the dataset included in the present study consisted of 90 discussion sections of master's dissertations from three groups. The number of dissertations and discussion sections in each of the sub-corpus were intentionally kept equal for statistical purposes. Other parts of the dissertations (other than Discussion sections) in the corpus were excluded (e.g., list of references and abbreviations, tables, table of content, figures, acknowledgement, declaration, keywords, appendixes, and other communicative sections).

The texts by the Turkish L1 writers involved dissertations successfully completed between 2009 and 2011. The discussion sections of the native Turkish writers comprised 71,581 words, which was the least number of words among the 3 groups. The discussion sections from Turkish writers of English had the highest number of words in the whole corpus with 122,161 words. The dissertations by the Turkish

writers of English also dated back to 2009. The reason why Turkish writers wrote their dissertations in English is apparently related to the medium of instruction in that university or their requirement of the master's programme. The discussion sections taken from English L1 writers had 102,361 words and the sample texts in this sub-corpus were produced between 2005 and 2011. In total, the discussion sections taken from the Corpus of Turkish-British Postgraduates consisted of approximately 300,000 words. This is reasonably big for such a research study when similar studies, mentioned in Section 2.7.4 and Section 2.8.1, are considered. In addition, as the present research was not solely dependent on the quantitative analysis, and the devices with the context in which they occurred were analysed qualitatively, it was felt that the corpus for the study was fairly representative as well.

In order to discuss how commitment-detachment and authorial presence were represented by postgraduate students in the discussion sections of masters' dissertations, Table 3.1 presents the general numbers for groups in terms of the total number of words in the texts.

Table 3.1 *The size of sub-corpora*

Group	Total Number of words	Average number of Words	Average numberof Sentences
Turkish L1	71,581	2386	103
English L2	122,161	4072	159
English L1	102,361	3412	126

The Turkish L1 texts contained 71,581 words in total with an average of 2386 words and 103 sentences per text; the total number of words in the English discussion sections written by Turkish writers was 122,161 with an average of 4072 words and 159 sentences per text. The texts written by English L1 students had an average of 3412 words and 126 sentences per text over 102,361 words in the sub-corpus. As can be seen, the average number of words was the highest for the Turkish writers of English and the lowest average was for the Turkish L1 writers; the texts by the native speakers of

English stood in between of these two in terms of text length. In other words, the Turkish speakers of English produced longer discussion sections than the Turkish (L1) or the English (L1) postgraduates (see Table 3.1).

3.3.3. Building the corpus material and its features

This section briefly describes how the comparable sub-corpora consisting of dissertations produced by three groups of postgraduate students (Turkish and British) were built and the detailed characteristics of each of the corpora. The criteria adapted from Moreno (2008) and Atkins et al. (1992) for comparable sub-corpora will also be discussed.

To define the population for the samples of each corpus in the present study, the labels adopted from Atkins, Clear and Ostler (1992) could be evaluated. According to them, language output might be divided into two main descriptive notions: Language production and Language reception. The former aspect includes sampling corpus data that people ‘‘speak and write’’ whereas the latter includes the language that users ‘‘hear and read’’ (p.7). The data gathered from postgraduate students constituted the language production (from many producers to few receivers) aspect of sampling. This is due the fact that all of the students used the output language in their production (from writing aspect) phase and this simply allows generalisations in terms of production at the end of the actual observation of each postgraduate sub-corpus. As the sampled language uses are fairly expert (though written by novice postgraduate writers), it is, therefore, important to consider the production aspect to see the variety in the use of language within the corpus (Atkins et al., 1992).

The value of a corpus in displaying the interrelation between the factors inside the corpus and outside the corpus has also been determined by Atkins et al (1992) by distinguishing internal and external factors in the generation of corpus. The internal criterion is mainly based on linguistics features. Nevertheless, the external, non-

linguistic, criteria can be explained with a range of attributes established by Atkins et al. (1992) such as mode, function, and genre. From this perspective, I tried to select similar data from each group of writers in terms of the level of expertise, the purpose of the written discourse, the intended audience, genre comparability. This is described in the next section. Such factors or attributes have great importance in specifying the aim of the corpus, where and how it is going to be used. In order to build three comparable sub-corpora, a combination of ideas from Atkins et al. (1992) and Moreno (2008) studies were applied to the process of corpus/corpora generation.

3.3.4. Considerations concerning the selection of corpus material

One of the most important aspects in the design of corpora for linguistic enquiries is to consider the status of *equivalence* of the sets of texts included (Moreno, 2008). It is crucial for linguists to avoid the possibility of the comparison between sub-corpora not being conclusive due to the incomparability of items. In other words, each of the representative samples of a larger population needs to have parallel features with the other sets of texts in order to be compared and contrasted. Therefore, the equivalence status of the selected items should present common features in general which the researchers could then use to identify the variables in the research in differentiating the uses.

As defined by Connor and Moreno (2005), '*parallel corpora'* in written discourse should comprise genuine texts independently produced with similar purposes but in different contexts (e.g., research articles written in 1980 vs. the ones written in 2010) or mediums (e.g., English dissertations vs. Turkish dissertations). As the present PhD project involves a cross-cultural and cross-linguistic comparisons, the criteria for comparable of corpus design set up by Moreno (2008) will be evaluated with the aim of achieving the *maximum similarity* (Chesterman, 1998) across the sub-corpora. Two contextual factors will omitted due to the nature of the study: (1) Language code:

Turkish (L1), English (L2) and English (L1) texts for achieving communicative purpose of the samples; and (2) actual content and forms found in authentic texts. In line with Moreno (2008), I will avoid factors which the research is aiming to investigate the effect of language code independently occurring over the content and forms as dependent variables. The reason why it is crucial to maintain constant values for the rest of the confounding factors discussed below is to be able to come up with more convenient outcomes of the comparison by limiting the main factors and making the corpus design ultimately analogical.

Concerning the level of expertise by the writers of master's dissertations, it is expected that the student writers as novice researchers in Turkey and the UK have similar levels of expertise both in their fields doing small-scale studies, and as regards their texts with recently gained academic writing experiences. As Roberts (2004) argues, dissertation writing includes expository writing in addition to expressing oneself with logic and precision. In their research, postgraduate writers attempt to describe what the situation is, depending on their specific topic of interest, and carry out their study to fill the research gap determined by their actual study. This simply highlights the fact that postgraduate research need to master descriptive and informative writing. Additionally, what they are also aiming at is to persuade their markers who approve the study to be awarded the degree and potential readers interested in the specialized subject-matter of the texts. This is achieved by adding their own arguments and opinions to the flow of academic discussion and justification. Assuming that different types of style may become very apparent in different parts of dissertations; thus a more apparent persuasive and justifying style (possibly combined with the presentation of particular results and findings) could be used in the discussion sections of the dissertations. This also highlights the importance of the discussion sections which lead the writers to a conclusion in their research accordingly.

As pointed out by Moreno (2008), genre as a confounding factor mostly restricts other external contextual parameters. Thus, master's dissertations as a *genre* are always found in written form. Accordingly, the mode of the materials included in the exploration of this study is the written language composed of independent *single* texts. These texts were produced as *original* texts and have not been updated, as a particular piece of work that can only be submitted once (unless it fails and the writer is asked to make corrections). Each of the dissertations was produced by one postgraduate student supervised by one or more experts, so, all the independent texts are single-authored. The writers of the sample texts representing the target population have different language backgrounds such as Turkish and English. The languages are thus given and the effect of that given factor over academic prose (with special foci such as commitment-detachment and authorial presence) written by postgraduates is one of the aims of this investigation. In order to control that factor, equal numbers of samples (30) from each of the postgraduate groups were included.

The genre has a pre-determined target readership, initially at any rate: the examiners of the dissertations. There could be one or many expert academics evaluating the nature of the research carried out by the postgraduate. Although they might not have been previously involved in such a high level examination of their work, students attempt to produce their texts with a formal register and standard language. This kind of style might have been presented and taught to student writers in specific dissertation writing classes. Keeping their markers and potential readers in mind, postgraduate writers aim at presenting their investigation of a specific topic and at their supporting findings with critical discussion. This results in a highly structured text organisation, as frequently observed in the dissertations included in the present study: Abstract, Introduction, Background, Literature Review, Methodology, Results, Findings, Discussion, and Conclusion. No matter how frequent such structured dissertation

writing is, some postgraduates might also prefer to combine some sections in order to be more compact or to divide their structures into more sections to be more precise.

3.4. Analysing the corpus

In order to explore conventions and variations in linguistically expressed commitment-detachment and constructed authorial voice across selected groups, the analyses of linguistic devices were performed in two stages:

- First of all, seven discussion sections from each group (21 in total) were manually searched sentence by sentence for explicit linguistic devices signalling any degree of commitment-detachment by the writer towards the proposition, or their authorial presence within the discourse. Then, a provisional list of devices was built. The analysis was done using Nvivo 9, which allowed me to classify occurrences with the node system and gave a robust qualitative content analysis as illustrated in Section 3.5. At the end of this analysis, it was much easier to arrange major themes by looking at the nodes assigned to different occurrences. When the lexical items seemed to contribute to commitment-detachment or authorial presence in the texts, but become quite challenging to decide, the *substitution* test [20] applied in Akbas (2012a) was used to add new resources to the open-ended set of language items. When the lexically identical items substituted with the provisional item changed the level of commitment/detachment or the authorial presence of the author, the substituted item was considered to have an effect in the text. For instance, in order to see the effect of the verb (*evidence*) in the following sentence (1) regarding the level of commitment-detachment, it was substituted with other epistemic verbs such as *suggest*, *claim* and *show* to test the use of '*evidence*' as the main verb signalling

[20] The substititution test was used for provisional items in an undecided context. Such an item was substituted with a potentially semantically similar linguistic expression which was determined to achieve the relations mentioned previously and act as hedge or booster.

writer's intention. The substitution test allowed me to consider the epistemic use of the undecided item below and include in the items signalling writer's commitment.

(1) 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.

- The second step was an electronic search of these randomly selected seven dissertations per group from the corpus using WordSmith Tools (5.0) with the linguistic item list created after the first step. Each of the instances was again carefully examined within the immediate context they occurred. This analysis is illustrated briefly in Section 3.7.

It would be quite significant if the analysis of the whole corpus was manual to determine the variety of linguistic expressions; however, it was not practicable due to the size of the corpus and time constraints.

3.5. Pilot study

The need for a pilot study was considered as crucial in carrying out this particular research. The pilot aimed to assess whether the research methods would really work in gaining a prior view to the texts to be analysed and examining how commitment-detachment and authorial presence were represented. This also helped in answering the research questions preliminarily to some extent by seeing whether the data presented and varied in terms of the phenomena under investigation. For this purpose, a sample of seven discussion sections from each group of postgraduate writers was randomly chosen and uploaded into Nvivo for the manual and initial coding of the items signalling commitment-detachment (linguistic means of hedges and boosters) and authorial presence.

Such a qualitative analysis also contributed to identifying patterns in the data and building a list of linguistic devices; as Wharton (2012) pointed out, ‘‘Qualitative content analysis is a systematic approach for looking at patterns of content and/or expression in text’’ (p.263). And as Schönfelder (2011) points out, Nvivo enables the researcher to explore the data from different angles by classifying what is included and finding new ways to define the phenomenon under investigation. The items identified thus helped me discover to what extent the writers were committing themselves to, or detaching themselves from the propositions and whether they built their authorial presence explicitly or implicitly. Such items were all based on linguistic expressions as discussed in the previous chapters, such as epistemic uses of *might* or a bundle[21] aiming to boost a subsequent knowledge claim (e.g., *it is clear that*), or the personal pronouns used to point to the presence of the author explicitly. The aim was to characterise and model the possible variations and tendencies across the three different postgraduate writer groups from these perspectives.

In line with the previous section, a small-scale pilot study was carried out using seven discussion sections from each group (see Figure 3.2). This study was conducted from February 2012 to May 2012. The aim was to question whether the methods to analyse the present data would be applicable to the whole corpus. In addition, as the nature of the study was data-driven, the selected texts were coded in terms of the phenomena under investigation from the smallest items indicating commitment-detachment (word level) to sentence level. While doing this, various bundles were identified at the phrase level of signalling commitment-detachment or authorial presence (such as *it is clear that, it is claimed that, it is said that*).

[21] Bundles can be defined as items that are co-occurring together more than by chance or ‘‘pre-fabricated sequences’’ (Hyland, 2008, p.5).

Pilot Study

- Sample discussion sections of the dissertations from each group (21 in total)
- Coding the data with qualitative categories forming dimensions of C-D and authorial presence
- Preliminary categorisation of commitment-detachment & authorial presence across the postgraduate groups

Figure 3.2. The steps of the pilot study.

In total, twenty one texts (seven from each group) were carefully and iteratively analysed to create a basis for the main study. There was also another step before the main study involving the second coders and the intercoder reliability tests as a part of the pilot study.

The analyses were carried group by group (see Figure 3.3 below) and when an expression signalling the writer's commitment-detachment, based on the level of certainty and degree of confidence, was found, the new item (whether word, phrase, clause or sentence) was highlighted. Then, that item was added to the list of valid linguistic devices in order to explore and identify similar items in the whole corpus during the main study analyses with WordSmith Tools 5.0.

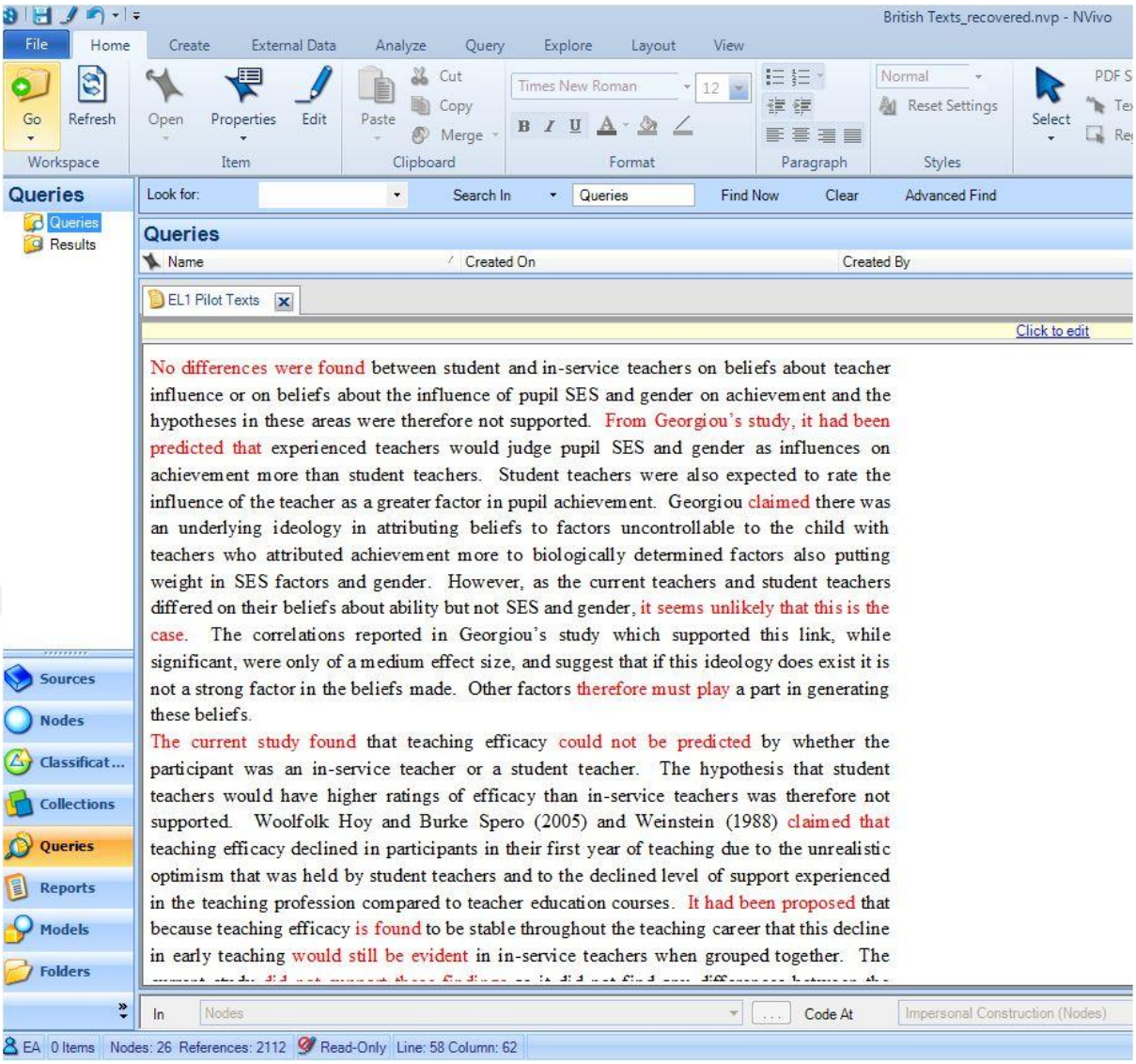


Figure 3.3. The pilot analysis of the postgraduate texts via Nvivo: identifying linguistic resources signalling commitment-detachment (coloured red).

To exemplify the inductive level of exploring commitment-detachment and authorial presence in postgraduate academic writing, the screenshots from the manual analysis (see Figure 3.3 and 3.4) via Nvivo can be cited. As can be seen from the figures, some of the linguistic items were either red (for commitment-detachment) or turquoise (for authorial presence). The context and the items were carefully examined in order to see how far they were performing the functions I was looking for, based on the notions of commitment-detachment and authorial presence (see Section 3.8 for the

analytical framework). This manual analysis enabled me to create the list of search items that would be applied to the whole corpus during the main study. Most of the linguistic items added to the list were also chosen for the intercoder reliability test to represent the hedges, boosters or authorial references performing interactional functions in sentences. When there was a disagreement on the function of the item, the second coder and I had a discussion on such cases after we coded the sample corpus. Examples (2), (3), (4) and (5) below explain how I arrived at the conclusion about the item concerned and whether it should be included to the search list.

The linguistic resources contributing postgraduates to signal their commitment-detachment towards the knowledge claims were evaluated as a component that seemed to change the level of confidence the writer had within the immediate context if substituted or removed from the sentence. Taking an example (2) from Figure 3.3 above, the author seemed to assert a very definitive view of the predictability of teaching efficacy by using the verb *found*. When the verb was substituted with another one (such as *suggest, imply*) signalling that a hedged point of view was presented, the level of certainty or confidence clearly decreased from a more certain effect to less certain over the abstract continuum between commitment and detachment. Therefore, we may conclude that the author made an indisputable assertion about the results of his/her research rather than softening it and leaving more room for the reader to evaluate the possibility of proposition being true or not.

(2) The current study **found** that teaching efficacy could not be predicted by whether the participant was an in-service teacher or a student teacher.

However, as it can already be noticed that the extent to which the writer in Figure 3.3 makes him/herself committed to-detached from the propositions through explicit linguistic items has been varying from proposition to proposition. Therefore, this has been considered to be just the first step in explaining the means of commitment-

detachment strategies across groups. Such a distinction among usages also made it possible to differentiate how knowledge claims were made by individuals while discussing the main findings of their research. Therefore, the expressions were carefully treated in Nvivo by scaling them on a straight line in the abstract continuum whose poles were Full Commitment and Full Detachment (see Figure 3.7 in Section 3.8.1).

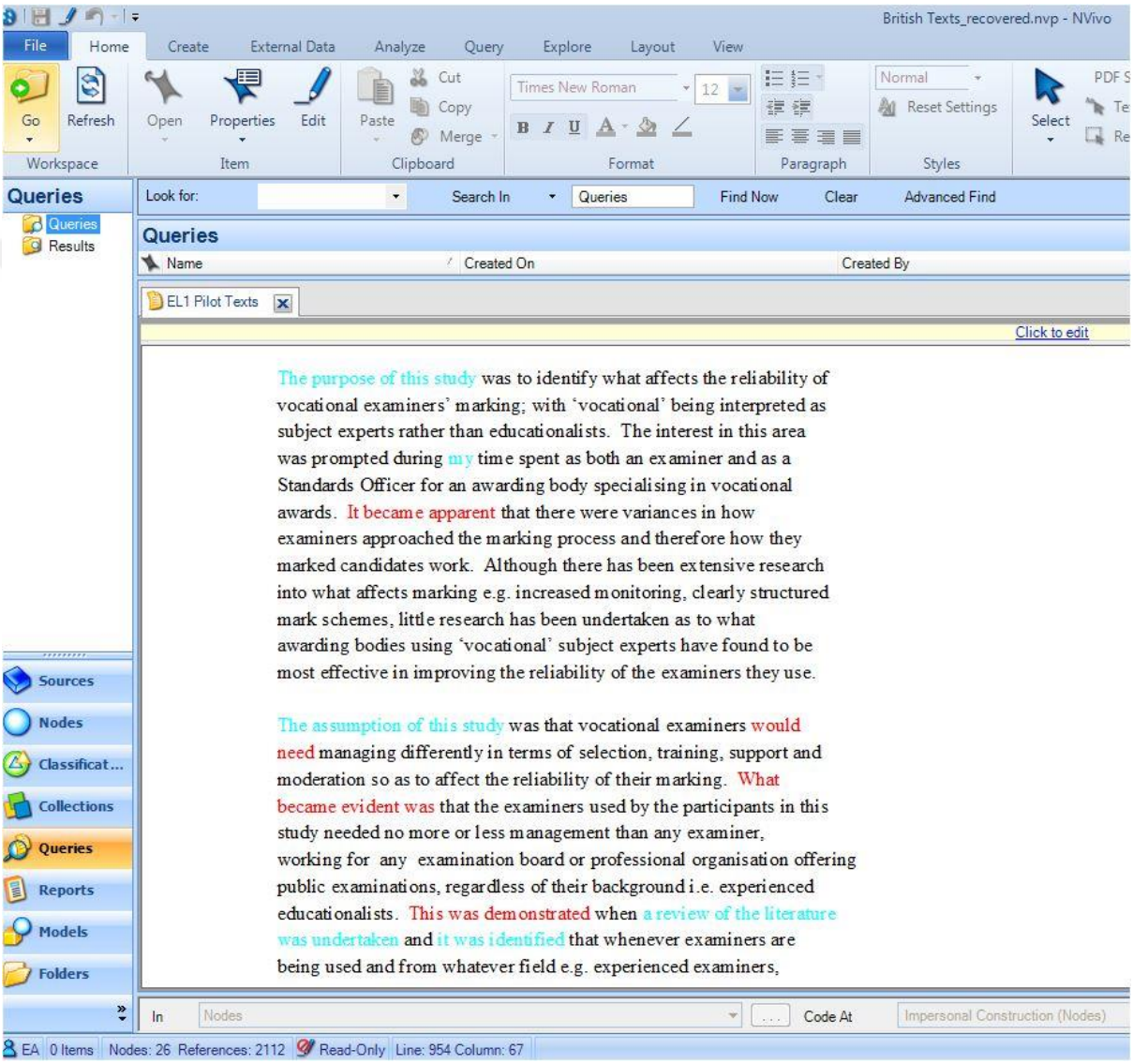


Figure 3.4. Pilot analysis of the postgraduate texts via Nvivo: identifying linguistic resources signalling authorial presence (coloured blue).

The same texts were then searched manually for the linguistic means of signalling the writer's presence as can be seen from Figure 3.4 above. There were some

discourse acts achieved by the author in which the presence of the author was explicitly flagged by first person singular or plural pronouns as in example (3) below. This essentially highlighted the action(s) completed/to be completed by the author. Nevertheless, there were many instances in which authors implicitly referred to their authorial presence through impersonal constructions (like passive constructions (4), or inanimate objects followed by verbs that imply human agency (5)) although the actions (such as the finding, identifying, or demonstrating) were accomplished by the authors.

As far as the examples are concerned, the postgraduate writer of extracts (4) and (5) did not seem to be involved in the discourse as explicitly as in the example (3).

(3) **I will then examine** the limitations and strengths of the study.

(4) **This was demonstrated** when **a review of the literature was undertaken** and **it was identified** that whenever examiners are being used and from whatever field e.g. experienced examiners, teachers, lecturers etc, they are all fallible.

(5) **The study found that** the robustness of the examination process varied between the three organisations represented and demonstrates their different approaches to the examination process and the management of examiners with regard to, time, facilitation, experience and core business demands.

During the pilot study analysis of the sample texts regarding authorial presence, uses of first person singular and first person plural pronouns were coded as explicit references representing the postgraduate writers in their texts. Considering the complex nature of using 'we-based' pronouns in the literature, some academics use 'we' in their multi-authored academic texts to cover all the researchers and represent them, whereas it is quite possible to see 'we-based' pronouns in single-authored texts as replacing 'I'.

In addition, the use of *we* may sometimes clearly point to an awareness of the audience and could represent both writer and audience in the discourse. Nevertheless, it can be quite challenging to differentiate the use of *we* in a multi-authored text, as

representing *we* for everyone, *we* for *I* or *we* for the writer and the audience. From this perspective, it was felt quite reasonable to have included the single-authored texts in the analysis (Masters' dissertations in this case, and it cannot be expected to find a multi-authored dissertation) to see how authorial representation was displayed explicitly across different groups.

According to Hyland's (2000) model of linguistic analysis of academic texts, it is better to address one or more levels of analysis to get more robust findings from the data. This simply required detailed lexico-grammatical, contextual and functional analyses of each proposition and text, in terms of how certainty and authorial presence were displayed across selected postgraduate groups. The dimensions for commitment-detachment strategies, therefore, included the extent to which the writer was qualifying his/her certainty represented by hedges and boosters. This might have also been put into smaller subcategories to explore different degrees of commitment-detachment. Nevertheless, different degrees or levels of certainty or uncertainty were not taken into account. That was because the hedging resources mainly contributed to the detachment of the writer from the propositions despite different degrees of uncertainty could be represented; and the boosters mainly enabled them to commit themselves to the propositions. As the data was already manually coded and analysed through Nvivo, a large number of occurrences signalling the presence of authors in the texts implicitly or explicitly were also marked. The two main dimensions in differentiating authorial presence included '*Explicit Authorial References'* and '*Implicit Authorial References'* through a range of linguistic items (see 3.8.2 for a detailed explanation). Briefly, the use of personal pronouns such as *I* or *we* representing the author in the text was labelled as *Explicit* whereas the impersonal constructions such as passive constructions or inanimate subjects revealing the presence of the author were labelled as *Implicit* authorial references.

As ‘‘the commitment of the linguist is to the integrity of the data as a whole, and descriptions aim to be comprehensive with respect to corpus evidence’’ (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001, p. 84) regarding the corpus-driven nature, the pilot study looked at expressions without a prior categorisation in mind and differentiated some uses. In other words, the evidence found in the corpus led the researcher to form categories related to (a) how postgraduate writers constructed and presented knowledge claims by committing or detaching themselves; and (b) the writer’s presence in discussion sections where knowledge, interpretation of results and making possible links to the results in the Literature section become quite important before finalising the dissertation. I attempted to look at the most frequent and salient items in postgraduate academic writing with a special focus on Turkish and British postgraduate writers, rather than compiling a list of linguistic resources from the literature or previous similar studies. All of the dimensions determined during the pilot study with a data-driven focus to best address the phenomenon and the linguistic resources will be described in the next section called *Analytical Framework*. The categorisation included the dimensions below to explain the assessment of the postgraduate writers (Dimension 1) towards their knowledge claims and their authorial presence (Dimension 2) within their dissertation:

Dimension 1: Commitment-Detachment

Dimension 2: Authorial Presence

- *Explicit Authorial References* via personal pronouns signalling the writer’s presence (*I*- and *we*-based) to accomplish the roles of

    - Research Conductor
    - Opinion Holder
    - Discourse Creator and Participant
    - Community-Self

- *Implicit Authorial References* via impersonal constructions (agentless passives, inanimate subjects followed by verbs that imply human agency, dummy *it*) to accomplish the roles of

- Research Conductor
- Opinion Holder
- Discourse Creator and Participant
- Community-Self

As Hyland (1998a) pointed out, what writers are presenting in the texts includes how they want to align with the propositions, which are clearly encoded by them with their points of views. The writers simply decide to either commit to or detach themselves from the propositions (to some extent) and make their authorial presence foregrounded or backgrounded in the representations of the knowledge construction. The first dimension of the analytic framework merely separates the extent of commitment and detachment in the propositions in order to present how the writer wants to be evaluated in terms of his assessment towards the knowledge claims in the text. The example below illustrates how the writer commits to or detaches himself/herself from what is attempted to convey:

(6) **It could be argued** that no examination is perfectly valid, particularly in respect of marking-consistency and sampling of questions, and that small divergences from the standard can be expected.

As can be seen from the example, the first part of the statement influences the rest of it, which seems to be quite strong –‘‘no exam is perfectly valid’’. This might require more than totally clear and convincing evidence from the writer to present it confidently. Instead of presenting this proposition as beyond any doubt, the writer strategically detaches himself/herself from it by making it less certain with the bundle ‘‘it could be argued that’’. This enables the writer to sound less certain and present an unproven claim based on his argument and reasoning within the discourse. Therefore, such a way of presenting an unproven but quite indicative claim makes the writer highly detached from what s/he asserts, and the strategy could be categorised somewhere *close* to Full Detachment within the first dimension and scale (see Figure 3.7 in Section 3.8.1).

In terms of the second dimension of the framework of the study, the example could be categorised under ‘Implicit Authorial Presence via Passivisation’ and then as ‘Opinion Holder’ for the subcategory of that dimension. Although this proposition was definitely produced by the writer and averred by him/her, the presence of the writer was intentionally backgrounded by using a stylistic manoeuvre of passivisation in order to bring the proposition to the fore instead of making the authorial presence explicit. This could have been uttered and presented as ‘I argue/claim no exam is perfectly valid’, nevertheless, by using the passive voice, the writer also attempted to minimize the involvement in the actual claim by hiding the authorial voice. The author thus implicitly accomplished his/her role as ‘Opinion Holder’ within the immediate context while elaborating an argument about examination. Such manoeuvres and substantial variations in constructing and presenting knowledge might enable writers to create a fruitful way of engaging the reader and rhetorically illustrate the reluctance of the writer to be seen as directly responsible by camouflaging his/her presence. Therefore, the postgraduate writer in (6) seemed to qualify the knowledge claim with considerable detachment and express the caution by *could* in ‘‘marking the information presented less than absolute’’ (Vartalla, 2001, p. 109). On the other hand, s/he minimized the authorial presence by employing the passive voice to present the knowledge claim (the rhetorical role of Opinion Holder).

3.6 Intercoder reliability

Before moving on to the main study, an intercoder agreement was considered essential in order to decrease the subjectivity of the assessment and interpretations of the researcher. Having an agreement on extracts signalling Commitment-Detachment and authorial presence would also validate the effectiveness of the categorisation and my coding system. In addition, by including second coders for coding sample extracts, I aimed to increase the reliability of my identifications. To end, five people (who did not

know one another) were contacted via email (Appendix 1) to participate in the intercoder reliability phase. The five coders were asked to (1) identify and choose resources explicitly qualifying as the writer's Commitment/Detachment concerning the propositions and (2) the items they thought the presence of the authors were explicitly or implicitly signalled (see Appendix 3). As it was not practical to expect all coders to code the whole corpus, random sentences were selected for the sample given to the coders. It was thought that including every type of decision/choice represented in the corpus sentences (preferably more than once) was crucial in order to get the most accurate reliability results. The coding process by the second coders was completed online via https://www.surveyplanet.com after they had studied the codebook developed for the coding process (see Appendix 2 for the codebook).

Four of the coders were advanced speakers of English and native speakers of Turkish whereas the other coder was coder was a native speaker of English. They all had some previous experience with corpus studies either as the researcher or second coder.

Table 3.2 *Information about the independent coders*

Coders	Native language	Additional language	Academic Degrees	Additional information
Coder 1	English	Latin; Greek	BA in Classics (Latin and Greek)	A freelance writer, lecturer and proofreader
Coder 2	Turkish	English	BA in Linguistics; MA in Language Teaching; PhD in General Linguistics	Assistant Professor
Coder 3	Turkish	English	BA in Teaching English, BA in Teaching Turkish, MA in English for Specific Purposes (ESP)	PhD student in Applied Linguistics
Coder 4	Turkish	English	BA in Linguistics; MA in Linguistic Studies	PhD student in Forensic Linguistics
Coder 5	Turkish	English; French	BA in French Language and Literature	Advanced TEFL Certificate holder

By including second coders, as Lombard, Snyder-Duch and Bracken (2005) pointed out, evaluation by the independent coders for the selected propositions is

compared with the researcher's identification system, and intercoder reliability is considered to display how consistent and reliable the researcher's coding system is. In order to calculate the degree of intercoder agreement, Cohen's kappa was used. This simply reduced the effect of chance as it would be misleading by just looking at the number of items the second coders and the researchers agreed. In cases of disagreement, further discussion between second coders and the researcher took place. The examples below would illustrate the system better:

(7) **The findings suggest** that only a small minority of pre-sessional programme EAP learners are sufficiently well-motivated to pursue the consultation of online concordancing tools independently.

(8) **Without doubt**, the profile of the modern translator is undergoing a significant change, sideling individuals who are not able or willing to adapt.

As can be seen, example (7) basically presents a claim by the writer as a consequence of his/her results in the study. This proposition is itself quite tentative with the verb *suggest* as the choice of verb is closely related to the writer's stance towards the piece of information presented. In other words, the writer prefers a weaker verb, compared with *show* or *reveal*, and tentatively interacts with the reader by stating that most of the pre-sessional EAP learners were not well-motivated. This proposition clearly signals the 'detachment' of the author from the information presented.

In contrast, the writer in example (8) asserts a completely authoritative proposition which displays his/her confidence over the statement with the use of *without doubt*. The profile of the modern translator is clearly conveyed by that particular phrase, implying either that the piece of knowledge is a well-known fact or attempting to convince readers. Such an authoritative sentence has some chance of convincing the reader, as it strengthens the assessment of the writer to some extent. The degree of commitment portrayed here seems to be considerably higher as a result of boosting a

bare sentence through ‘without doubt’. Both examples are subjective evaluations of the author based on observation, belief or the research results.

Although both of the sentences were definitively produced by the authors, the authors did not prefer to write *I claim that*. Instead, the presence of the author was hidden. However, the first example illustrates the writer’s presence as Opinion Holder through ‘Implicit Authorial Presence via an inanimate subject’ (*The findings suggest that*) although it is clear that the author is presenting his own ideas based on the findings by restricting his own visibility on the text and foregrounding the findings. The findings cannot suggest anything, but the suggestion can be made by the author and attached to the findings of the study as it was illustrated by example (2) in the previous section. In contrast, the other example (3) in the previous section illustrated how the author simply constructed signalling his presence with the help of explicit personal pronoun (*I will then examine)* serving as a reference to authorial presence in the text.

3.6.1. Intercoder reliability test results regarding commitment-detachment

As Green (1997, p.1) stated, ‘‘the degree of agreement among the various raters gives some indication as to the consistency of the values.’’ In order to reveal the degree of agreement across coders in terms of items signalling Commitment-Detachment in sentences, Cohen’s kappa statistic was calculated by using SPSS.

Based on the number of matched items and the total number of examples coded by the researcher and the second coders, it is possible to calculate a percentage of agreement (Table 3.3 below). Nevertheless, such a bold percentage might not take into account the chance factor. That is why the intercoder agreement was also assessed via Cohen’s kappa statistics in SPSS by creating a symmetric 2-way table of the determined values based on the choices of coders regarding the items signalling Commitment or Detachment. With five independent coders who voluntarily coded the given extracts

online from the corpus of the study, there was a promising agreement across coders with the researcher. In other words, the intercoder reliability test results in relation to Commitment-Detachment revealed substantial agreement. This resulted in validating and stressing the effectiveness my own coding system and decisions to assign items to categories.

Table 3.3 *Intercoder agreement results regarding commitment-detachment*

	Coder 1 & Researcher	***Coder 2 & Researcher***	***Coder 3 & Researcher***	***Coder 4 & Researcher***	***Coder 5 & Researcher***	***All Coders & Researcher***
Number of extracts	100*	150**	150**	150**	150**	700
Matched choices	87	135	143	136	141	642
Unmatched choices	13	15	7	14	9	58
Agreement on choices (%)	87.0%	90.0%	95.3%	90.6%	94.0%	91.7%
Cohen's Kappa Agreement	**0.736**	**0.798**	**0.906**	**0.813**	**0.879**	**0.826*** **
Significance	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000

* 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 highest agreement was achieved between Coder 3 and the researcher (Kappa: .906) which means a significantly similar coding whereas the lowest agreement (still a substantial agreement) was between Coder 1 who was a native speaker of English and the researcher (Kappa: .736). Nevertheless, this does not represent any problem with the interreliability results. Although substantial agreement (Kappa >.70) was obtained to evaluate the empirical findings of the study confidently, the agreement could have been greater if a training had been offered in addition to the codebook developed for the independent second coders. The individual results of the reliability tests for Commitment-Detachment can be found from Appendix 4 to Appendix 8.

All in all, the results meant the coding and categorisation system for Commitment-Detachment was reliable enough to use for the main study.

3.6.2. Intercoder reliability test results regarding authorial presence

The same independent coders were invited to code the extracts signalling authorial presence across the texts (written in Turkish and English). Again the English extracts were coded by all coders, but the Turkish extracts were coded by Coders 2, 3, 4 and 5 due to the fact that Coder 1 was a native speaker of English.

The intercoder reliability tests regarding authorial presence in the extracts showed relatively substantial agreement, as can be seen from the pair-wise comparison of all coders versus the researcher. Although the percentage of agreement of all coders with the researcher was over 90%, the kappa values (computed as following Light, 1977) seemed to be slightly lower than the for overall agreement observed in 3.6.1. Coders 1, 3 and 5 had the highest agreement with the researcher (Kappa > .82). The individual results of the reliability tests for authorial presence can be found from Appendix 9 to Appendix 13.

Table 3.4 *Intercoder agreement results regarding authorial presence*

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

* 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)

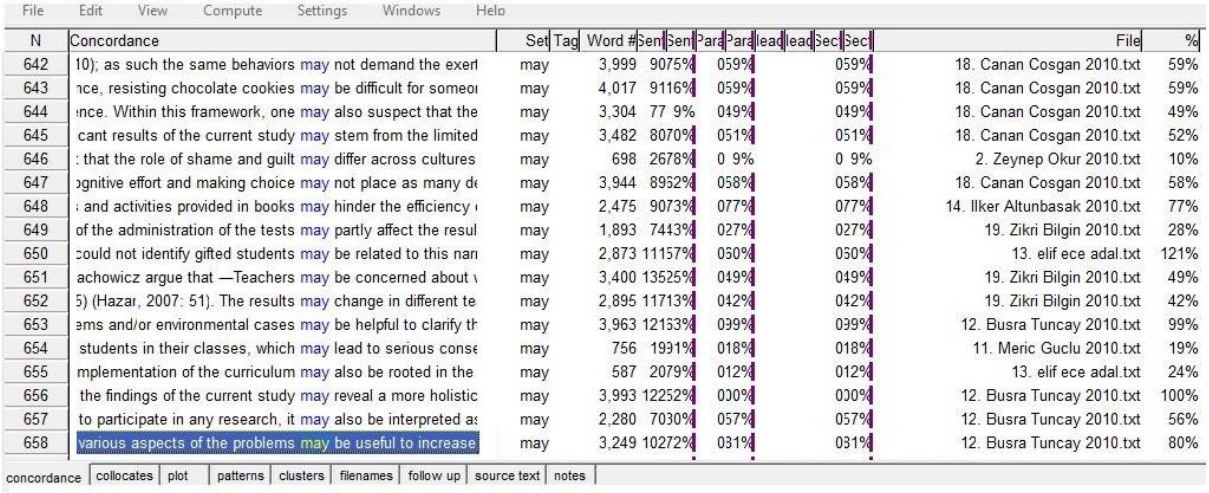
It might have been expected that relatively less agreement between the coders and the researcher would have been achieved due to the number of possibilities available for assigning authorial presence and the roles. That is because the coders first

decided whether the authorial presence was Explicit or Implicit, then chose the authorial role involved (Research Conductor, Opinion Holder, Discourse Creator and Participant or Community-Self). Nevertheless, as Table 3.4 indicates, high kappa values were achieved. This might have been due to the effectiveness of the codebook and the practice the coders had with it before taking their time to code the extracts. This also confirmed the idea that the agreement shown Table 3.3 was not related to the number of choices the coders needed to make (either Commitment or Detachment). In contrast to the kappa value reached with the native speaker for Commitment-Detachment, I had much better agreement with Coder 1 for authorial presence items.

My interpretation of such a substantial agreement between the coders and myself was that (1) the reliability of my coding system was high and (2) the way I classified the individual cases was consistent enough to use in the main study.

3.7. The main study and data analyses

As one of the main aims of the pilot study was to identify linguistic resources that were frequently used to signal commitment-detachment or authorial presence in the academic texts of the writers, the texts used in the pilot study were also included in the main study data analyses due to the purpose they served during the pilot study. In other words, the manually analysed texts (seven from each group) via Nvivo enabled to light on the items that were also searched for in the all corpus data. Another reason that the texts included in the pilot study were also used in the main study was related to the problems of finding dissertations written by English L1 writers, as stated in 3.3.1, it was considered as quite challenging to find more English L1 texts with the limited available channels. Therefore, the pilot study texts were also treated as main study samples, to keep the samples from each group equal.



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N	Concordance	Set	Tag	Word #	Sent	Sent	Para	Para	lead	lead	Sect	Sect	File	%
642	10); as such the same behaviors may not demand the exert	may		3,999	9075%		059%				059%		18. Canan Cosgan 2010.txt	59%
643	nce, resisting chocolate cookies may be difficult for someo	may		4,017	9116%		059%				059%		18. Canan Cosgan 2010.txt	59%
644	nce. Within this framework, one may also suspect that the	may		3,304	77 9%		049%				049%		18. Canan Cosgan 2010.txt	49%
645	cant results of the current study may stem from the limited	may		3,482	8070%		051%				051%		18. Canan Cosgan 2010.txt	52%
646	: that the role of shame and guilt may differ across cultures	may		698	2678%		0 9%				0 9%		2. Zeynep Okur 2010.txt	10%
647	ognitive effort and making choice may not place as many de	may		3,944	8952%		058%				058%		18. Canan Cosgan 2010.txt	58%
648	and activities provided in books may hinder the efficiency	may		2,475	9073%		077%				077%		14. Ilker Altunbasak 2010.txt	77%
649	of the administration of the tests may partly affect the resul	may		1,893	7443%		027%				027%		19. Zikri Bilgin 2010.txt	28%
650	could not identify gifted students may be related to this nar	may		2,873	11157%		050%				050%		13. elif ece adal.txt	121%
651	achowicz argue that —Teachers may be concerned about	may		3,400	13525%		049%				049%		19. Zikri Bilgin 2010.txt	49%
652	5) (Hazar, 2007: 51). The results may change in different te	may		2,895	11713%		042%				042%		19. Zikri Bilgin 2010.txt	42%
653	ems and/or environmental cases may be helpful to clarify th	may		3,963	12133%		099%				099%		12. Busra Tuncay 2010.txt	99%
654	students in their classes, which may lead to serious conse	may		756	1991%		018%				018%		11. Meric Guclu 2010.txt	19%
655	mplementation of the curriculum may also be rooted in the	may		587	2079%		012%				012%		13. elif ece adal.txt	24%
656	the findings of the current study may reveal a more holistic	may		3,993	12252%		000%				000%		12. Busra Tuncay 2010.txt	100%
657	to participate in any research, it may also be interpreted as	may		2,280	7030%		057%				057%		12. Busra Tuncay 2010.txt	56%
658	various aspects of the problems may be useful to increase	may		3,249	10272%		031%				031%		12. Busra Tuncay 2010.txt	80%

concordance | collocates | plot | patterns | clusters | filenames | follow up | source text | notes

Figure 3.5. The search for 'may' in Turkish writers of English texts.

The main study analyses started with creating nine different WordSmith files (three from each group) in order that the list of linguistic resources created during the pilot study would be independently searched for in the discussion sections. For instance, 30 discussion sections by Turkish writers of English were searched for the items signalling (1) commitment, (2) detachment and (3) authorial presence respectively (see Figure 3.5 above for an illustration of the search for 'may') and independently. Then, the output files of the searches for each group were saved as '.cnc' files in order to re-analyse the instances in their immediate contexts.

As can be seen from Figure 3.6 below, each selected instance was also evaluated before deciding to include or exclude it (such as 'May' the month and 'may' signalling hedging). Such a procedure also enabled the researcher to classify different lexical items or patterns signalling certainty or uncertainty and authorial representation, and to identify how such items functioned in conveying the intended meaning to the audience. The same procedures were applied to Turkish L1 and English L1 writers before finalising the total number of raw instances in each group.

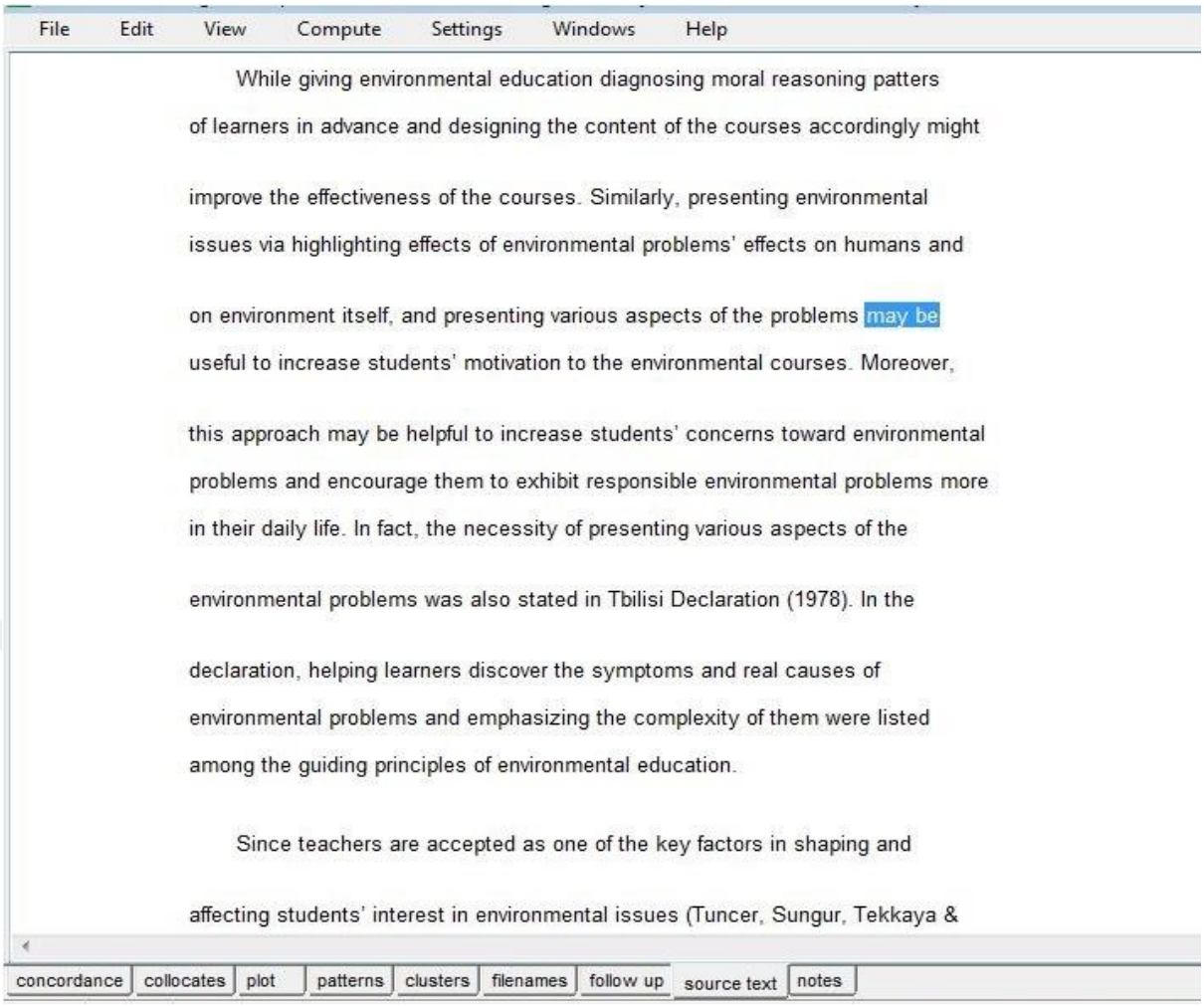


Figure 3.6. The immediate context analysis for 'may' in Turkish writers of English texts.

Sections 4.2 and 5.2 present the frequencies based on WordSmith Tools 5.0 and the functional analyses of the instances when writers expressed higher levels of certainty by committing themselves to, or signalling tentativeness to detach themselves from, what was asserted. As discussed in the previous chapters, the linguistic realizations of C-D will be presented by focusing on hedged and boosted sentences across the sub-corpora and the use of personal pronouns and impersonal constructions to underline authorial presence. The next section, on the Analytical Framework, will go into details about the linguistic resources found and the categories used to explore

postgraduate academic writing in terms of Commitment-Detachment and authorial presence.

The quantitative results not only help results to be reliable but also enable the researcher to generalise the results to a larger population based on the observations. Before moving to the details, I shall present the raw frequencies of the occurrences signalling commitment-detachment and the normalised figures in order to compare occurrences across Turkish L1 writers (TL1), Turkish writers of English (EL2) and English L1 writers (EL1).

The raw frequencies of linguistic items signalling commitment-detachment are shown in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5 *Raw frequencies of commitment-detachment items across groups*

Groups	Hedges	Boosters	Total
Turkish L1	590	819	1409
English L2 (Turkish)	2008	949	2957
English L1	1460	644	2104

The raw frequencies of explicit and implicit items signalling authorial presence across postgraduate writing is illustrated in Table 3.6 below.

Table 3.6 *Raw frequencies of authorial presence items across groups*

Groups	Explicit References	Implicit References	Total
Turkish L1	173	585	758
English L2 (Turkish)	244	494	738
English L1	428	216	644

As can be seen from the raw frequencies, the numbers give a rough indication of how the postgraduates signalled certain interactional features in their texts. However, it would not be correct to make a direct comparison by just looking at the raw figures. For instance, while it is clear that the Turkish speakers of English used more boosters than

their Turkish peers (949 items vs. 819 items), the situation was the inverse when the text lengths (total number of words and sentences) were taken into account and the figures were normalised. Therefore, the normalised frequency of instances was calculated as described below:

The frequency of an expression, in terms of either commitment and detachment or authorial presence, was calculated by counting the total number of items per group as shown in Table 3.5 and 3.6 above. Then, these raw frequencies were divided by the total number of words in the sub-corpus to which they belonged, and then separately normalised per 1000 words and sentences. For instance, the occurrences of hedges and boosters in Turkish (L1) writers' texts were counted; 590 hedges and 819 boosters (in total, 1409 items). Then, these numbers were divided by 71,581 (the total number of words in the Turkish L1 sub-corpus; see Table 3.1 in Section 3.2.2) for word frequency and 3107 (the total number of sentences in the sub-corpus) for sentence frequency. In order to normalise the number, the results of the previous step (1409/71,581 and 1409/3107 were multiplied by 1000 in order to find the normalised frequencies for a fixed figure (per 1000 words or sentences). Therefore, the density of hedges and boosters in the Turkish L1 sub-corpus was calculated as 19.6 per 1000 words and 453.1 per 1000 sentences in total. The same procedures were applied to other two sub-corpora for hedges and boosters, and then for the explicit and implicit items to find the normalised figures for authorial presence.

The main reason for such a normalisation process is related to the different number of words used in each sub-corpus and imbalance of text lengths (see Table 3.1 in Section 3.3.2) although the same number of discussion sections (30) were included in the groups.

The main study also included statistical tests to highlight the significance of differences (if any) across groups. In order to compare the three groups at the same

time, the non-parametric Kruskal Wallis test was used whereas Mann Whitney U tests were applied to the normalised frequencies to find the significance level between pairs of groups, such as Turkish L1 writers + Turkish writers of English vs. English L1 writers (groups from the same culture vs. the other) or Turkish L1 writers vs. Turkish writers of English + English L1 writers (groups writing in the same language vs. the other language).

One of the methodological difficulties encountered during the research concerned the inclusion of the particular section of the dissertations used for analysis. Although the dissertations were collected as a whole, the study dealt only with the discussion sections, due to their communicative importance. In order to separate the sections from the dissertations to analyse, a range of procedures was followed. For each dissertation, the page numbers of the discussion sections were noted, and then, each dissertation was uploaded individually to a website (http://www.splitpdf.com/) in order to split the files. After the discussion section was isolated, the new file was downloaded from the website and labelled as required for future reference. Considering the number of dissertations (90 in total) and the procedures followed, the process proved very time-consuming.

Another issue was related to the separation of the discussion sections as described above and the search for Turkish linguistic items using WordSmith Tools 5.0. While searching for some of the Turkish items written with Turkish characters, such as *olasıdır* (it is possible that), *görülmüştür* (it was found that), it became clear that some files did not include any Turkish characters, although the original dissertations did include them. The reason for this was not found, but it is possible that the font in the texts used by the writers might have caused this effect when the separation of the texts was carried out. Therefore, the searched items in TL1 texts were redesigned, by

replacing the Turkish characters with '^' as suggested by the WordSmith Tools 5.0 manual. This symbol simply enabled the search tool to find any single letter that matched the given letters. For instance, the search words *olasıdır* and *görülmüştür* were formatted as *olas^d^r* and *g^r^lm^^t^r* in order to find the desired instances without the Turkish characters of such words, i.e. *olasidir* and *gorulmustur*. However, such a search came up with several irrelevant instances, e.g., *gerilmistir* or *gerilmiştir*, which meant totally different things and did not perform the desired function in the context. Such cases were removed from the concordance lists during the manual analysis of WordSmith search files.

Having outlined the methodological steps taken in the analyses of the phenomena under investigation across groups, the description of the dimensions that were created during the pilot and main study will be provided in the following section.

3.8. Analytical framework based on the contextual analysis of the texts

What an academic writer in a specific discourse community is expected to achieve by other members of the scientific community (examiners, reviewers, novice or expert researchers benefiting from a particular study) is to accommodate to and carry on the norms and conventions belonging to the community, in terms of organizing the textual and propositional content in the texts. Therefore, social relations are also constructed where the writer is not just talking about how external reality or a particular circumstance might be explained through a particular piece of research (such as how supplementary reading materials might affect second language learners in the language classroom); instead, effective linguistic choices about scientific language are made to try to persuade the intended audience. Indeed, Markkanen and Schröder (1997) highlight the fact that scientific texts are produced with the aim of convincing readers and meeting their expectations rather than simply reporting content-related matters and

informing the reader. Therefore, one could expect that academic prose would certainly have any new knowledge claims worded so as to gain acceptance and credibility on the part of the reader. Such effort also contributes to the acceptance of the academic text owner by the scientific community. Meanwhile, the linguistic choices made by the writer responding to the expectations of the discourse community as stated above simply affect how the intended audience might interpret the propositional content and decide whether accept or reject the presented argument on which the knowledge claims are based. To some extent, the construction of authorial stance and credibility is also dependent on such choices of linguistic expressions signalling the level of certainty and representation of author's own presence implicitly or explicitly.

The following sections will introduce the analytical perspective followed to investigate the two phenomena in postgraduate academic writing.

3.8.1. Commitment-detachment in postgraduate academic writing

As discussed previously, propositional meaning can be formulated with different degrees of strength, ranging from very weak, tentative statements to very strong, assertive ones. Hedges are generally associated with avoidance of personal commitment. Di Marco and Mercer (2004) pointed out hedges can be used ''not only in enhancing or mitigating the persuasive effects of an author's specific knowledge claims, but in setting up a strong 'protective' position from which to defend a highly controversial position'' (p.51). Conversely, Hyland (1998a, 1998c) defined *boosters* (e.g., *of course, definitely, I am sure*) as the linguistic expressions employed to ''express conviction and assert a proposition with confidence, represent a strong claim about a state of affairs'' (p.350). Thus, hedges and boosters carry the value of being linguistic items which help the writers increase or decrease their level of commitment over associated propositions. Crismore et al. (1993) explained the phenomenon by using the labels *hedges* and *certainty markers*. That is acceptable because such expressions can be

considered as closely-related linguistic items signalling different degrees of confidence and conviction towards the truthfulness status of the propositions. The approach Crismore et al. (1993) took to label the linguistic choices, using a scale that ranged from expressing to withholding commitment to the truth of propositions seemed to make it explicit to grasp: opposite ends of the scale. Therefore, I followed Crismore et al. (1993) and used a cline that the propositions can be located between Full Commitment and Full Detachment as can be seen in Figure 3.7 below.

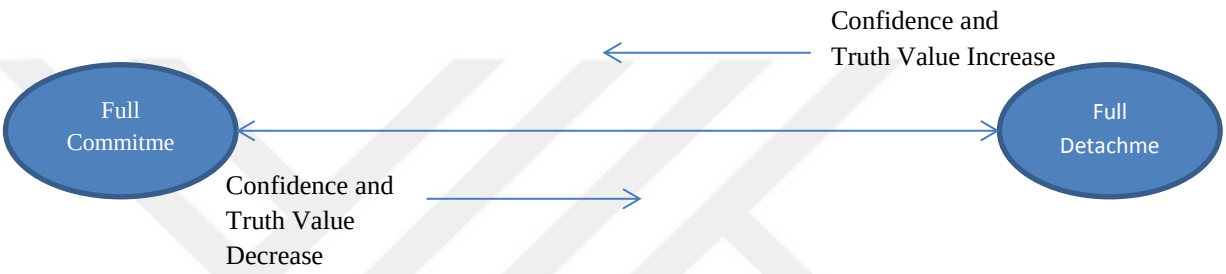


Figure 3.7. The cline of commitment and detachment in the study.

There is a need to stress that all the interpretations over how certain or doubtful the writer might be are based on the explicit markers in the propositions; otherwise it would not have been possible to identify the signal regarding the assessment of the writer towards what is asserted. It could be argued that the propositions with a degree of detachment would still show a reasonable commitment level of the writer; however, the main aim of the writer is still assumed to decrease and withhold the commitment level by hedging resources, rather than fully committing himself/herself to the proposition. Therefore, the categorisation initially simply attempted to distinguish whether the writer aimed to commit or detach. In other words, as pointed out in 3.5, the propositions with linguistic clues were highlighted when the writer was believed to be increasing or decreasing his level of commitment, no matter what the extent of commitment or detachment was. Then, the examples could be separated and located on the cline above

(whose end points are Full Commitment and Full Detachment) simply according to whether the propositions were presented to reinforce the truth level, to signal confidence, or to decrease the level of commitment, in order to mitigate what was said.

3.8.1.1. Signalling higher levels of commitment to the propositions and the audience

After carefully examining and evaluating the occurrences in the samples from the corpus during the pilot analysis, the occurrences were labelled as 'commitment' based on the use of specific linguistic items, namely boosters. These contributed towards increasing the strength of propositions and were located close to full commitment on the cline. Examples were classified and treated as flagging a higher level of commitment when:

- The author presented *assured and reinforced* information with *confident voice of authority*.
- The author underlined his *level of certainty as high or close to absolute* resulting in *an authoritative stance over his claims, findings, or study*; as in:

  (9) ***It is evident that*** each participant has developed both their classroom practice and their organisational presence and confidence significantly since starting their course.

- The author wanted to make his/her perspective prominent within the discourse to appeal reader's attention, as in:

  (10) Although it is advised that examiners need clarification as to when marks can be awarded e.g. when partial answers are provided, as Wolf and Silver (1986) found, assessors do sometimes show a tendency to ignore written instructions in favour of their own standards and judgments, so written guidance ***should be considered*** as just one tool that can be used as part of a collective of measures e.g. formal training, mentoring etc..

- The author wanted the intended audience to accept what is asserted as *taken for granted*;
- The author expressed and reinforces *the truth value of a proposition* in order to close down other possible considerations, as in:

  (11) Continual assessment frameworks and the building of evidence portfolios are common mechanisms for ascertaining ability and

judging whether a learner has completed a programme of study and passed all required elements. These summative decisions ***are challenging and certainly easier to make with experience*.**

- The author barely expressed *assertions and definite propositions* without any signal of doubt or hesitancy:

(12) However, Jane felt the biggest barrier to reliability is where examiners are appropriately qualified to mark, but unable to understand what is required of their role in relation to marking, in essence the confidence of a particular examiner exceeds thorough understanding of the assessment process. ***This significantly contradicts*** the Suto and Nadas (2008) study.

In essence, the writer takes full responsibility for the knowledge presented, and attempts to show there are no conditions attached and/or that the statement is supported with enough evidence to sound assured. (There might be cases where the writer intentionally sounds assured but there might not be enough evidence to support the knowledge claim; however, such unwarranted claims could be too certain and need to be softened. This study is not investigating how appropriately evidence is used to support the claim coming before or after. This would be a drawback as the postgraduate feels confident enough to claim, even though not enough evidence is presented). The level of suspicion is thus almost zero, the level of doubt is 'beyond reasonable doubt' (assuming there is no absolute certainty in scholarly writing), and the truth-value of the propositions is established. Although some knowledge claims do not carry explicit indication of full commitment (implicitly carrying indisputable warranty), explicit markers are selectively and purposely employed by the writer to present his claim by minimizing the level of doubt and state clearly evident propositions as in the example below:

(13) Interestingly although Alan and Jane both felt that meetings had to be controlled, group dynamics ***do play a part*** in gaining a common agreement on a mark scheme particularly when two examiners are in disagreement.

As can be seen from the examples above, the writers might commit themselves to the knowledge claims they make in order to gain approval from readers. Providing clear and convincing evidence and explicitly highlighting the truth value of the related proposition (indicating the probability of its being true or not) enables writer to produce knowledge claims that clearly underline the confidence level of the proposition. The evidence presented to support the claim might not be as convincing for the writer as those found in the examples above, but the writer can still signal his level of certainty and present his assurance at a level that is still close to definitiveness. That is to ensure the level still indicates a much higher probability in terms of the truth value of the proposition. The writer simply states his claims to rhetorically manipulate how the readership would understand the relationship between the warrant and the conclusion of a specific argument, as in the examples below:

(14) ***This must be directly related*** to the 'in-service' employed nature of their roles as previous academic research such as Bathmaker & Avis (2005a) highlights the 'marginalised' feelings of pre-service trainees in similar circumstances.

(15) Both Alan and Jane made reference to the numeration paid to examiners as causing potential issues in terms of the accuracy of an examiners marking. ***This was particularly evident*** when scripts take longer to mark due to a student's/candidate's poor hand writing.

3.8.1.2. Signalling a decrease in the level of commitment and unveiling detachment from the propositions and the audience

The selection of linguistic items to indicate the degree of detachment from what is asserted can enable writers to tone down their commitment and signal hesitancy over the propositions. The position on the cline of the examples in this section is close to Full Detachment, as indicated in Figure 3.7, and such examples were labelled as 'detachment'. In other words, this category consists of examples where the writer's level of commitment is intentionally decreased and the writer aims at detaching him/herself from the viewpoints conveyed, based on a lack of confidence and certainty.

This is simply because of the moderate or low certainty level of the writer. The writer attempts to disclose his distance from higher certainty levels, in order not to produce a claim where the warrant (evidence) is not adequate for claim as definite as it is in 'committed' examples. Instead, the writer prefers to indicate a reasonable level of certainty which places him in the middle of the scale or closer to Full Detachment. However, such claims are much more closed against criticisms of by reader, as the strength of the claim is toned down with explicit linguistic modifications.

The occurrences in the corpus were classified and treated as signalling the writer's doubt about the knowledge presented to the intended audience when:

- The author presented *his opinions rather than factual information*, by creating ''a pseudo-dialogue with readers in order to gain their acceptance of the argument'' (Hyland, 2014, p.8), as in:

  (16) ***Perhaps,*** this finding ***can be explained*** by the gender bias found in teaching.

  (17) In addition, the learners' lower scores on the L2 Grammatical Sensitivity task ***can perhaps be attributed*** to the limited exposure the learners had had to German in general and more specifically to written German.

- The author simply signalled complete or a little doubt and hesitancy over the content in order to let the reader judge what is presented via items such as *may* or *might*.
- The author wanted to produce vague claims about the outcome of the study to avoid rigid descriptions or committing him/herself to precise figures via items such as *most, about,* or *around*.
- The author was unable to generalise the claims for all contexts, as the outcomes or reasons were based on a specific context, but s/he allowed the reader to get familiarised with the probable/possible truth nature of the claim via items such as *tend to, it is possible.*
- The author opened up other possibilities and voices for the reader's consideration in terms of a dialogical expansion, by softening the actual propositions, as in:

(18) ***Overall, the data would suggest that*** all participants provided an adequate and relatively comparable learning experience, using Mohan, Leung and Davison's (2001) suggestions for evaluation.

- The author avoided definitive knowledge claims in order to reduce the risk of being criticised, via items such as to *appear, to seem*
- The author wanted to be inconclusive to let reader consider what is given:

(19) However it is important to note that due to the nature of the Matching Words task***, it is not possible to definitively state*** whether or not the learners were employing their explicit knowledge about language when completing the task.

The writers might prefer 'markedly' detaching themselves (close to Full Detachment on the cline of Commitment-Detachment) from the propositions with a clear indication of whatever they argue. The claims seem to be quite attractive, but they mostly stay unproven, due to limited or insufficient evidence to make stronger claims. In other words, the level of certainty seems to have some likelihood of being true or not indicating moderate certainty. The writer therefore states the possibility of the truth value by modifying the level of certainty through linguistic choices and implying substantial doubt, as in the examples below:

(20) Another reason for the difference between primary and secondary teachers in gender related beliefs about achievement ***could be*** the choice of subjects available to pupils during secondary schools pupils. Higher numbers of boys take classes related to maths and sciences whereas girls are more likely than boys to take language based subjects (Gillborn, 1990). Teachers ***could then reason*** that girls do not take maths subjects because they are poorer at it than boys and that boys don't take languages because the find it more difficult.

(21) The participants ***could have been*** from a wider variety of approaches, for example examination boards from outside of the health, safety and environmental management field.

A degree of detachment close to the far end of the cline might occur in cases where writers do not want to emphasise higher or moderate degrees of certainty, but

wish to minimize potential criticism, as a result of insufficient evidence being presented or of a lack of confidence. If they present inadequate evidence and do not supply the warrant for the flow of argument, the result is unlikely to be convincing to the readership. By flagging the suspicion level as high and increasing the level of doubt and caution through explicit linguistic devices, the writers produce claims in which they rhetorically indicate that other possibilities might be taken into account. This saves to make the claim more accessible and acceptable as in the following examples:

(22) Perhaps this finding can be explained by the gender bias found in teaching. ***It might be that*** males entering a female dominated occupation are more susceptible to biases and feel they experience them every day in the workplace.

(23) On the other hand, ***we might claim*** that because higher proficiency learners were better at dealing with the necessary structure, they made fewer errors, i.e., they were closer to setting the subset value correctly.

(24) ***There is little evidence to conclude*** that trainees are adversely affected by **what might be** termed the 'defensive' or 'restrictive' strategies of other established teachers fearful of redundancy or job insecurity.

3.8.2. Authorial presence in postgraduate academic writing

Emphasising or deemphasising authorial presence in the text is of great importance, in terms of how writers prefer to be seen while presenting the encoded information (ideas, arguments, or facts) to the intended audience. This could be represented in academic texts via personal or impersonal constructions to appeal to the reader on the grounds of the novelty of the opinion, the research, or the methodology. As discussed previously, the writers might prefer to highlight underlining their existence to contribute to an interaction with the readership, though this remains indirect, as the readers just have the texts in which the footprints of the writers are presented to them. Therefore, the writer rhetorically appears in the text to manipulate the reader's interpretations and continue creating a dialogical interaction, while the readers are going through the written material

in the absence of the writer. Mur Duenas (2007) states that one of the key aspects of persuading readers is directly related to the writer's self-representation in the academic genre produced. Hence, representing writer's self and voice can be considered as a central practice in establishing authorial credentials to achieve a range of discourse acts and highlight the presence of the writer, such as demonstrating the originality of knowledge claim by underlining their presence as the opinion holder.

3.8.2.1. Explicit authorial references

One of the central practices expected from postgraduates can be producing a representative piece of work whose conventions are acceptable based on the community's discourse practices. According to recent studies (e.g., Matsuda & Tardy, 2007; Thompson, 2005), it is now widely recognized that conveying authority and exhibiting interpersonal relations are directly related to success in demonstrating expected conventions and academic practices. The use of personal pronouns referring to the authorial presence of the writer is closely associated with one of the crucial ways of accomplishing the construction of voice. This also includes revealing the perceptions of writers towards the authorial roles, as a means of interacting with the imagined readers. Hyland (2002a) stated that the explicit use of personal pronouns helps writers to manifest their authorial identity and underline their personal involvement in the discourse, by assigning themselves particular roles, while communicating propositional content. Therefore, in the present research, the personal pronouns such as *I*- or *we*-based references were labelled as explicit authorial references.

3.8.2.2. Implicit authorial references

Although there is not a clear convention on how identity should be reflected in academic texts (Hyland, 2002), one of the main characteristics of academic texts has been considered to be the use of passive constructions, which essentially allows writers to avoid the use of personal references and to hide their involvement or to make it more

‘objective’. Similarly, Baratta (2009) noted that passive constructions not only give an objective tone to academic writing, but also help writers reveal their stance towards an argument by indicating a focus on the issue presented to the reader, rather than a focus on the author/researcher who is known to be the producer of the academic work.

As Ivanic (1998) noted, there could be a style emerging in student texts especially, in which they think being objective and not taking full responsibility are closely related to diminishing their presence with the help of passive constructions or an impersonal tone. And even for some researchers, this is one of the ways of expressing hedged meaning in academic writing, as it simply involves an avoidance of personal intrusion in producing knowledge claims and hiding one’s authorial face in order to protect oneself from attack. For instance, Yakhontova (2006) argued that using a *We*-perspective in a single authored text might be related to a somewhat hedged version of an authorial presence, inasmuch as the authorial presence is not manifested through first person singular pronouns. This has a direct authorial commitment effect over the proposition presented to the audience. In other words, the authors essentially make their presence felt to the audience, but the effect might not be as powerful and strong as the one presented by *I*-based references. Therefore, a firmer rhetorical visibility/invisibility based on linguistic choices could be attached to the presentation of knowledge claims. Dorgeloh and Wanner (2009) stated that using impersonal forms in an academic register could be closely related to concealing the identity of the author. This is sometimes driven by discourse needs (Hyland, 1996), and mostly results in a higher frequency of such impersonal forms appearing in academic genres. Rundbald (2007) considers impersonalisation is one of the core discourse strategies to achieve particular functions in the texts such as ‘generalisation’, by indicating that any researcher other than the actual author would reach the same suggestion/conclusion (p.251). It is possible to

assume that this contributes to a more objective presentation of knowledge in scientific discourse.

3.8.2.3. Authorial roles achieved via explicit or implicit references

According to Ivanic and Camps (2001), the empirical process of producing knowledge essentially includes research, thinking and writing. Therefore, in this study, knowledge making and presentation were also considered to be characterised by such elements, where writers do the research, hold the opinion and write the intended meaning for the community. It was observed that such functions were accomplished via explicit and implicit authorial references in postgraduate academic writing.

By applying the same methodological procedure used in 3.8.1., I aimed to explore and identify how the postgraduates represented their authorial presence in their academic texts. All the occurrences were highlighted in the Nvivo analysis, where writers referred to themselves with explicit (i.e. *I, we*) and implicit constructions to adopt different roles within the discourse. After the Nvivo analysis, the list of linguistic items signalling authorial presence was applied to the whole corpus and all the occurrences were evaluated by looking at their contexts. That is because the pronouns or impersonal constructions do not solely imply what type of presence the writer wants to achieve. To do this, a closer investigation was carried out, looking at the pragmatic functions and roles adopted.

The frequent roles were grouped and labelled as ‘‘Research Conductor’’; ‘‘Opinion Holder’’; ‘‘Discourse Creator and Participant’’; and ‘‘Community-self’’’. Figure 3.8 below clearly summarises the distinctions in how authorial presence was represented, based on the observations in the whole corpus. Following Fløttum (2012), the personal and impersonal constructions were analysed in combination with the verbs accompanying them within the context in which they appeared, so that different roles

could be allocated as needed to the same use of personal pronouns or impersonal constructions.

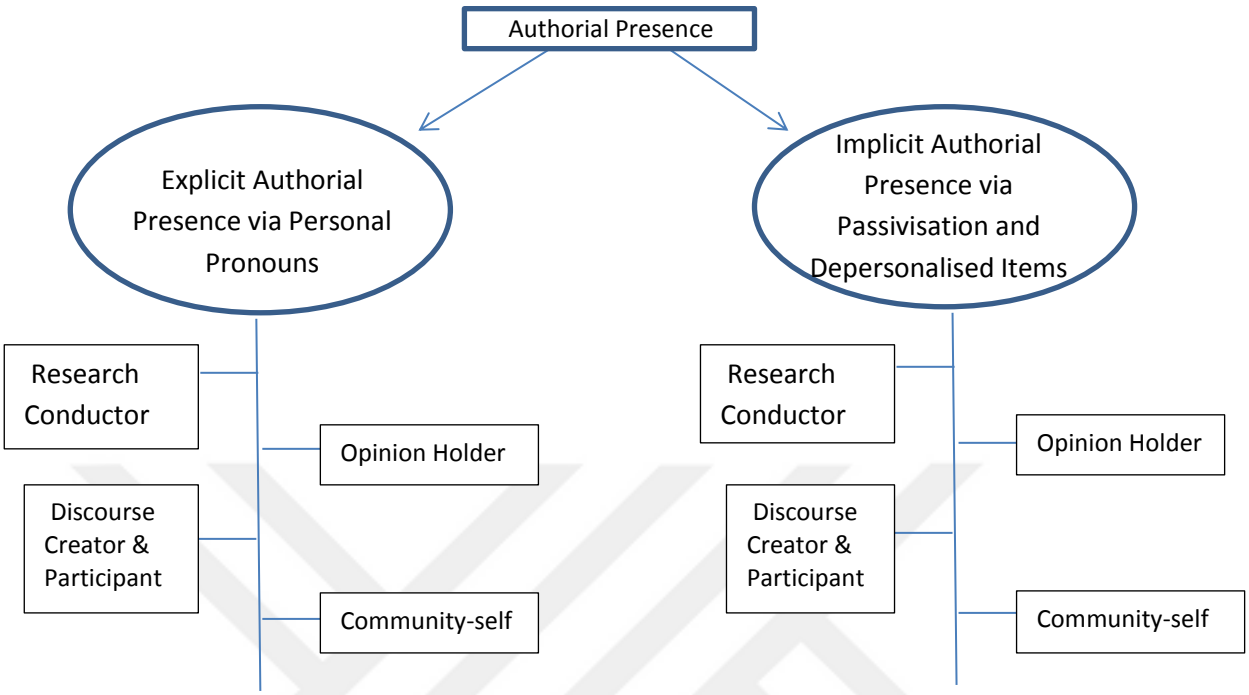


Figure 3.8. The model of authorial presence in postgraduate academic writing.

As an example, when the first person singular pronoun *I* is combined with the discourse verb *summarise* to mention the discoursal activity to be completed, or the cognitive verb *think* to reveal a personal opinion, the roles appear to be distinct and could be separated, in spite of the fact that they are attached to the same linguistic item signalling authorial presence.

Hyland (2002) points out that the use of self-mentions not only helps writers to construct the text, but also their rhetorical self. Constructing a rhetorical self is also possible by employing impersonal features, disguising the voice of the author and leading to element-prominent (such as data, results, study, actual idea or argument) academic communication. That is to say, writers may also adopt an impersonal style as a result of rhetorical choices to present knowledge for specific purposes; for example, guiding and informing readers about the academic manifestation of the writer's

arguments. Such explicit (self-mentions) or implicit promotional elements (foregrounding research elements by writing 'The data suggest'; or using the passive voice) enable writers to maintain the relationship with the readers throughout the texts.

Following Tessuto (2008), 'the less-explicit resources projecting authorial presence' (p.50) for impersonal manifestation (e.g., *This research examines..*; *This study aims to...*) were also looked at and I labelled them as implicit authorial references. Relying on combinations of explicit and implicit resources and the main verb indicating the action in the sentence, I assigned four different roles adopted by postgraduates in their discussion sections (see Figure 3.8 above). The roles are explained in the following sections.

3.8.2.3.1. Research Conductor

The occurrences were treated as signalling the role of *Research Conductor* via personal pronouns where the author was prominent, or with impersonal constructions via passivisation or depersonalised forms (element-prominent constructions where the subject of the sentence was replaced by entities that are non-human such as *findings, results, data*) and when:

- The author mentioned the *research process and procedures* such as how the data was collected, or analysed.
- The author mentioned the *research aim, focus,* or *expectations; identification of new research items.*
- The author mentioned *comparisons of data and results; outcome of the study; predicted cases to lead a conclusion.*
- The author mentioned *research-based struggles and limitations; data exclusion or inclusion as reflective issues.*

Some examples are given below to illustrate the role of Research Conductor adopted over by the writers using Personal Pronouns + Research Verbs:

(25) **I included** a range of words to allow me to consider spoken word frequency, using data from the COBUILD corpus. **I also included** two phonological contexts for the SQUARE and NURSE vowels.

(26) Recognizing the potential of research in the advancement of our knowledge of educational processes, **I designed** this case study and explored teachers' attitudes and behaviours towards research at the DBE at (METU).

(27) Through conducting a range of biographical case studies with people across different age groups **I have established** a number of areas where influences on career choices and aspirations do vary across generations.

(28) **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.

(29) As **I used** semi structured interviews for data gathering I could have biased the answers of the respondents with my tone of voice, my body language and the wording of the questions.

3.8.2.3.2. Opinion Holder

The role of Opinion-Holder was assigned to occurrences with personal and impersonal constructions when:

- The author presented *an explanation for a consequence.*
- The author presented *his/her belief and thoughts; inferences; claims and suggestions, assumptions, disagreements or approvals of an idea.*
- The author *proposed or hypothesised an idea or theory based on the research.*
- The author *implied or indicated opinions from/based on data, findings or analysis and elaborated an argument explicitly or implicitly.*

The examples below illustrate how the writers rhetorically presented themselves as Opinion-Holders, with personal pronouns followed by a position/opinion verb or impersonal construction hiding the explicit presence of the writer, but indicating the role:

(30) When the internal reasons which have been dealt with so far are taken into consideration, **it can be argued** that intrinsic motivation plays an important role in success.

(31) **I suggest** that the reasons for this are that these dyads had established a successful method of constructing tangrams without the need for dialogue.

(32) **It seems to me** that the more proficient L2 group was indeed exposed to negative evidence in certain ways, i.e. in class or through explicit instruction, but the low level L2 learners were not.

3.8.2.3.3. Discourse Creator and Participant

Some of the personal and impersonal constructions were grouped and assigned to the role of Discourse Creator and Participant within the discourse of postgraduates when:

- The author *announced what was included in the present discourse section or directed readers to other parts of the section to remind them of what has been/will be achieved.*
- The author *shifted the topic to move on another argument or illustration* in order to attract reader's attention to the forthcoming shift.
- The author simply *illustrated examples of the mentioned phenomenon; listed items or categorises;* or *defined terms* for better organisation of the discourse and to create links between what was known and not known.
- The author mentioned *his/her presence and the intended audience* in the text by pointing the on-going discourse or the things that they might share.

The five examples below, involving combination of explicit personal references (i.e. *I, we*) and discourse verbs (33, 35, 36 and 37) or of impersonal constructions (34) and discourse verbs, illustrate the rhetorical role of Discourse Creator and Participant:

(33) **We have discussed** the importance of neuropsychological research in our understanding of schizophrenia by relating neural dysfunction and abnormal behaviour.

(34) **These arguments and findings can be summarized** in two points which are intrinsically related to each other. First, past experimental evidence showed that in many situation...

(35) **As we have seen**, training and professional development has not been as widespread or as deep as many teachers and researchers would like.

(36) In the next sections, **I present a discussion** of the findings with relation to the specific practitioner groups, namely, teachers, administrators and teacher educators.

(37) **Now let us see** how the contrast below can be explained if we adopt Reinhart's (1997, 1998) choice function analysis.

3.8.2.3.4. Community-self

The role of Community-self was allocated to instances of personal inclusion or exclusion combined with verbs stating the overall contribution to the literature/discourse community, or recommending topics/points to others interested in similar research. In other words, this rhetorical role was adopted when:

- The author explicitly *remarked on his contribution to the discourse community, highlighting in terms of research aim/focus attempted and its outcomes,* as in:

  (38) **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.

  (39) **The study revealed that** materials provide the basis for language input, and choosing the materials is a vital phase of curriculum planning. Therefore, programme developers are recommended to choose the materials by taking the data gathered in needs analysis into consideration.

  (40) With this study, **I have revisited** some established arguments about attitudes, practices, and pedagogies regarding English as an international language.

- The author *offered suggestions for further studies that can be carried out by providing the potential gaps and/or drawbacks of his/her own study,* as in:

  (41) For future studies, **it is recommended** that the father daughter relationship, mother daughter relationship and the concert of the family is examined together to analyse the well-being of daughters with more determinants.

- The author remarked on *his/her role in the discourse community as an individual* such as a teacher, researcher, sociologist, or historian, as in:

  (42) Based on **my experience** as a language teacher, **I** would like to propose yet another possibility.

3.8.2.4. Summary

Based on the contextual and functional analysis of the occurrences, the postgraduates were found to represent their authorial existence in their discussion sections by (1) employing personal pronouns (explicit personal inclusion), or (2) backgrounding their actual voice by passive voice, or bringing the element-prominent instances to the fore, which might be labelled as implicit personal inclusion. In addition, looking at individual items in the context enabled me to differentiate and group how they functioned and what they accomplished in the dialogic expansion of the text. In other words, the same role (e.g., Research Conductor) could be taken by authors by foregrounding their personal inclusion in the process through author-prominent constructions with *I*- and *We*-based pronouns (e.g., *I carried out the interviews*), or else by omitting the agent via passivisation and impersonal forms (e.g., *The results were compared*; *The findings suggest that*).

The next two chapters present the quantitative and qualitative results (raw data, frequency of the occurrences, differences and similarities across groups) and discussion of the analysis by focusing on C-D and Authorial Presence. The responses to the research questions will also be presented at the end of each chapter.

Chapter 4
Results and discussion: Commitment-detachment in postgraduate writing

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings related to quantitative and qualitative considerations of the data analysed and responses the first research question. Firstly, the frequency of occurrences and comparison of the phenomenon across groups will be presented. Secondly, the particular Commitment-Detachment choices of postgraduates while accomplishing some rhetorical discourse acts in their discussion sections (such as justification of a case, presenting solutions to the problems, interpreting results, referring to the literature to support results and claims, comparing findings with previous studies, commenting on the significance and contributions of the actual study) will be addressed quantitatively. Such apparent discourse acts[22] at micro-level would be expected to be achieved in discussion sections due to the nature of the section in the dissertation. This chapter provides factual reports and a summary of occurrences, as well as presenting the discussion of what such occurrences mean in a comparative context.

4.2 Quantitative analysis: Commitment-detachment across postgraduate texts

This section presents the quantitative findings for linguistic resources signalling Commitment and Detachment in the discussion sections of postgraduate dissertations. This will be achieved by comparing groups altogether and grouping them based on the language they write (Turkish L1 vs. English L1 and English L2) and the culture they share (Turkish students vs. British students).

[22] The rhetorical discourse acts were based on the preliminary examination of the sample texts in the pilot study and realised in the texts to develop a convincing overall argument, through the discussion of findings and elaborating claims.

Using the analytical framework established in the previous chapter, the observed and normalised distribution of hedged and boosted sentences is shown in Figure 4.1 and 4.2. The descriptive frequencies in Figure 4.1 simply illustrate that there were considerable differences across Turkish, English L1 and L2 writers.

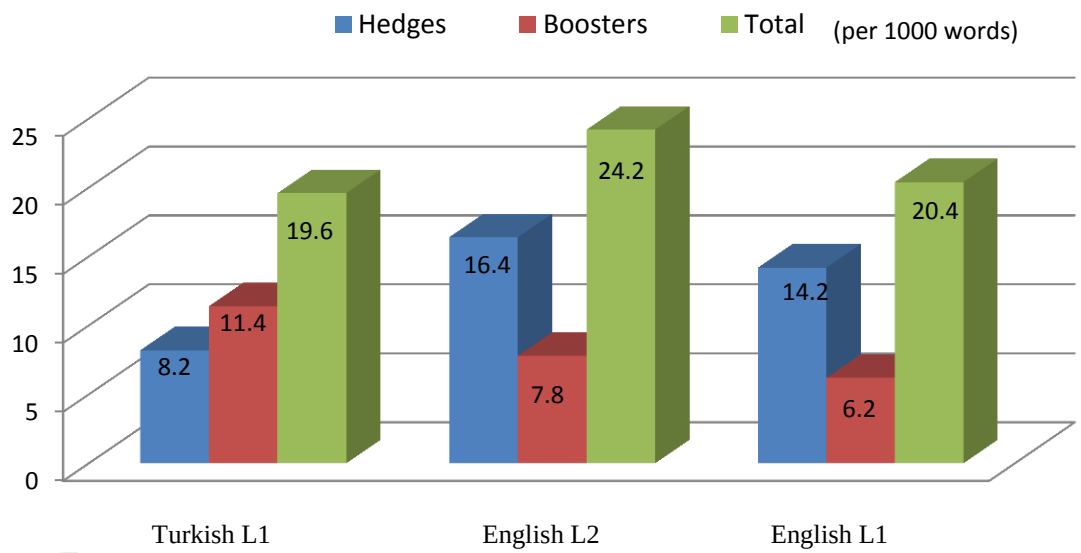


Figure 4.1. Mean frequency of hedged and boosted sentences (per 1000 words).

Based on the calculations stated in Section 3.7, the total density of hedges and boosters in the discussion sections was found to be higher for the Turkish writers of English (L2) compared with the other two groups. That is almost 27% more than for Turkish (L1) writers and 12% more than the English (L1) writers in qualifying their level of commitment and detachment through the use of hedges and boosters. Compared with the English L1 and L2 writers, the Turkish (L1) writers employed significantly fewer hedges (8.2 per 100 words), but more boosting resources (11.4 per 1000 words) in their discussion sections. This appears to be the inverse of the tone adopted by the Turkish L1 writers.

Not only were the Turkish L1 writers found to employ fewer hedges, but they also boosted their propositions (11.4 per 1000 words) with different expressions to present their knowledge claims with a more ‘assured’ nature. The balance of hedging

and boosting resources in the English texts (L1 and L2) was found to be higher with respect to hedges. That is to say, those writers employed more hedges and mostly presented their knowledge claims tentatively, and doing so with almost twice the number of items that they used for signalling their certainty and confidence with boosters. It is interesting to note that the Turkish writers of English (EL2), similar to what their culturally-linked peers (Turkish L1) did, seemed to prefer committing themselves to the propositions they produced more than the native English writers (EL1). In short, the position they took was somewhere between the Turkish and English L1 writers in terms of their commitment level.

Nevertheless, the case of the interlanguage users (EL2) in detaching themselves from what they presented to signal doubt or academic modesty is quite different. It was observed that the Turkish writers of English employed hedging resources more frequently than the native speakers of Turkish and English. This can also be seen from the overall comparison across groups (see Figure 4.1) in terms of the density of hedging resources.

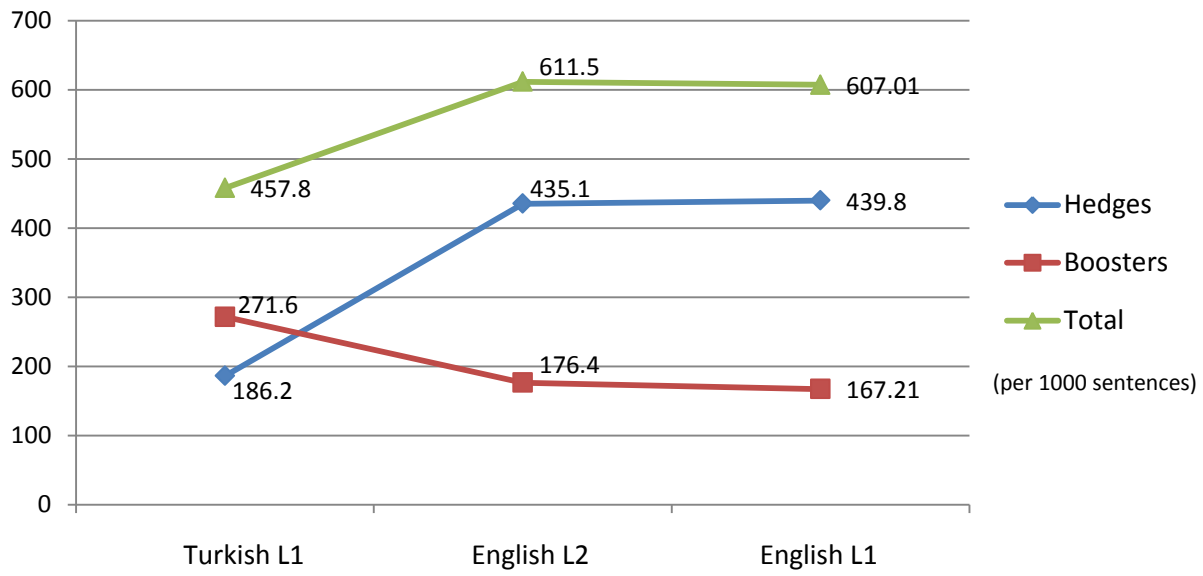


Figure 4.2. Mean Frequency of hedged and boosted sentences (per 1000 sentences).

As the Figure 4.2 above illustrates, L2 writers of English made use of slightly fewer hedged sentences (435.1 instances vs. 439.8 instances per 1000 sentences) than the native speakers of English. This is directly related to the greater number of sentences in the texts of the Turkish writers of English, as the EL2 writers were found to employ a reasonably greater number of hedging instances than the English L1 writers. Interestingly, the frequency of hedges used by the Turkish writers of English is more than twice compared with the number used by the Turkish L1 writers (186.2 vs. 435.1 per 1000 sentences). The overall picture of hedged and boosted sentences (per 1000 sentences) also shows that the postgraduates writing in English attempted to tone down their knowledge claims by the use of hedges more often than boosting and showing their confidence in their assertions, which is opposite of what Turkish L1 writers did.

4.2.1 Statistical tests for commitment-detachment across groups

In order to see whether the difference across groups regarding the level of commitment was statistically significant or not, a Kruskal-Wallis test was run.

Ranks

	Group	N	Mean Rank
Commitment	Turkish (TL1)	30	62.70
	Turkish of English (EL2)	30	42.43
	English (EL1)	30	31.37
	Total	90	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	Commitment
Chi-Square	22.198
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Group (TL1 vs. EL2 vs. EL1)

Figure 4.3. Kruskal-Wallis Test for commitment across three groups (TL1, EL2, EL1).

As can be seen from the Figure 4.3 above, the test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference across the three groups of writers (H (2): 22.198, p=0.00) with a mean rank of 62.70 for the Turkish L1 writers, 42.43 for the Turkish writers of English, and 31.37 for the English L1 writers. Although Figure 4.3 implied the groups which seemed to create the significance indirectly, the writers were grouped as cultural and language pairs to see whether these two variables had an effect on the employement of boosting resources. So, two Mann-Whitney U tests were run respectively.

Ranks

	T1+T2, E1	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Commitment	Turkish	60	52.57	3154.00
	English	30	31.37	941.00
	Total	90		

Test Statistics[a]

	Commitment
Mann-Whitney U	476.000
Wilcoxon W	941.000
Z	-3.629
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Grouping Variable: T1+T2, E1

Figure 4.4. Mann-Whitney Test for commitment across cultures (Turkish vs English)[23].

As can be seen from Figure 4.4 above, the culture variable had a statistically significant effect on the employment of linguistic resources signalling commitment towards the propositions. Therefore, the Turkish postgraduates (TL1 and EL2) seemed to be making use of more such items in their discussion sections than did the British writers.

[23] 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.

Ranks

	T1,E2+E1	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Commitment	Turkish	30	62.70	1881.00
	English	60	36.90	2214.00
	Total	90		

Test Statistics[a]

	Commitment
Mann-Whitney U	384.000
Wilcoxon W	2214.000
Z	-4.417
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Grouping Variable: T1,E2+E1

Figure 4.5. Mann-Whitney Test for commitment across languages (Turkish vs English)[24].

When the language variable was taken into account in the next Mann-Whitney U test to find out whether the writers who were writing in Turkish or English (L1 and L2) used more linguistic resources to convey their commitment (see Figure 4.5 above), it was found that the Turkish L1 writers differed significantly from the other two postgraduate profiles grouped as an English language pair. Therefore, it is possible to say that the group that made the significant difference across postgraduates was the Turkish L1 writers.

In order to find out whether postgraduate differed in employing hedging resources in the discussion sections, a Kruskal-Wallis test was run and it was found that the use of hedging resources varied significantly across three postgraduate profiles with a 0.000 P-value shown in Figure 4.6 below.

[24] 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.

Ranks

	Group	N	Mean Rank
Detachment	Turkish (TL1)	30	24.20
	Turkish of English (EL2)	30	58.17
	English (EL1)	30	54.13
	Total	90	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	Detachment
Chi-Square	30.271
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test

b. Grouping Variable: Group (TL1 vs. EL2 vs. EL1)

Figure 4.6. Kruskal-Wallis Test for detachment across the three groups (TL1, EL2, EL1).

Although the linguistic resources signalling detachment and softening the knowledge claim varied significantly across postgraduate texts based on the Kruskal-Wallis results, the group(s) creating such a significant difference was found via two-group comparisons with the culture and language variables (see Figure 4.7). As might be expected, the Turkish L1 writers, who seemed to prefer making more confident knowledge claims (based on the frequency and significance of boosters in their discussion sections), appeared to be employing fewer hedging resources compared with English-medium writers (EL1 and EL2), who employed significantly more hedging resources.

Ranks

	T1+T2, E1	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Detachment	Turkish	60	41.18	2471.00
	English	30	54.13	1624.00
	Total	90		

Test Statistics[a]

	Detachment
Mann-Whitney U	641.000
Wilcoxon W	2471.000
Z	-2.217
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.027

a. Grouping Variable: T1+T2, E1

Figure 4.7. Mann-Whitney Test for detachment across cultures (Turkish vs English).

Figure 4.7 above illustrated the significant difference between the cultural pairs (TL1+EL2 vs. EL1) with a 0.027 P-value based on the Mann-Whitney U test, and it was clear that the Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) seemed to be hedging less than the Brisith postgraduates in general. Nevertheless, as can be seen in Figure 4.1, the quantitative results obtained from the data illustrated that the Turkish writers of English (EL2) seemed to favour more hedging items in their writing. When the mean ranks of TL1 and EL2 postgraduates were calculated together as a cultural pair, the mean rank seemed to be decreased due to the lower TL1 mean rank in items signalling detachment. This also explains the 0.027 p-value; although it is still a significant result, it is not as significant as the 0.000 p-value reported by the Mann-Whitney U test based on the language variable (TL1 vs. EL2+EL1) shown in Figure 4.8 below.

Ranks

	T1,E2+E1	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Detachment	Turkish	30	24.20	726.00
	English	60	56.15	3369.00
	Total	90		

Test Statistics[a]

	Detachment
Mann-Whitney U	261.000
Wilcoxon W	726.000
Z	-5.469
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Grouping Variable: T1,E2+E1

Figure 4.8. Mann-Whitney Test for detachment across languages (Turkish vs English).

To sum up, according to the statistical results obtained from the Kruskal-Wallis tests, the differences across groups were all statistically significant in terms of linguistic items signalling commitment and detachment in postgraduate academic writing. Regarding the Mann-Whitney U tests establishing the level of significance based on the culture and language variables, it was found that the differences between cultures and languages were meaningful in terms of significance. In other words, both culture and language were found to be affecting the employment of hedging and boosting items.

4.2.2 Linguistic expressions of Commitment-detachment across postgraduates

There were some similarities as well as differences across groups in terms of how writers represented their level of commitment/detachment through linguistic realisations. In terms of categorical counts of items such as modal auxiliaries, or epistemic verbs, the English-medium writers differed from the Turkish ones. The modal auxiliaries were mostly used by English L1 and L2 writers to tone down their knowledge claims by signalling detachment to some extent. However, the modal and epistemic meanings were mostly achieved by the use of a specific suffix (-ebilir/-abilir), that is added at the end of the verb to indicate a degree of probability or possibility. As

this suffix can also be used to reveal ability and permission (deontic perspective) as with English modal auxiliaries (e.g., 'can' to express ability), the contexts in which suffix occurred were carefully examined in order not to include such meanings in the analysis. That is because, as Lyons (1977) pointed out, epistemic meaning is a determiner in defining one's commitment towards what one expresses. That indicated the process of qualifying one's commitment-detachment occured in postgraduate texts. The same procedure was applied to English modal auxiliaries. When an item was found to have/perform epistemic meaning to signal the assessment of the writer over the propositions, it was evaluated in terms of expressing commitment or detachment. Otherwise, the occurrence was removed from the analysis. An example below is an indication of how it was dealt with:

> Also, preparing open support groups in which international students ***can*** enter and exit any time and discuss issues regarding their adjustment ***can*** be valuable.

The example clearly illustrates that the writer employed the modal auxiliary *can* with two different functions. The first use of *can* could be linked to deontic usage where the subject is permitted/able to carry out an action; it is not simply an assessment of the writer over the proposition presented to reader. The other *can* in the example signals how the writer assessed the truth value of 'preparing open support groups' in the flow of argument and presents the opinion of the writer towards that assessment not in an assured and reinforced way. In contrast, the writer prepares the readership to deliver a mostly probable consideration of such support groups in the context of discussion and opens up reader's awareness in order to indicate that this may not work in every context but still valuable to arrange. Therefore, the writer is not committing him/herself to the proposition involved; a certain degree of detachment is added to the proposition instead of presenting it to reader as a really strong knowledge claim, as in '*Also, preparing open support groups….is of course valuable'*. Such a strong perspective would be very

‘definite’ and close down alternative considerations, and the writer would make him/herself highly committed to the proposition itself. The distinction between the epistemic and deontic meanings of the same expression was taken into account during contextual and manual analyses.

On the assumption that a range of linguistic means of expressions (which might not all occur in the present data) could be made use of by any writer in either language, the most favoured items by the Turkish and English L1 and L2 postgraduates were detected. As two different languages were included in the study, it is not feasible, in most cases, to introduce hedged and boosted sentences in Turkish and English based on the same grammatical labels, as the means of encoding such strategies in Turkish is mostly different (i.e. there are no modal auxiliaries in Turkish, but suffixes can be used to function in a similar way). Therefore, such differences will be presented as hedged/boosted sentences in English and Turkish separately.

4.2.3 Hedged sentences to signal a degree of commitment-detachment across groups

The concept of hedging has extended beyond the lexical items that Lakoff (1973) discussed. As the phenomenon has been under research for almost four decades, broader (not just uncertainty but also hesitancy, and politeness) and more distinctive features to underline the assessment of the user have been added to the concept. Such instances can be manifested in language use via a range of possible linguistic items and constructions. To qualify the assessment of the writers in the texts, it is possible to use modal auxiliaries, full verbs carrying an evaluative load, adverbs or adjectives. Such linguistic categories enable writers to make their discourse richer in terms of adding varied forms concerning ‘how’ the intended meaning is delivered to the readership from a more stylistic perspective. As the potential linguistic items carry a rhetorical function (stating doubt, hesitancy, academic modesty and politeness, avoiding preciseness and creating

vagueness, cautiousness, tentativeness) t or a combination, I will examine the linguistic means of achieving such effects.

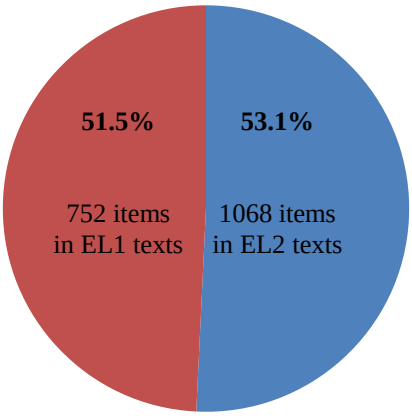


Figure 4.9. Percentage of modal auxiliaries in hedged sentences in the English texts (EL1 and EL2).

The English L1 and L2 writers mostly preferred using modal auxiliaries (such as *can, could, would,* or *may*) to qualify their truth value assessments as lower than completely true or close to the least possibility of being true. The total number of modal auxiliaries functioning as hedges in the discussion sections was 1068 instances for the Turkish writers of English (8.74 per 1000 words) and 752 instances for the native speakers of English (7.34 per 1000 words) as illustrated in Figure 4.9 above. The use of modal auxiliaries by both postgraduate groups as a hedging strategy was slightly higher than that of the total instances of other grammatical categories (modal auxiliaries vs. full verbs, adverbs, adjectives). The proportions of modal auxiliaries between the two groups of students who produced in English were thus almost identical. Modals accounted for 53.1% of all items representing hedges found in the texts of the Turkish writers of English (EL2); it was 51.5% of all hedges detected in the texts of the native writers of English (EL1). In short, it was clear that EL1 and EL2 postgraduates

preferred qualifying their propositions via modal items (as in (4) with *may + verb* and *can + verb*) or modal constructions (as in (2) *it may be that*):

(1) Applying these two ideas to the situation in Greater Manchester, **we might expect** linguistic features to spread from urban Manchester/Salford to the suburban towns of Greater Manchester. (EL1-12)

(2) **It may be that** society now fosters a greater belief in diversity and is working hard to reduce stereotyping. Younger participants **may** therefore have grown up in a more tolerant world and subsequently are less influenced by social stereotypes. (EL1-1)

(3) Keeping this in mind, **it can be deduced that** the teachers do not regard the Turkish students as being different from each other most of the time and constituting a cultural diversity which actually contradicts with their definitions of culture. (EL2-11)

(4) Moreover, **it can be concluded** that parents' attitude **can be** the reason of detecting no effect of teaching experience in having problems related evaluation. The teachers, regardless of their teaching experience, **may feel** uncomfortable when writing an evaluation about a child if the parents show serious reactions for the evaluation written for their child. So, this **may lead** teachers to soften or change their comments related children in evaluation part. (EL2-29)

Similar modal meaning was attached to the propositions in Turkish with a specific suffix (-ebilir/-abilir), which is added to the verbs to indicate possibility or probability as in (5). As regards the scale of commitment-detachment, some modal verbs (e.g., *can* vs. *may*) in English clearly express higher or lower degrees of possibility in the context of the propositions. However, it is not possible in Turkish to highlight distinct strengths of modification, as the suffix (-ebilir/-abilir) covers all degrees of weakening of the force of the claim.

(5) Öğrencinin üniversite yaşamı ile birlikte bağımsızlığını kazanma gibi bir sürece girmiş olması, olayları aile, arkadaş ve özel insanların bakış açısından farklı bir açıdan değerlendirmesine neden ol**abilir**. (TL1-14) [25]

[25] The translations of the Turkish extracts into English were checked by two PhD students who were also Turkish speakers of English. The traslations are as far as possible literal to reflect the original Turkish extracts.

(*The entrance of the student into the phase of gaining independence at the start of university life* ***can/could/would/may/might cause*** [26] *that s/he evaluates the events differently from the viewpoints of family, friends and special people*)

In other words, Turkish writers are restricted in terms of making the degree explicit by using that suffix (-ebilir/-abilir), as it can represent *can, could, would, may,* or *might* in English. The all-in-one suffix simply represents the notion of epistemic meaning, which can be specified in English via various modal verbs. This particular suffix constituted 70.2% of all hedging instances detected in the Turkish L1 texts, so it can be considered as the most frequent way of expressing hedging in the Turkish postgraduates' texts. Considering the fact that the incidence of hedging in the Turkish L1 texts is rather lower than with the English L1 and L2 writers and mostly represented by that suffix, the variety of other hedging resources might be expected to be quite narrow. This preference for marking the level of detachment with particular item could be seen as a monotonous method of building an interactional relationship with the readership. In other words, this tendency resulted in a very limited number of uses of full verbs, adverbs, adjectives or other means of expressing hedged meanings by Turkish postgraduates, amounting to just 174 instances altogether (29.8% of all hedges). Some of the typical examples from the sub-corpus of Turkish L1 writers are:

(6) Türk toplumunda, evin düzen ve tertibinden bayanlarin sorumlu olmasiyla, annelerin kiz çocuklarini da bu beklentiler dogrultusunda yetistirmeleriyle açiklan**abilir**. (TL1-24)
(In Turkish society, in consequence of women's being responsible for the plan and organisation of a home, mothers' bringing up their daughter ***can/could/would/may/might be explained*** *in accordance with this expectation)*

(7) Özetle şiddet içerikli bilgisayar oyunu oynayan oyuncu 'bir başkası' tarafından engellendiğini düşünüp daha fazla stres yaşamış ol**abilir**. (TL1-10)

[26] The suffix –ebilir/-abilir in Turkish is represented by *can, could, would, may,* or *might* in English with different strenghts of epistemic meaning. However as this is the translation of the original extract, it is thought that it should be free of bias.

*(A player, especially playing a computer game containing violence, can **may/might have had** more stress by thinking s/he was stopped by 'anyone else'.)*

(8) Sınav süresi 40 dakika ile sınırlandırıldığı için öğrenenler sınavı yetiştirme kaygısı yasamış ol**abilirler**. Sınav heyecanından dolayı öğrenenler cevabi hatırlayamamış veya optik cevap anahtarında kaydırma yapmış ol**abilirler**. (TL1-22)
*(As exam duration is limited to 40 minutes, learners **may/might have had** time anxiety. Because of the exam anxiety, learners **may/might not have remembered** the answers or **may/might have mismarked** in the optic answer key.)*

The instances of hedges in the Turkish L1 texts involving something other than the suffix (ebilir/abilir) are mostly limited to full verbs (12% of all hedges) and adverbs or adverbial phrases (13% of all hedges). The density of full verbs (such as *düşünülmektedir*, *görünmektedir*) was 0.96 per 1000 words and 1.06 per 1000 words for using adverbs to soften claims. This essentially shows that the use of such expressions was not frequently preferred over the -ebilir/-abilir suffix (5.72 per 1000 words). The rest of the hedging resources in the Turkish L1 texts (such as adjectives, nouns or other clausal elements) together constituted almost 5% of all hedges with each of these grammatical categories having rates of 0.15 per 1000 words. In short, the data supports the idea that the TL1 tended to favour detaching themselves from what they wanted to convey mostly through that one particular suffix.

When the means of hedging resources other than modal auxiliaries in the English L1 and L2 writers' texts are closely analysed, it can be seen that there are frequently used and consistent ways of weakening their propositional contents via the grammatical categories of full verbs, adverbs, adjectives, nouns and other clausal elements. The balance across these categories remained almost identical as it was in the use of modal auxiliaries (see Figure 4.9) by L1 and L2 writers of English in the present study. For instance, the use of full verbs constituted the second highest category in both

sub-corpora, amounting to 23% and 25% of all hedges in the texts of the Turkish writers of English and the English L1 writers respectively, as in the following examples.

(9) These finding **seems** fairly reasonable as far as characteristics of the region are taken into consideration, although comparing the relation of rural-urban differences to environmental values is beyond the scope of this analysis. (EL2-25)

(10) I **claim** that this is the case because even though there is development in the use of reflexives as proficiency level increases, the learner groups tested in this study did not converge fully with English native speaker‟s use of reflexives. (EL2-1)

(11) If participants were concerned over research into sexuality, the fact that it was clearly identified as optional may have made them less concerned about being judged by researchers solely interested in sexuality. This also **implies** that the wording of recruitment material and ethics forms may be very significant (EL1-23)

(12) Although examiners marking would have been reviewed already by team leaders, **it was felt that** moderation gives the opportunity to gain a better overall view of how the examiners had performed (EL1-6)

The density of that hedging type (full verbs) across the two groups was fairly similar (3.67 vs. 3.38 per 1000 words). The top five full verbs used by Turkish writers of English were *seem, suggest, indicate, tend* and *propose* and native speakers employed *suggest, seem, appear, argue* and *tend* as the most frequently used hedging verbs. It is interesting that both groups of writers made use of mostly tentative linking verbs (such as *seem, appear*, and *tend*) to reduce the force of the assertiveness and indicate that the accuracy of the information presented was most likely the case. When compared with the Turkish L1 writers (12% of all hedges; 0.96 per 1000 words), it is clear that the English L1 and L2 writers used more than double the proportion of full verbs functioning as hedges. Among the three groups, the English text seemed to involve significantly frequent number of the full verbs.

In terms of the hedging resources identified across the sub-corpus in the form of adverbs or adjectives, the Turkish (L1) writers employed adverbs a little more frequently than full verbs (1.05 per 1000 words), which constituted 13% of all hedges in

that group. The rates for using adverbs to tone down propositions in the English texts (L1 and L2) seemed to be really close to each other (English L2: 1.96 per 1000 words, English L1: 1.54 per 1000 words). The most common adverbs were probability and indefinite frequency adverbs such as '*genellikle*; *hemen hemen*, and *kısmen* for the Turkish L1 texts and *perhaps, likely,* and *almost* for the English texts (L1 and L2), as in:

(13) Davranışlarından ve yaptıkları hatalardan dolayı eleştirildiğini düşünen ergenler ile aileleri arasında tartışmaların olabileceği **muhtemeldir**. (TL1-24)
(***It is possible that*** *there can/could/would/may/might be an argument between families and teenagers who think they are being critized because of their behaviours and the mistakes they do)*

(14) Bu sonuçlar araştırmamızın sonuçlarını **kısmen** desteklemektedir.. (TL1-19)
(These results ***partially*** *support our research results)*

(15) **Perhaps**, we failed to elicit children's differential imagination of the context that involves their father, mother or friends just by reading the scenario (EL2-2)

(16) This is **likely** due to the multiple pathways interactive from genetic polymorphisms to diagnosed disorder, mediated by vague environmental risk factors (EL1-16)

The use of adjectives by the three groups involved a very low number of instances compared with other grammatical categories to signal the concerns of writers about the accuracy of the information presented. Only 2% of the hedges found in the Turkish L1 texts involved adjectives; that was the least frequent device with 0.15 per 1000 words compared with 0.89 (per 1000 words) in the Turkish writers of English texts and 0.72 (per 1000 words) in the native writers of English sub-corpus. The adjectives were mostly restricted to possibility and probability items such as *possible*, *potential*, and *probable* in the English texts (EL1 and EL2) most of which were combined with multi-word constructions, as in:

(17) Revealing shame, which indicates vulnerability of the person, is not compatible with the traditional patriarchal gender role that men should be powerful (Lewis & Ramsay, 2002). Therefore, **it is**

possible that more low SES boys than high SES boys reported to hide their shame. (EL2-2)

(18) **It is possible that** by recruiting the sample through email and online forums and by having participants complete the study online, the characteristics of the sample may be different from those used in previous studies which used paper forms and recruited directly from colleges and schools (EL1-1)

(19) In an evolved network, **it is probable that** two similar agents possessing similar traits belong to a similar group - i.e. are close together in the network. (EL1-9)

All three groups of writers made use of nouns and other means (clausal or phrasal elements) but in a very limited way. Generally, the use of nouns to underline the fact that the proposition presented was not a factual representation of what was in the real world or based on the actual study. The most common nouns were *assumption*, *tendency*, and *attempt* in the English texts (English L2: 0.40; English L1: 0.11). The Turkish L1 writers also rarely used nouns (e.g., *ihtimal*, *eğilim*, and *hipotez*) with the density of just 0.15 per 1000 words. However, the number of clausal or phrasal elements (e.g., *if* clauses, use of *whether* (20) to indicate what was unknown), to signal the precise standpoint for the presented information while judging the truth claim, was higher than for nouns across the groups, except for the native writers of Turkish. Some phrasal units were also used such as *from this perspective, it is difficult to say* to limit the way how the writer was looking at the case and evaluating in order not to generalise what was given but to convey the opinion reasonably acceptably as in (21).

(20) My main aim was to discover **whether** any added communication channel (in this case, the mouse-track and/or eye-track) between two members of a dyad in a joint construction task would work in the same way as the visual channel in face-to-face dialogue in their introductory mentions of a referent.

(21) **From the perspective of teachers**, lack of science centers and related materials prevents them from properly implementing science activities. (EL2-29)

The next section presents the quantitative results based on the instances of boosters contributing the commitment of the author. In other words, that is when writers are not withholding their commitment to a moderate or lower degree but strengthening the value given to convince readers by taking the full responsibility.

4.2.4 Boosted sentences to signal a degree of commitment-detachment across groups

The number of instances revealing a boosting effect and signalling a reasonably higher commitment degree varied in each group (819 items in Turkish L1; 949 items in English L2; 644 items in English L1) as illustrated in Figure 4.10 below. However, when I looked closely at the density of occurrences, it was found that the native Turkish writers tended to employ more boosters than the English L1 and L2 writers in general. The density of boosters for the Turkish L1 writers was 11.4 per 1000 words, which is considerably and noticeably higher than the figure for both the Turkish writers of English (7.8 per 1000 words) and the English L1 writers (6.2 per 1000 words). It is interesting to note that although the English L1 and L2 writers used boosters almost half as frequently than as hedges, the Turkish L1 writers revealed their viewpoints via a slightly higher use of boosters over hedges to show their confidence about statements. This represented a distinct style of writing adopted by the TL1 postgraduates in their discussion sections.

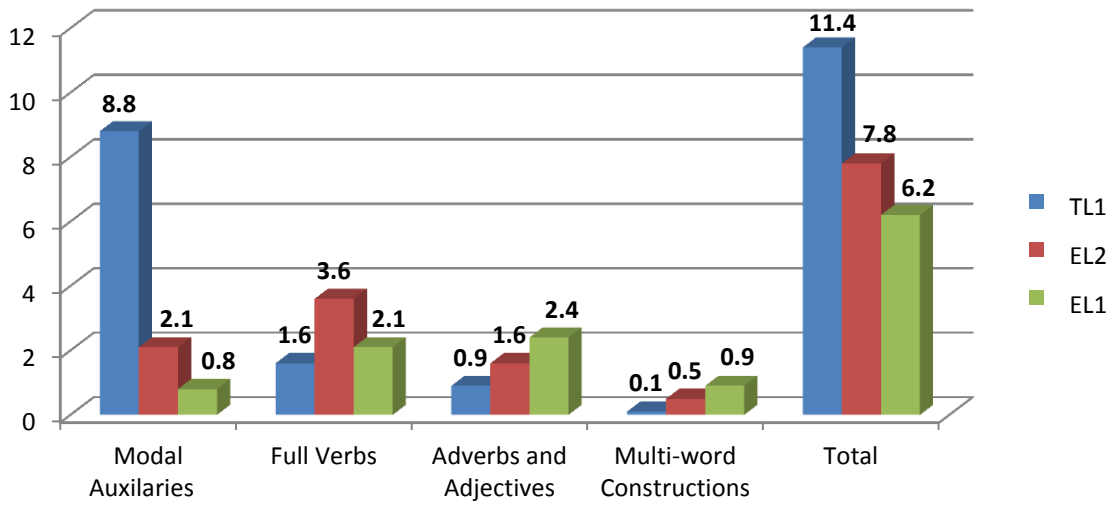


Figure 4.10. Linguistic realisations of booster across groups (per 1000 words).[27]

(22) Katılımcılardan alınan yanıtlar neticesinde kadın girişimciliği ile ilgili olan mikrokrediler ve eğitimler ile ilgili olarak yerel yetkililerin açıklayıcı ve detaylı çalışmalar yapmadıkları ve kadınların konu ile ilgili yeterli bilgi sahibi olamadıkları görül**müştür**. (TL1-21)
(*As a result of the participant responses, **it is found** that local authorities have not carried out any explanatory and detailed studies with respect to education and microcredits related to woman etrepreneurship, and women do not have enough information related to the subject.)*

(23) Bu nedenle yukarda saydığımız eksiklikler bir an önce çözülmesi mevcut kaygı ortamının da ortadan kalkmasını sağlay**acaktır**. (TL1-26)
*(For this reason, correcting the defficiencies, which are stated above, immediately **will enable** the present anxiety environment to come an end.)*

(24) Bu ifadelere istinaden unutulmamalıdır ki matematiğe karşı ilgisi olmayan bir kişiden matematikle ilgili kavramları benimsemesi düşünül**emez**. (TL1-9)
*(Based on these statements, it should not be forgotten that one's adopting concepts related to maths, with no interest in maths, **cannot be thought**.)*

The most common linguistic markers that Turkish L1 postgraduates employed in their discussion sections were suffixes marking the fact that the presented information was factual and reliable. There were three main suffixes used: *-mIştIr* (22), *-mAktAdIr*, *-AcAktIr* (23), and *-mAz* (24) as exemplified above. They are all added to the main verb in the sentences to qualify and reinforce the value of the propositions. Such suffixes

[27] Modal auxiliaries in Turkish do not occur as in English; however, some the suffixes are included as modal auxiliaries for the comparison purposes.

essentially signal the definitiveness of the proposition and effectively close down other possible interpretations. The density of such occurrences in expressing assertive and definitive statements was 8.8 items per 1000 words, which constituted almost 77% of all boosting strategies found in the group. The first suffix (*-mIştIr*) was employed more frequently than the others to provide assured information in relation to past events. Such instances contributed towards meeting the discoursal expectations of the readership in receiving true and valid information about research processes, results or findings that the writer had completed. The number of instances of this particular suffix was 411, which is the highest frequency of all the means of expressing certainty or modifying the overall illocutionary force of the knowledge claims (see the following extract). The force could easily be softened via other available hedging resources, but, the author preferred to sound more certain about the proposition presented by reinforcing it via *-mIştIr*:

> (25) Katılımcıların geçmişle kurdukları etkileşim onları tarihe değer vermeye yönelterek bazı değerleri geliştirmelerine veya var olan değerleri fark etmelerine de yardımcı o**lmuştur.** (TL1-30)
> *(Participants' interaction with the past **did help** them develop some values or notice the existing values by directing them to cherish to the history.)*

Compared with the *-mIştIr* suffix, *-mAktAdIr* was used to emphasise the soundness of the knowledge claim at the time it was produced and delivered, therefore, it is much more acceptable, as the author is making him/herself as the authority conveying the factual information, rather than doubtful or vague claims, to the intended audience. Such occurrences were employed in encoding the proposition to mark explication, demonstration, justification or revelation of what was presented. Not only did the writers increase the validity and reliability of the information, but they also intentionally emphasised their higher levels of certainty about it. The total number of such presentation of knowledge claims was 155, which makes the density 2.1 per 1000 words. However, as the suffix is added to the main verbs of a sentence, the verb (e.g.,

göstermek, ortaya çıkmak) can also increase the force of the sentence in combination with such suffixes, as in the examples (26) and (27):

(26) Öğrencilerin bu tür soruları örüntü olarak değerlendirmeleri, onların örüntü kavramı ile de sorunları olduğunu göster**mektedir**. (TL1-9)
*(Students' evaluation of this kind of questions as pattern **shows** that they have some problems with the pattern concept.)*

(27) Kadın girişimciliğinin en önemli engelleri olarak kadınların finansal desteklerinin ve kendilerine güvenlerinin olmaması ortaya çık**maktadır**. (TL1-21)
(*The biggest obstacles of woman entrepreneurship emerge from their having no financial support and self confidence to themselves.)*

Making highly certain and strong claims in relation to present or future expected outcomes of the study, method, or findings, by adding *-AcAktIr* to the main verb of the sentence was also found to be one of the novel ways of increasing the truth value of the propositions. Nevertheless, it was not as common as the other means of expressing certainty (47 items over a total of 819 for all boosters). As most of the cases of *–AcAktIr* involved producing strong claims to flag highly probable interpretations of the writer, they can be regarded as uncontentious inferences and attempts to convince the reader to a greater extent, by adopting a confident voice of authority.

(28) Bu çalışmada uzamın Fransızcadan yola çıkılarak incelenmesi yabancı dil olarak Türkçe öğrenenlerin Türkçedeki uzamsal birimleri daha iyi anlamalarını ve daha kolay öğrenmelerini sağlay**acaktır.** (TL1-18)
*(In this study, the examination of the extension, based on French, **will make** it easier for students learning Turkish as a foreign language to learn better the spatial units at Turkish.)*

(29) Bu bağlamda, okulun arkadaşlık ilişkilerini geliştirebilecek şekilde organize edilmesi yararlı ol**acaktır**. Sözgelimi grup faaliyetlerinin ya da ekip çalışmasının özendirilmesi ve çalışma yerinin buna göre düzenlenmesi bu amaca katkıda bulun**acaktır**. (TL1-14)
(*In this context, **it will be useful** to organise a school which will develop friendship relation. For example, encouraging group-work or team-work and arranging workplace accordingly **will contribute** to the purpose.)*

The last suffix added to main verbs in the Turkish L1 texts to signal the level of certainty was *-mAz*, which can best be translated into English as *cannot*, when the author is underlining a theoretical or practical impossibility that obviously includes a

higher degree of indisputable information and a definitive proposition. The use of the *-mAz* suffix is not as frequent as *cannot* is in the English L1 and L2 texts; there were only a few items functioning as described, making up 0.13 instances per 1000 words.

(30) Bir millet için iyi sonuçlar doğurmuş gelişmelerin, başkaları için de iyi sonuç doğuracağını kimse garanti ede**mez**. Çok partili hayata geçisin Türkiye'de önemli değişiklikler yarattığı kesindir. (TL1-16)
(*The developments which brought good results for a nation,* ***cannot*** *guarantee to bring the good results for others as well. It is for sure multipolitical party system has created crucial changes in Turkey.*

The rest of the boosting strategies in the Turkish L1 texts were mainly limited to adverbs and adjectives (56 items in total, amounting to 0.8 instances per 1000 words) which contributed to the overall intended meaning of the propositions such as *Nitekim, Mutlaka*, and *Elbette*. It was quite hard to differentiate the instances of full verbs with a boosting effect, as most of them were combined with the suffixes as mentioned above. However, the full verbs (e.g., *göstermek, ortaya çıkmak, ispatlamak*) were still identified when serving to close down other alternatives and emphasising the nature of information to be taken for granted by the intended audience. The number of full verbs as booster was 106, which is not as dense as for suffixes, but was significantly higher than the figure for other means (1.5 per 1000 words). The use of multi-word constructions or clausal elements to signal higher level of certainty was rarely present in the Turkish L1 texts, with only 7 instances (approximately 0.1 per 1000 words). As an example the emphatic construction followed by *ki* was used to emphasise the force of the subsequent proposition related to one of the main findings of the research (see example 31).

(31) Araştırma sonucunda görülmüştür **ki** yaratıcı düşünme becerisi desteklenerek işlenen derslerde öğrenci başarısı artmaktadır. (TL1-26)
(*It was found that the student success increase in classes supporting creative thinking abilities)*

As described above, the density of boosters used by the English L1 and L2 writers in the discussion sections of the master's dissertations was much lower than for

the Turkish L1 writers. This showed that the Turkish writers of English and the native writers of English preferred to produce lower degree of commitment based on the analysis of the sub-corpora. Nevertheless, even though they did so less frequently than the Turkish L1 writers, both the L1 and L2 writers of English attempted to signal their high certainty and confidence towards the knowledge claim via a range of lexical means (i.e. auxiliary verbs, full verbs, adverbs and adjectives and multi-word constructions).

The English L1 and L2 writers frequently employed epistemic lexical verbs carrying an emphasising effect or showing the packaged information was assured through such boosters. The number of instances was 435 items in the texts of the Turkish writers of English (3.6 per 1000 words), amounting to more than half of the all boosters (53% of all) in the sub-corpus; as against 202 items in the English L1 texts (approximately 2 instances per 1000 words) which constituted 32% of all booster expressions in their texts. The top three most frequent epistemic lexical verbs were *find*, *show*, and *reveal* in both groups of English writers (L1 & L2) despite differences in the frequencies of the items. By strengthening and underlining the relationship between evidence/warrant and knowledge claim, the writers presented firmer and assured conclusions, and attempted to convince their readers to accept them by signalling their notably higher level of certainty, as in:

(32) The results **showed** that preschool teachers had more problems related to evaluation and physical facilities compared with problems areas such as goals and objectives, content, teaching and learning process, plans and activities and social environment. (EL2-29)

(33) The study **revealed** that materials provide the basis for language input, and choosing the materials is a vital phase of curriculum planning. (EL2-26)

(34) The study **did find** that overall experience was a predictor of teaching efficacy and that with more experience efficacy increased. (EL1-1)

(35) 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)

The next frequent choice for Turkish writers of English (EL2) in promoting and qualifying their knowledge claims by marking a higher level of commitment was auxiliary verbs such as *will, cannot, should* and *must* (1.95 per 1000 words). The reinforcement of truth value of the propositions via such expressions enabled the writers to represent a confident voice of authority to some extent in their discourse.

(36) These goals **must be** understood by both the teacher and the learner because the success of a programme depends on to what extent the goals of both sides overlap (EL2-26)

The native writers of English (EL1) used adverbs and adjectives more frequently than the other two groups in their discourse to convey conviction (see Figure 4.10). The total number of instances was 242 items in total and constituted approximately 40% of all boosters in that sub-corpus. The typical examples of boosters from that category are *in fact* (37), *of course* (38), *obviously* as adverbs and *clear* (39), *evident* (40) as adjectives.

(37) **In fact,** the theme of belonging is an important one in this discussion regarding young people at risk of exclusion from school (EL1-5)

(38) **Of course**, there are many elements of language that are not arbitrary - the presence of linguistic universals rules this out - but many, such as particular realisations of phonemes are simply negotiated within the social exchange. (EL1-9)

(39) **It is also clear that** beginners are accepted socially and become increasingly involved and engaged in the topics that flow around the staffroom, age and experience do not appear to inhibit social acceptance within teams. (EL1-2)

(40) **It is evident** from discussion with the practitioners involved in the study, as a further illustration, that the online forum tended to assist in the assessment of pupils because it was an exact recording of children's discourse and interactions. (EL1-8)

Compared with the Turkish writers of English (EL2), the English L1 writers employed considerably fewer auxiliary verbs (79 instances) to indicate and modify how certain they were in presenting their knowledge claims. The most commonly used auxiliaries were *will* (41) and *cannot* to underline the higher level of certainty of the writer towards the proposition.

> (41) From another perspective, that which the teacher deems appropriate material for a course curriculum, assigned reading, or research project **will inevitably reflect** upon a student's understanding of what is deemed a relevant point of discussion. (EL1-13)

The instances constructed via multi-word items/patterns such as *the fact that*, *no+ noun* construction, or emphatic *do* were also chosen by English L1 and L2 writers as a means of boosting. The density of such choices was 0.5 resources per 1000 words in the texts of Turkish writers of English whereas the native speakers of English tended to employ more frequently, with 0.9 instances per 1000 words. Interestingly, the English L1 writers favoured the use of emphatic *do* to boost the main verb and the proposition in overall almost ten times more than Turkish writers of English (47 items vs. 5 items).

> (42) **The fact that** it has no effect in syntactic complexity and lexical variation but a little in accuracy also shows that an increase in cognitive task complexity may lead learners to produce a text which is correct but not necessarily more syntactically and lexically varied. (EL2-9)

> (43) **No differences** were found between student and in-service teachers on beliefs about teacher influence or on beliefs about the influence of pupil SES and gender on achievement and the hypotheses in these areas were therefore not supported. (EL2-2)

> (44) Laying down the expectation that all schools should be using some form of virtual learning environment or online collaboration tool by 2010 **does therefore raise** certain barriers for some practitioner. (EL1-8)

To sum up, it should be noted that the three writer group profiles exhibited different tendencies in attempting to persuade the readership of the points they wanted

to convey. Nevertheless, the convincing nature of the claims with appropriate modification was mostly represented in different ways in each group. The Turkish L1 writers mostly employed particular suffixes to boost the intended meaning and mark the proposition as substantiated in the light of available evidence and arguments.

4.3 Qualitative analysis: Commitment-detachment across postgraduate academic texts

As stated previously, the linguistic choices adopted by writers while producing academic prose are aimed at persuading the readership to accept their knowledge claims and to manipulate the way readers might interpret the propositional content. Martin-Martin (2008) pointed out that hedges are intentionally used by writers to protect themselves from producing false claims or statements by signalling their lack of complete commitment towards a proposition; in contrast, the voice can also easily be altered by employing other linguistics devices, boosters, to indicate a higher confidence level by the writer towards the truth value of the propositions. In other words, as Hyland (1996) notes, creating a distance and a purposive vagueness towards what is asserted could be achieved via hedging phenomena flagging in a particular level of detachment, compared with devices revealing writer's full commitment to the truth of the proposition. Such uses of indicating level of commitment/detachment greatly contributes to the interpersonal dialogue between writer and intended readership, despite the fact that it is indirect: the writer produces the text when the readership is not present, and subsequently the text is read by the readership when the writer is not present.

Although it is quite hard (maybe unreliable to some extent) to match specific expressions with particular functions, due to the complex and polypragmatic nature of many linguistic items, hedging and boosting devices, in the present study, were considered to affect both the propositional content and the addressee that the meaning

was conveyed to. Therefore, it cannot be expected that every single device could be employed to perform exactly the same function, as it is almost impossible to find the actual motivation leading a writer to employ a certain strategy. However, it could be easier to group instances where the writer is stressing a complete or higher level of commitment versus decreasing it to signal complete lack of commitment (full detachment). In other words, varying degrees of writer's confidence, based on his/her assessment of the information in the propositions, could be seen discourse ally as a communicative strategy, so that the writer conveys the intended meaning to the readership as convincingly as possible. In the process of convincing the readership, a more cautious and detached style could alternatively be adopted in order to protect the writer's own face from potential criticism of the knowledge claim asserted, whereas a considerable amount of conviction would be provided and presented to the addressee with the warrant (i.e. enough evidence to claim as confidently as possible). This simply increases or reduces the force and truthfulness status of a proposition. As an example, the epistemic cluster of *it is clear that* would indicate how the writer wants to be aligned with the subsequent proposition by limiting the possibility of getting rejected and disagreed with by the intended audience as regards the assertion of knowledge claim. The writer essentially hopes to increase the force of the proposition and convince the readership by showing and signalling how authoritative that claim is.

After quantifying the occurrences of commitment-detachment strategies in Turkish and British postgraduates' academic texts, a set of items was established and analysed with a view to finding their textual patterns, such as pragmatic functions, in relation to achieving discourse acts. This section aims to shed light qualitatively on some particular uses by postgraduates and show how they differed from and resembled to each other. To this end, I shall evaluate instances signalling the writer's Commitment and Detachment towards the propositions by focusing on groups and the discourse

functions achieved. An overall comparison of the three groups (by grouping them as *language* and *culture* pairs) will be summarised towards the end of Chapter 4.

A critical and close look to the present data resulted in a range of discourse acts that the writers attempted. While carrying out these discourse acts, some postgraduates mostly favoured committing themselves to the proposition for the sake of influencing readers (to convince them and be accepted). In contrast, some others detached themselves from the proposition in order to anticipate possible criticism they might receive from their intended audience (mostly, examiners in this context). Some of the discourse acts that were identified and considered while examining C-D included *presenting and interpreting the results, evaluating previous research findings and comparing results, mentioning methodological considerations, promoting research and particular findings,* and *elaborating argument*.

4.3.1 Signalling commitment-detachment while evaluating previous research findings

The Turkish L1 writers tended to make use of the previous research/literature differently from the English L1 and L2 writers. The degree of assurance and certainty presented to the readership in relation to others' work was considerably higher, and suggested that the Turkish L1 writers reported and treated the information taken from the literature as accepted facts. This seems to be the case in most of the TL1 texts. Example (45) below exhibited that the writer was putting forward a knowledge claim (underlined and in italics) fully committed and started listing sources supporting the argument of how an intellectual structure is built when individuals put into writing what they have learnt. All the sources coming afterwards have linguistic signals (both strong positioning verbs and suffixes) that the propositions were strongly approved by the writer and presented as accepted via *sonucuna varmıştır* ('concluded that'); *ispatlamıştır* ('proved that'); *ortaya çıkarmıştır* ('revealed that'):

(45) *Bireyin öğrendiklerine ilişkin düşüncelerini yazıya aktarması, kavramlara ilişkin düşünsel yapının ortaya çıkarılması açısından anlamlıdır*. ***Hand ve Prain (2002)*** konuyla ilgili yaptıkları çalışmada, yazmanın kavramlara ilişkin yanılgıları ortaya çıkardığı ve kavramsal öğrenmeyi gerçekleştirmede etkili olduğu ***sonucuna varmıştır***. Benzer şekilde ***Bulloc (2006)*** yaptığı çalışmada, yazmanın kavramlara ilişkin ön bilgileri ortaya çıkardığını ve kavramsal değişimi sağlamada etkili olduğunu ***ispatlamıştır. Reilly (2007)*** de öğrencilere matematik dersinde konu ile ilgili yazı yazdırılmasının, öğrencilerin matematiksel kavramları öğrenmelerinde büyük katkı sağladığını ***ortaya çıkarmıştır***. (TL1-29)

(*Transferring individual`s thoughts to writing about what he has learned, it is meaningful in terms of revealing/uncovering the intellectual structure.* ***Hand and Prain (2002) revealed*** *in their study about this subject that writing reveals delusions/errors regarding concepts and it is effective in performing of conceptual learning. Similarly,* ***Bulloc (2006) proved*** *in his study that writing reveals foreknowledge about concepts and it is effective in providing conceptual change.* ***Reilly (2007) revealed*** *that making students write about the subject in maths classes contributes hugely in learning mathematical concepts.)*

(46) *Bu yöntemin başarılı olabilmesi için öğrencilerin ortama yönelik görüşlerinin ve doyumlarının yüksek olması gerekmektedir.* ***Akkoyunlu ve Yılmaz-Soylu (2006)*** yaptıkları araştırmada öğrencilerin büyük çoğunluğunun karma öğrenme ortamına yönelik görüşlerinin olumluluk düzeyinin orta ve yüksek seviyede olduğunu ***tespit etmişlerdir***. ***Balcı (2008)***'nın araştırmasının sonucunda da öğrencilerin, karma öğrenme uygulaması hakkındaki görüşlerinin gayet olumlu olduğu ***tespit edilmiştir. Lin (2008)*** işe karma öğrenme ortamına yönelik öğrencilerin doyum ve görüşlerinin belirlenmesi amacıyla yaptığı araştırmanın sonucunda yüksek seviyede doyuma ulaşıldığı ***ortaya koymuştur***. (TL1-27)

(*It is required that the opinions of students and their satisfaction about environment and must be high for this method to be successful.* ***Akkoyunlu and Yilmaz-Soylu (2006) found*** *in their study that the level of positiveness of the opinions of most students about mixed education environment was on a middle and high level.* ***It was found that*** *students` opinions/views about application of mixed education were quite positive in the result of* ***Balci`s (2008)*** *research.* ***Lin (2008)*** *on the other hand,* ***revealed*** *that it has been reached high level of satisfaction in his research result which was made by the purpose of determining of the students` satisfaction and opinion about mixed educational environment.)*

Exactly the same pattern as in (45) was detected in most of the discussion sections of Turkish writers, as illustrated in (46) which is from another writer's text. The strategy interestingly seemed to be matched with the previous extract where the writer first made his/her knowledge claim with great confidence about the blended learning method and what is required in order to be successful with it. Then, it is

apparent that the writer supported the claim with the help of previous research, of which the writer increased the epistemic force and positioned him/herself towards the sources by employing strong evaluative verbs and the suffix *–mIştIr*. Similarly, the verbs allowed the writer to accept the truth value of the knowledge claim made by the source. Although the claims made by the original writers were attributed in the text, the postgraduate writer was the one who made the choice to use such boosting devices in order to highlight the fact that the ideas were already approved by him/her and were offered to intended audience as accredited knowledge. There could have been a major difference if the writer had used weaker epistemic verbs regarding authors' work such as *speculate* or *suggest*, which could imply that the writer believed the reported content to be true but chose to be hesitant. Therefore, the writer strategically preferred not to detach him/herself from what s/he inferred from the original sources.

An apparent discourse act found in the discussion sections of the Turkish writers of English was comparing the results/findings either within the study or with results/findings already in the literature. Thus the writer in (47) simply reduces his/her degree of commitment by stating tentativeness in terms of the literature results. There were some differences in the studies s/he possibly went thorough, the writer attempted to point out that the intended audience could also come across some different results (as the writer did) based on particular variables highlighted. Accordingly, this knowledge claim is essentially warranted by the results of a previous study to illustrate the writer's doubtful assessment towards the truthfulness status of propositions. This can be regarded as a way of involving tentativeness while generalising the outcomes, without presenting them forcefully.

(47) Although related literature **tended to report somewhat similar results**, slight variations **can be found** with respect to age, socio-economic status, values, culture, location, occupations, and knowledge about environmental issues. For example, in their two studies, Thompson and Barton (1994) found their participants (mean age of 43

years old) to be more eco-centric, less anthropocentric and expressing less apathy about environmental problems and issues. (EL2-25)

Indicating the lack of certainty or definitiveness about the results based on experimental research design does not mostly allow writers to produce definitive claims or to signal a higher level of commitment towards the information. That is partly because not having sufficient evidence can prevent writers from conveying meaning with a sense of definitiveness. Nevertheless, the postgraduate writers try to persuade the readership with the evidence obtained. This is done by highlighting the assessment of authors towards the information introduced. When comparing the results/findings of their own research with the previous research, the postgraduates (EL2) attempted to present a reasonable explanation involving some tentativeness, in order to indicate how different/similar it is from/to the literature. Considering the likelihood of experimental limitations, it could be expected that novice writers would strategically recognize that their results might be based on conjecture and therefore combine speculative judgement with a more cautious style.

The example below (48) illustrates a typical occurrence where a Turkish writer of English decreases his/her responsibility and certainty over the preciseness of the knowledge claim, by underlining their speculative contribution when noting that a particular finding that is not consistent with previous research. As can be seen, the postgraduate adopted a detached position for that particular finding and aimed to indicate the contradiction (via *however*) between a really strong claim by McKay and the finding based on his/her qualitative data.

(48) Another finding that differs from McKay's is related to the association of English with English native-speaking cultures. McKay strongly argued that EIL can no longer be linked to NS cultures, and thus there is no need to base materials on NS models. The qualitative data, however, **suggested that to some extent** teachers still take the culture of L1 countries as a basis for their teaching materials, but they also emphasized the importance of local culture. (EL2-28)

It is apparent that example (48) informs and directs the reader towards a specific interpretation of the information presented. This also allows the intended audience to apprehend how the writer thinks and expects to be accepted, by asserting in a tentative way that McKay's finding does not seem to be relevant in the context of the study. It would be too authoritative to write that what McKay found was not correct or reliable, and therefore, the postgraduate writer signalled that s/he was aware of possible exceptions (such as the data of the study) no matter how strong McKay was in her argument. The use of *suggest* instead of *show* or *reveal* can be also regarded as a way of avoiding a stronger commitment towards the proposition, to leave some room for the audience to decide. In other words, such a strategy of reducing the level of commitment to (and moving towards detachment from) what is asserted might possibly gain the writer more credibility than making a strong assertion about the way that the qualitative data in (48) reveals something completely inconsistent with the source.

The Turkish writers of English (EL2) generally displayed a considerable degree of tentativeness about the sources they looked at, as it might not have been possible to search and access all related literature on the topic and field they studied/wee interested in. Although the writer in (49) clearly suggested that not much attempt had been made to investigate a particular phenomenon when a range of literature sources were considered, it was possible to withhold commitment by noting that the result might be based on his/her limited knowledge. This seems to be supported with the sources cited and results in a gap that the writer could then fill. Therefore, the findings of the postgraduate can constitute a novel contribution to disciplinary knowledge and the writer announces that with full commitment, as s/he has already pointed out the missing knowledge in the field (at least as far as s/he believes or knows). In contrast to such a way of presenting the gap tentatively, if s/he had emphasised that there had not been any

research at all, the reader might have simply assumed that s/he had not done enough reading and was sounding too forceful.

> (49) **To our knowledge**, there is not yet much attempt across cultures to unearth display rules of guilt although there is a body of research on conceptual and phenomenological aspects of guilt (i.e., Zahn-Waxler, Kochanska, Krupnick, & McKnew, 1990; Fergusson et al., 1999; Tangney, et al., 1992; Teroni & Deonna, 2008) and a few studies investigating children's display rules of guilt in Western cultures (i.e. Kochnska, et al., 2002; Kochanska & Aksan, 2006). The findings of the present study extend the literature on display rules of guilt by revealing Turkish children's decisions to express or hide their emotions and their reasoning of those display rules. (EL2-2)

In the texts of the Turkish writers of English, it was found that the attributed sources were also employed to attract the reader's attention and support the main knowledge claim. However, the assessment of the writer towards the source and the likelihood of the proposition being true or not are of great importance in supporting the main argument of the discourse. The example below (50) illustrates that the conclusion put forward by another study was reported tentatively, via the non-factive verb (*suggest*), and the epistemic force was reduced with the modal verb *may*. What is presented ostensibly exhibited a provisional idea and reader was invited to become involved in ratifying it. As the proposition by Herman and Polivy has already been in the published literature and received some acceptance from the scientific community, the writer subsequently built his own knowledge claim in relation to their point of view. In other words, the support supplied from the literature with a reasonable degree of detachment expressed via *suggest* enabled the writer to produce a final context-limited (*in this study*) proposal regarding the finding by marking it as personally assured.

> (50) Herman and Polivy (1976) **suggest** that certain emotional or physical states which inhibit self-control **may** interfere with dietary restraint, implying that restraint on eating requires self-control. In line with this view, restrained eating in this study **was found to be associated** to measures of affect regulation; and the direction of this relationship was opposite to that observed for emotional eating. (EL2-7)

By pointing out the departure point from earlier research/literature with a sense of detachment, the Turkish writers of English (EL2) sometimes attempted to stress the novelty of a knowledge claim for a particular context, despite the fact that it somehow contradicted. As can be seen from example (51) below, the writer seems to fully commit him/herself to the interpretation made, based on how the participants consider the term 'culture', and signals the a high degree of certainty (*clearly shows that*) about the truth value of the conclusive proposition (teachers are aware) and its importance for the context of the research. The use of literature sources and indicating a lack of definitiveness could be considered to be a way of indicating the novel contribution of their study to the literature, as in the following example:

> (51) Although **the literature suggests** that there are many different ways that the term culture can be defined, most of the teachers who participated in the study believe that culture is nationality-bound and thus there is a close relationship between their nationalities and their ways of behavior. **This clearly shows that** the teachers are **quite aware of the fact that** the students are naturally different from each other in terms of their personalities, characters, and behaviors depending on their different cultural backgrounds, which is an important step for building a culturally inclusive environment. (EL2-11)

In contrast to previous example, the postgraduate writer in (52) presented his novel claim by citing the available literature but the literature was used as a complementary source for a highly committed and certain claim about the impossibility of an action. The proposition was simply reinforced via the use of *cannot* indicating impossibility in the circumstances concerned boosting the definitiveness of the proposition.

> (52) As White (1989) argues, **it cannot be determined for sure** whether the L2 learners have the necessary level of L2 proficiency to demonstrate if a specific principle is operating in their interlanguage grammar. (EL2-1)

Instead of claiming directly and confidently that what the earlier research has put forward was invalid for the context in which the research carried out, the writer

preferred to weaken the claim by reducing the level of commitment and conveying the lack of definitiveness. Example (53) below illustrated that the writer is presenting the contradictory finding as an unexpected case, implying that there can be some contextual and cultural differences between Western culture, where a number of studies have been carried out, and the Turkish context. By using *it seems that*, the writer attempted to contribute the discipline by allowing readers to recognize the possibility of a different situation from what was available in the literature.

> (53) Previous studies in Western cultures indicates that as the child gets older, in line with their social-cognitive development their reasoning and knowledge about the antecedents and consequences of emotion expression and their consideration of others' needs develops and become more complex (Saarni, 1979; Cole, 1986; Casey, 1993; Denham, 1998; McElvain, et al., 2007, Zeman & Garber, 1996). **It seems that** the developmental pattern reported in previous research in Western cultures did not emerge in Turkish children. (EL2-2)

One of the common practices that the EL1 writers employed was to display their detachment from the idea put forward by other researchers through specifying or limiting at the non-factivity of the source claim. The partial agreement appears in most cases as in (54), where the use of *argue* as a reporting verb (and hedge) seemed to suggest some doubt and detachment by postgraduate. It is interesting to note that the writer made use of another source to tackle what might have caused the writer to have partial agreement with Huckle (2008). The second attributed source in the example can be regarded as a complementary and supportive argument by the postgraduate on his position towards Huckle. This typical example illustrates well how writers detached themselves from the ideas of other researchers without conveying a firm conviction towards the knowledge claims of the sources.

> (54) Huckle (2008) **argued** upon four reasons why he believed New Labours eight doorways had failed. **I would agree with Huckle to a certain degree** that the systems of competition and privatization at face value do appear not to promote sustainability, however if stronger understanding of the closed loop thinking system as described by

Webster & Johnson (2008) was attained by all then some advancement could be seen. (EL1-25)

4.3.2 Signalling commitment-detachment while presenting findings and interpreting results

As expected, the discussion sections of the dissertations mainly present a combination of interpreting the results of the research and comparing them with previous studies to reach a conclusion. However, the way the Turkish writers of English interpreted their results seemed to be more detached. This might be related to the warrant and the level of confidence they had in order to present the knowledge claim was not enough to produce a confident claim. As can be seen from the examples (55-56) below, while evaluating the main results of their studies, the Turkish writers of English withheld their commitment via *can* and *could*. The postgraduate writer in (55) seemed to want his intended audience to see how the participants in the research related their success in mathematics to being creative and communicative, from which writer made the inference. The aim could be to get acceptance from the intended audience who has been given the room to consider the relation between the evidence from the interview data and the writer's tentatively implied claim. In case the reader was not convinced by *it can be inferred* to accept that claim, the writer attempted to protect himself/herself from potential criticism by signalling a degree of doubt via *could*; this could be regarded as a good example of hedging one's bets as well.

(55) Most of the interviewed students indicated that they realized their potentials of being successful in mathematics, ability to act and produce or create something new. Also, they mentioned that they felt confidence in themselves and in communication with others. Thus, **it can be inferred** that feelings and efficacy beliefs about themselves **could** influence students' attitudes toward mathematics. (EL2-10)

(56) ... since a significant result was found regarding the relationship between cognitive task complexity and the quality of the written text, **it can be proposed** that the findings related to text quality are in parallel with the ideas underlying Robinson's (2001) Cognition Hypothesis. (EL2-9)

Example (56) illustrates the same use of a tentative ‘can’ to imply but not assert parallelism between the findings of the actual study and the attributed source’s hypothesis, in order to reduce the chance of getting rejected. The writer attempted to secure and move the reader to the standpoint s/he had by reducing the responsibility and the level of commitment. Had the writer worded the claim as ‘‘*it is clear that* the findings related to text quality are in parallel with the ideas underlying Robinson’s (2001) Cognition Hypothesis’’, s/he might have sounded too certain. Therefore, such linguistic choices can also be considered as a way of increasing the chances of getting ratified by the intended audience, regarding the knowledge claim presented to them.

Vartalla (2001) argued that the discussion parts in academic writing across disciplines, as being one of the most significant rhetorical sections, include mostly hedged propositions. This might be basically due to the nature of the information presented, where the speculative inferences and conclusions are generally put forward in the light of results and the way writers interpret them. This is likely, for the most part, to require the writers to convey the meaning of possibility and to indicate a lack of certainty about the propositions. In addition, it is regarded as one of the main conventional styles, to reduce the level of commitment in order to permit a generalisation, which if it were true, would be of academic interest. The strategy of reducing the level of commitment and asserting a degree of detachment could be achieved via a range of reporting verbs. As an example, *suggest* as the main verb in (57) below might potentially increase the chance of getting accepted by the intended audience, before the writer moves on to recommending the possible integration of internet-based reading tasks in EFL classes. This idea has been supported by the ‘evidence’ gathered from participants (via their positive attitudes) in that particular study; and the writer finds what results seem to show (without emphasising a higher level of certainty and commitment) to be convincing enough to permit such an

integration. Now, the reader is given the opportunity and room to consider the relationship across the results of the study, the writer's interpretation about participants' attitudes, and the proposal to bring internet-based sources into classroom, which it is implied, would contribute towards learners' improvement in reading skills. With a hesitancy of sounding too forceful, the postgraduate writer preferred displaying reasonable detachment in interpreting the result of his/her study and indicating that 'the writer is not prepared to personally guarantee the proposition' (Hyland, 1998, p. 173).

> (57) The results of this study **suggest** that the students and the teacher have positive attitudes towards using Internet sources to develop their English reading skills in foreign language instruction. Therefore, considering their positive feelings about using the Internet for improving their reading skills, Internet-based reading tasks can be integrated in foreign language instruction. (EL2-24)

It is obvious that most of the knowledge claims are produced by the text-owners- Tadros (1993) called this 'averral'- despite the fact that it is writer's rhetorical choice to detach his/her presence and foreground the research elements (such as data, finding) to protect the writer's self from potential attack and criticism. This could simply be achieved (as in (58) below) by the writer diminishing his/her appearance in the text, but letting the findings speak for themselves, by signalling a lack of definitiveness via the main verb *imply*:

> (58) **This finding implies** that individuals who prefer low levels of global thinking and high levels of local thinking report higher levels of psychological well-being compared with the individuals who prefer low level of both global and local thinking. (EL2-27)

Not only the results of and the findings evidence from the data, but also the writer's personal experiences and beliefs could be used in constructing knowledge claims. However, as this includes more personal assessment and reasoning, the writers might be protecting themselves explicitly by highlighting the fact that the knowledge claims are based on opinions rather than stated as facts. Example (59) is one of the instances where the writer attempted to explain and rationalise a case relying on his/her

experience and belief that was later supported by a reference to the literature. The effect of the hedging (*It seems to me*) seemed to be to flag a lowish level of certainty about one of the possible ways of clarifying the reason for writer's final proposal. The postgraduate writer intentionally kept the propositions ''left open to readers judgements'' (Hyland, 1998, p.182):

> (59) Based on my experience as a language teacher, I would like to propose yet another possibility. **It seems to me** that the more proficient L2 group was indeed exposed to negative evidence in certain ways, i.e. in class or through explicit instruction, but the low level L2 learners were not. I propose that the low level L2 learners **may be making** use of the Avoidance Strategy (Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b). (EL2-1)

In addition, the example (59) exemplified one of the very rare instances where the postgraduate writer underlines his putative knowledge contribution (*I propose that*) to the academic discourse community. By combining his experience and reasoning with a model already available in the published literature (Avoidance Strategy), the postgraduate writer built up the new knowledge claim tentatively, to explain the state of affairs. However, the writer did not assert his/her knowledge claim by marking it as factual, instead, s/he reduced the level of commitment and declared explicitly that it was a proposal requiring the reader's ratification.

EL1 writers tended to be more cautious in making claims regarding a case or result obtained from the actual data, to explain what might possibly cause such an effect. As can be seen in examples (60) and (61), the writers did not limit the explanations to specific circumstances such as a difference between groups. The knowledge claims presented simply suggest that there could be more causes and the opinions are open to discussion rather than being stated as factual information.

> (60) Through gaining observational and interview data on the four participants in this study, **there are at least three potential causes** for differences in the performance of teachers in comparison to TAs. They are educational background, in-service training and status and they will be discussed in turn below. (EL1-3)

(61) If we ignore the ICT teacher, the highest user of ICT is the English department. **It might be suggested** that their subject particularly lends itself to the use of computers. (EL1-30)

However, the example in (62) illustrates one of the instances where an L1 writer of English confidently expressed his/her viewpoint by making a high degree of commitment towards its truth value via *clearly*:

(62) Whether trainees are employed by large or small organisations it appears they only engage in professional discourse with their immediate colleagues. Few trainees actively engage with staff from other departments or geographic locations. **Clearly**, this is a practical and understandable tendency as their initial teaching responsibilities will be relatively narrow and contained. (EL1-2)

What is concluded based on the analysis in empirical studies can be treated as either 'reliable and true' information (The data *showed*) or containing 'doubtful' components (The results *suggest*), as this is considered to be concrete scientific evidence rather than random states. However, when it is time to propose an explanation about what is found, the degree of commitment can be reduced, as the writer communicatively aims at promoting his/her opinion as one of several possible explanations of the phenomenon, and getting accepted to the extent that the evidence permits. The writer can also prefer increasing the chances of being scientifically recognized for the clarification of the explanation after presenting reliable and true information. The writer in (63) would expect his/her reasoning to be approved by the intended audience, and the ratification process to be easily achieved as a considerably tentative explanation to the state of affairs was presented via *may*:

(63) The data **showed** primary pupils were unable to distinguish the difference between teaching ability and particular curriculum subjects. Their views on the teacher's roles were not based on the lesson content and their enjoyment of the session was the principal dynamic. **One explanation for this may be** due to the majority of the primary curriculum content being delivered by their class teacher and that they have an expectation that teaching skills are universal not subject dependant. (EL1-15)

EL1 writers were also found to very rarely express a categorical commitment to the truth of the propositions, but it did happen when they found an opposed result/finding available in the literature. As (64) exemplifies, the higher level of commitment (*reveal*) is added to the proposition regarding school influence; however, before announcing confidently what the actual study found out, the writer referred back to the literature (not mentioning any particular research/researcher) which demonstrated a rather contradictory assessment of enquiry under investigation. The contrast was signalled via the conjunction *however* and provided as a conclusion based on the research findings.

> (64) As identified through the literature search process, all government policy dictates professionals support each individual child maintaining, this has been identified as essential to both safeguard and ensure optimum life chances. **This study, however, revealed** much of school's influence is dictated by governed school policy, generic overarching schemes of work and in the case of secondary settings a lack of parent contact / relationships and external situational information. (EL1-15)

Appealing to the reader with respect to the importance of the new information, and such a committed way of presenting a knowledge claim could contribute to the credibility of the writer and the promotional strategy of the study (assuming there is one).

The discussion sections were also found to be serving the purpose of comparing the research findings with what was available in the literature. The findings from the literature could be either a complementary result, signalling the similarity, or a contradictory result signalling the newsworthiness. The Turkish L1 writers rarely pointed to reasonable explanations (tentative or factual) for contradictory results. This might be linked to their repeated decision to focus on relevant literature that mostly supported what they found out in order to increase the chances of getting their own

findings ratified. The degree of commitment to state that the results were contradictory was quite high, as can be seen from the examples below. In other words, they confidently stated that the results of the source cited were contradictory (*çelismektedir*). However, there were very few instances (as in (65) below) where Turkish L1 writers attempted to comment on the potential reasons for the difference. The stance the writer built, based on reasonably high uncertainty expressed by *-ebilir/abilir* suffix), signalled how much s/he wanted to be aligned with the reason presented to the readers; therefore a much more detaching effect from the assertion was displayed. To put it another way, the writers sometimes tended to reason by employing tentative constructions, in order to 'seek a protection against overstatement' (Hyland, 1998, p.167)

(65) Başaran (2003) tarafından yapılan çalısmada; öğretmenlerin araçgereç kullanmama nedenlerinin mesleki kıdemi düşük olan öğretmenler üzerinde, mesleki kıdemi yüksek olan öğretmenlere göre daha etkili olduğu sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Başaran'ın ulaştığı sonuç arastırmanın sonucu ile **çelişmektedir.** Bunun nedeni olarak arastırmaların yapıldığı bölgelerin farklılığı **gösterilebilir.** (TL1-25)
(*In the research carried out by Basaran (2003), he found that the reason of using eqipment was more effective on less professional teachers than high professional teachers. The result, Basaran reached,* ***contradicts*** *to the result of this research. The reason for this* ***can/could/would/may/might be explained*** *by the difference of the areas research was carried out.)*

As stated previously, very few occurrences in the Turkish L1 data presented the ground and rationale for explaining the contradiction between the findings. It was interesting to note that most of the postgraduates had the tendency to claim a highly committed manner that the results from the literature were in contradiction with theirs, but there was no single possible clarification regarding what might have caused the variations in the results. A typical example can be illustrated by the following extract from Turkish L1 texts:

(66) Samancı (2007), yaptığı çalışmada yeni okuma yazma programının etkiliğinde öğretmen kıdeminin etkiliğini araştırmış ve öğretmenlerin bu konuda kıdemin olumlu yönde önemli olduğunu düşündükleri sonucuna ulaşmıştır. Bu sonuç araştırma sonucumuzla **çelişmektedir**. Karadağ (2005), araştırmasında öğretmenlerin özellikle mesleğin ilk

yıllarında sorunlar yaşadıkları ve hizmet içi eğitim ve rehberliğe gereksinim duydukları sonucuna ulaş**mıştır**. Bu sonuçta yine ulastigimiz sonuçlarla ***çelismektedir***. (TL1-19)
(*Samanci (2007) investigated the effect of teacher seniority on the effectiveness of new literacy program in his study, and found that the thought of effectiveness in a positive way on the subject of the seniority of teachers. This result* ***contradicts*** *to our result/conclusion. Karadag (2005), in his research,* ***found that*** *teachers especially in their first/early years have problems and need in-service training and guidance. This result again* ***contradicts*** *to our results/ours*)

The writer here could have offered a better understanding of the contradictory findings by looking at similar research areas, instead of just stating as watertight information that there were differences. This lack might be due to the writer not taking a critical approach to evaluating studies in the literature and/or methodological issues (such as context, participants, or method).

4.3.3 Signalling commitment-detachment in promoting research in overall and particular findings

In the texts of the Turkish L1 writers, the degree of certainty and definitiveness was increased in most of the cases where the overall findings were presented to the intended audience for promotional purposes. One of the typical examples below (67) introduces the scientific and empirically evidenced findings in a confident way reported to underline the importance of the academic contribution to the community. That is because what the writer attempted to achieve was to signal an unquestionable commitment to the truth of a proposition, and accordingly, these propositions can be ranked as 'fully committed' on the scale of commitment-detachment.

(67) Bu araştırmada basketbol temel becerilerinin anlaşılması ve uygulanması açısından öğrencilerin hareketi dinleme ve resimleme daha sonrada uygulama aşamaları açısından görsel materyallerin etkisi **yadsınamaz şekilde gözlemlenmiştir.** Ayrıca ülkemizde basketbol temel becerilerinin öğretiminde görsel materyaller kullanımı ile ilgili bir çalışmaya rastlanmadığı için yapılan bu çalışma bundan sonra yapılacak olan çalışmalara **ışık tutacaktır**. (TL1-1)
(*In this research, students` movement, listening and iconography in terms of the understanding and implementation of the basic skills of basketball and then the effect of visual materials in terms of practice (application/implementation) phases* ***were observed in an undeniable way****. This research also* ***will shed light on*** *future research because there has not*

been made any study on using visual materials while teaching of the basic skills of basketball.)

The first fragment of example (67) illustrates how the writer confidently asserted the indisputable effect of visual materials on teaching basic basketball skills by framing the overall conclusion of the study. By accepting the factual status of this knowledge claim in conceptualising the real-world issues, the writer also attempted to promote the study That was achieved by committing him/herself (with the help of suffix added to the main verb) to the idea that the actual study would definitely lead to the new research investigating the use of visual materials in teaching.

A similar effect of conviction can be seen in example (68) below, to underline a definitive conclusion arrived at. The level of certainty that the writer asserted for the knowledge claim was reasonably high, as the proposition was marked by the typical certainty-expressing suffix (*-mIştIr*) added to the main verb. The subsequent sentence, as in the previous example, built a pattern of promoting the findings of the study and confidently claiming that pupils' awareness on biodiversity would be increased with his/her recommendation.

(68) Çalışma sonucunda öğrencilerin çevreye karşı olumlu tutum geliştirebilmeleri ve biyoçeşitlilik konusunu daha iyi kavrayabilmeleri için öncelikle onlara yakın çevresinden başlayarak eğitim verilmesinin gerektiği **tespit edilmiştir.** Okullarda fen ve teknoloji derslerinde öğrencilere kendi bitkilerini yetiştirmeleri ve onları gözlemlemeleri için fırsat verilmesi öğrencilerin bu konudaki bilinçlilik düzeyini **arttıracaktır**. (TL1-2)
(*As a result of this study, **it was revealed** that it is essential to giving education to students starting from the area near them for developing their environmentally positive attitudes and better understanding of the subject of biodiversity. Giving opportunity to students for growing and observing their own plants at the classes in science and technology in schools **will increase** their level of awareness in this topic*.)

These two similar extracts could also be considered as an indicator of the provisional idea that Turkish L1 writers generally seemed to signal high personal commitment to the state of affairs they presented.

As Halliday (1978) noted, hedges and boosters do help writers communicate arguments, and signal how they perceive their propositions and the intended audience. Harmonious transitions across knowledge claims, depending on the epistemic condition of them, contribute towards a firmer writer-reader relationship. That is because; the reader can establish what is confidently asserted and accredited as factual information, or what is presented as less strong claims. As a self-promotional strategy, the Turkish writers of English employed some particular lexical verbs to indicate a high degree of commitment towards their propositions. Such instances seem to carry considerable confidence in the truth of the information introduced to the readers. The example below (69) demonstrates such a self-promotional strategy, involving a highly committed tone that the postgraduate writer adopted while summarising his/her contribution to the field:

> (69) **I have shown** that causal wh-phrases in Turkish have a weakening effect on intervention effects. Furthermore, **I have shown** that lexically marked focus phrase with the focus particle *sadece* ‘‘only’’ provides evidence for Göksel and Özsoy’s (2000) claim. (EL2-6)

The sense of conviction could also be achieved by underlining the fact that what is asserted is a strong knowledge claim confidently put forward until refuted as in the following extract (70). The writer confidently proposed that people changed their feelings as they mature, and the reason appears to be quite obvious for the writer, as it is marked as factual information and introduced to the reader with a very high level of commitment. The strong claim about the state of affairs (the ‘change in how elderly people feel’) is linguistically signalled via *the fact that* and this presupposes that writer has already accepted it without hesitation and offers it to readers for recognition and ratification.

> (70) Furthermore, some of the interviewees point out the importance of age in terms of the feeling that individuals have and they underlined maturity through age. The more individuals become mature, the more they tend to feel sorry and help the person in need. The reason for such a change **is the fact that** they become more constructivists, controlled and sensitive to matters as time goes by. (EL2-5)

One of the main aims of the postgraduates in their discussion sections was to present invaluable results/findings to the discourse community from their point of view and the context in which they carried out their studies. Therefore, it can be hypothesised that the postgraduates in this study would be likely to highlight the significance of their results/findings (71-72) or conclusions (73-74) by increasing their degree of commitment whenever they felt or believed they had a useful result given that the propositions still need to be accepted by the readers:

(71) The techniques used in the study **have shown a dramatic difference** in a positive way stating that it is worth giving a try to new techniques or activities designed according to the principles of brain and principles of memory, especially for long-term storage of words. (EL2-19)

(72) All these findings **clearly reveal the need** for a change in function of environmental education from just transmitting ecological knowledge to bringing out the emotions of learners regarding the value of nature and its elements. (EL2-23)

(73) **It is evident that** using one single method does not work and it is a necessity to provide learners with a mosaic of various techniques and activities designed parallel to the principles of memory and learning. (EL2-19)

(74) From this data, **I conclude** that there is a similarity between respondents with different qualifications regarding levels of reported behavior, and cognitive and affective attitude. (EL2-5)

Not only did such cases enable the writers to present conclusion that they felt highly confident about, but they also helped them achieve discourse solidarity with the community they were aiming to enter. By adding boosters such as *of course*, *in fact*, or *indeed*, the Turkish writers of English (L2) attempted to strengthen their claims and draw the reader's attention, so the reader would reach the same point of view as them, without their needing to tone down the level of confidence. A good example of such instances can be seen in example (75), where the writer mentioned methodological issues to explain whether different variables could affect the results regarding task complexity in second-language writing. After presenting a highly committed finding

(with *it is clear that*), the writer went on to flag, by using *of course*, an inference that the finding did not mention. *Of course* also implied that the reader would have no problems in reaching the same conclusion.

> (75) For this reason, in the current study, the target populations were taken as two different groups who were equal in terms of their proficiency level. However, even this change in organization could not reveal a significant difference. So, **it is clear that** there is not a direct impact of task complexity on written L2 performance. **Of course,** this does not mean that we should completely refuse Robinson's Cognition Hypothesis and Skehan and Foster's Limited Attentional Capacity Model. (EL2-9)

As in the previous example, it is noteworthy that the writer is explicitly asking the intended audience to accept a definitive proposition, which might be easily rejected by the reader. This essentially indicates that the writer was convinced enough to offer such an evaluative knowledge claim and allude to it as a 'concurred' or 'affirmed' proposition. It should be noted that no matter how confidently the writer signals his/her assessment of the truth, it still requires the reader's acceptance. Therefore, such instances might also be regarded as risky in terms of having the possibility of being rejected, due to not providing any room, perhaps via hedging, for the reader's considerations explicitly.

Another way that the Turkish writers of English (EL2) built solidarity with the intended audience was to present knowledge claims in such a way that the reader might not expect any further explanation of the implied situation. The writers might have presupposed that the reader, being a member of the academic discourse community (as the examiners are likely to be far more experienced and knowledgeable), has already relevant background knowledge and understanding of the arguments presented. That seems to be why the writers sometimes boosted their propositions and implied that they were presenting what was supposed to be accredited in the literature. Vassileva (2001) labelled such linguistic expressions as ''solidarity boosters'' (p.97); they are designed to

prevent potential disagreement by treating the information as common knowledge and thus unchallengeable.

(76) **It is known that** there is a strong correlation between academic success and self-efficacy; the students with high self–efficacy are academically competent. (EL2-22)

(77) However, **it is a well-known fact** that task performance in L2 (either oral or written) depends on various factors such as the cognitive complexity of the task, the conditions under which the task has to be performed (task format, participants involved, oral versus written mode, etc.) and learner factors (attitude, motivation, anxiety, working memory, etc.). (EL2-9)

In contrast to the Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2), the frequent signalling of a lack of definitiveness and decreases in the level of commitment resulted in a reasonably detached style in the discussion sections of the native writers of English (EL1). There were also many instances where the English L1 writers did not want to reflect what their studies had achieved overall, but reformulated the major aim stated in the previous sections (e.g., *This research aims to find out*) and reduced their force for politeness purposes by particular devices such as tentative linking verbs or nouns, as in the following examples:

(78) **This study was an attempt** to explore the use of wikis in L2 academic writing workshops. (EL1-11)

(79) **This study attempted** to simulate very simplistic models of language contact situations in groups of artificial agents. (EL1-7)

(80) The five main themes identified above form the basis of the following discussion; however, although **I attempt to discuss** them in order, there may be some overlap. (EL1-6)

Rather than strongly and confidently stating an aim, the tone of the propositions was mitigated in case the reader thought that the research had not succeeded in completing the announced goal (i.e. of exploring or simulating) or in accomplishing the acts involved (see examples (78-79) above). The writers simply noted that they had tried and asked the reader to confirm whether they had been successful. The

propositions without such avoidance of overstatement would, in principle, increase in assertiveness. Nevertheless, the writers above implied the potential accuracy rather than emphasising that they had achieved.

Nevertheless, stressing the factual information gathered from a particular study, by focusing on different variables (as in (81) below) and marking via emphatic *do* constructions were also frequently observed in the texts of the native writers of English (EL1). The use of 'did' before the main verb of the sentence essentially carries writer's authority and certainty that the truth value of the proposition has been assessed as valid and factual. In other words, the linguistic choice made here allowed the postgraduate writer to affirm the likelihood of the proposition and emphasise it accordingly:

> (81) **The study did find** that overall experience was a predictor of teaching efficacy and that with more experience efficacy increased. (EL1-1)

However, the highly committed stance towards the novel discovery between teacher's experience and efficiency level was purposely and subsequently mitigated (*it may be…that*) in the rest of the extract below. The mitigation underlines the fact that novelty of the finding might be limited this specific study; and if another variable were to be added, such as investigating efficiency at more time points, the possibility exists of the researcher finding systematic variations across participants. This might be considered as a way of providing a suggestion which could have been implemented in the study, but might not have even been considered (stressing the limitation and guiding for the future directions). Accordingly, a degree of detachment towards the linearity of the relation between efficiency and experience is established with the help of the hedging device *may be*:

> (81-continued) It **may be**, however, that this relationship is not linear through a teacher's career. A study that looks at efficacy at more time points **may** find differences between student teachers, teachers early in their career and teachers with more experience in terms of efficacy scores. (EL1-1)

While maintaining a discussion of their main findings based on the actual data, the writers are also expected to link what is found to any hypotheses they proposed at the start, or adapted from previous research to test in their specific context. The extract below from one of the native EL1 texts displays a typical style used for providing possible reasons in rejecting the hypothesis, by decreasing the force of the propositions and simply producing a non-factive explanation for the reasons for the rejection.

> (82) **I suggest that the reasons for this** are that these dyads had established a successful method of constructing tangrams without the need for dialogue; therefore introductory mentions of referents in the speech part of the experiment did not need to be as intelligible, and this hypothesis is rejected.(EL1-17)

The proposed reasons were not asserted as factual because they were dependent on the contextual factors in the writer's research territory; instead, the author preferred adopting a tentative and weakened standpoint in stating the potential reasons for the matter (via *suggest*), which lead to justify the rejection of the hypothesis. Therefore, the postgraduate writer seemed to favour being less confident as a way of increasing the chance of being accepted as the linguistic choice particularly signalled the speculation and the possibility that what was asserted as the reasons of the matter might not be watertight.

4.3.4 Signalling commitment-detachment while expressing methodological issues and extending disciplinary knowledge

The postgraduate writer's authority in the assessment of knowledge claims regarding methodological issues and suggestions for further studies sometimes included higher levels of commitment as in the example (83) below. The force of the proposition is increased via *must* that is designed to achieve a clear cut effect by pointing out what is missing in the actual study carried out. This can be regarded as a way of telling future researchers interested in the topic that they should consider including different age

groups in order to reach the conclusion or find out the relationship between the variables. Hence, by pointing out the gap emerging from the study, the writer contributed to the discourse community by suggesting a necessary way forward, which seemed to be an accepted truth by the writer. That was because s/he possibly believed that the relationship could potentially have been detected (if there is any-positive or negative) had the age range between participants (mother and daughter) been wider.

> (83) In the present study, there was no relationship between age and the mother-daughter relationship because the participants' ages were close to each other. Different age groups **must be chosen** to discover the relation of daughters' ages and mother daughter relationship. (EL2-17)

While mentioning methodological soundness in the discussion section, it might be expected that the writer would evaluate overall methodological preferences and gaps, as in (83) and (84). The writers would explicitly state the limitations that their studies might have. Clearly, such admissions run the risk of being seen as self-criticism concerning the soundness of the actual methodology, by displaying one's uncertainty about what could have been achieved, depending on the point (participant, method, or approach) missed in the study. The writer in the following extract (84) attempts to claim that his/her qualitative findings were somehow unreliable due to the non-availability of certain items such as diaries by the participating teachers although the writer does not want to put this forward baldly as it might not be appropriate to commit oneself to such a methodological consideration. Instead, the need for revision is signalled tentatively and it could be regarded not as a major fault of the existing study but as a positive recommendation for the future studies.

> (84) The classroom practices of more teachers working at different educational settings and with different student levels **may** provide us with more insights about their beliefs and practices. In addition, the qualitative findings of the study **could have been more** reliable if teachers kept diaries and the observed lessons were video-recorded and then followed by a think-aloud procedure. (EL2-14)

There is a similar recommendation in the Turkish L1 text below (85) which signifies that the suggested changes in methodology would enable researchers to extend disciplinary knowledge regarding the self-esteem and job satisfaction of teachers. In other words, what the writer was trying to achieve might be based on his/her own assessment of methodology and sampling at the end of the study, and this suggestion, stated quite strongly, would give a better idea to future researchers in the field. This can result in finding firmer evidence to understand the two phenomena, as the author puts forward rather confidently.

(85) Yapılan araştırmanın sonuçları bize öğretmenin sahip olduğu benlik algısı ve iş memnuniyeti düzeyleri ile ilgili bilgi verse de araştırmanın daha çok katılımcıyla, uzmanlaşmayla ilgili hazırlanmış sorulardan oluşan ayrı bir görüşme formuyla tekrarlanması bu konuda daha kesin bilgiler elde edilmesini **sağlayacaktır.** Özel okulların akademik çalışmalara daha gönüllü katılımlarının sağlanması araştırmacıların daha çok katılımcıyla, daha rahat ve daha kesin sonuçlar içeren bulgulara ulaşmasını **sağlayacaktır.** (TL1-11)
(*Although the result of research informs us about the self-perception of the teacher have and job satisfaction levels, repeating the research with more participants and a different interviewing form consisting of the questions prepared about the specialization* ***will allow*** *acquiring more precise information on this subject. Providing more voluntary participation of private schools to academic research* ***will allow*** *researchers to reach findings which are more accurate results.)*

One of the interesting examples from the Turkish L1 dataset (86) suggests that postgraduates can refer to the methodology used in the study while explaining the results between groups. Nevertheless, the postgraduate seemed to be rather tentative in attributing the reason for the difference to the pre- or post-tests as in the example, which was also followed by a sensible explanation in the original text.

(86) Öğrenmenin kalıcılık düzeyinin deney grubu lehine olmasının beşinci nedeni olarak araştırmada ontest ve sontest olarak kullanılan akademik başarı testinin kalıcılık testi olarak da kullanılması **gösterilebilir**. (TL1-22)
(*The fifth reason why the experiment group had higher level of permanence of learning* ***can/could/would/may/might be explained*** *by the academic success test which was used as pretest and posttest and also used as permanence test in the research)*

There were very few instances where English L1 writers made explicit choices on stating their methodological considerations and contributions in a highly confident way and accordingly committing themselves to the truth value of the statements. As an example, (87) demonstrates the writer's appeal to readers to recognize his/her personal projection in terms of methodological achievement. The writer emphasised the strength of his/her commitment and expects to gain credibility, as the assumption is ascribed with a choice of strong verb.

> (87) Through conducting a range of biographical case studies with people across different age groups **I have established** a number of areas where influences on career choices and aspirations **do vary** across generations, and also some areas where these differences are less obvious. (EL1-22)

The choice of reporting verbs to mention previous research and findings also signals how the postgraduate writer wants to be aligned with the information and standpoint that the original author conveys. In other words, it indicates how the writer positions him/herself towards the knowledge claim made by the experts in the field, either as signalling full confirmation (as in (88) below) or implying partial agreement (see (54) in Section 4.3.1) with the opinion/finding reported from the literature as an accepted fact or disagreement. As can be seen from example (88) below, the postgraduate writer also produced a highly factive meaning via the evidence to extend the disciplinary knowledge what is already known. In order to promote the novel contribution of the study to an established scientific acceptance (study of Kelly-Hayes et al.), the author supported his/her claims with the evidence obtained from statistical analysis as well:

> (88) Kelly-Hayes et al. (1992) **demonstrated** that disability in the elderly is only partially accounted for by limitations in physical functioning. **This study provides evidence that several other domains** contribute to the maintenance of functional capacity in elderly subjects. Domain specific, multivariate ordinal regression analysis of depression and

anxiety **proved** to be significant predictors of ADL declines, respectively, OR being 1.75 [95% confidence interval (CI) .385, .730], p=.000 and OR 1.26 [95% confidence interval (CI) .061, .397], p=.008. (EL1-28)

4.3.5 Signalling commitment-detachment in elaborating an argument and leading towards conclusive statements

Following Vartalla (2001), the function and scope of hedges found in the present study are treated broadly; one could signal a reduced degree of commitment rather than full commitment towards real-world incidents. This enables epistemic modality markers (from modal verbs to epistemic verbs) to be considered for conveying such meanings. As Goksel (2005) expressed that a range of lexical and morphological linguistic resources are used in Turkish to indicate modal meaning. As can be seen from examples (89) and (90) below, the writer aimed to avoid conceptualising the circumstances they presented as a factual representation of reality, while presenting the knowledge claims.

(89) Araştırma bulgularına göre panik karar verme stilini kız öğrencilerin erkek öğrencilere kıyasla daha fazla kullanıyor olması, toplumumuzda kızlara yaşam deneyimleri bakımından daha sınırlı fırsatlar sunulması ve kızların karar verme gibi sorumluluk gerektiren bir durumla karşılaştıklarında panik tepkiler göstermeleri olarak **açıklanabilir**.(TL1-7)
(*According to the findings of research, the situation of using the style of deciding in an urgent/panic situation is used more frequently by the female students than the male students* ***can/could/would/may/might*** *be explained by a more limited opportunities regarding life experiences given to girls in our society and girls` panic reactions when they encounter with a situation which requires a responsibility such as making decision.*)

The modality marker *-ebilir/abilir* added a speculative meaning to the interpretations of their findings in (89). The first extract makes a cautious link to the reality of panic-decision making by males and females in Turkish society, by mentioning the potential effect of limited opportunities offered to females. The relationship between the entities does not seem to be particularly strong which might have prevented the writer from producing a highly committed stance towards the assessment of why females tend to react with panic in certain conditions.

(90) Ancak, anne-baba eğitimi durumunun, üniversite öğrencilerinin algıladığı sosyal destek düzeyine etki etmemesini, anne-baba eğitimi durumu ile öğrencilerin bakış açıları arasında doğrudan bir bağlantının olmaması ile **açıklayabiliriz**.(TL1-14)
(***We can/could/would/may/might explain*** *the educational background of the parents having no impact on the level of perceived social support of university students with the fact that there was no direct link between parents` educational background and the perspectives of the students.*)

A similar case is observed in the example (90) above where the writer attempted to explain the impact of parents' educational background on the perception of the university students about social support. As the writer attempted to explain the reason in a mitigated form as his/her findings did not seem to imply a direct connection between the independent variables of the parent's educational background and the viewpoints of university students.

As Hyland (1998b) stated, the role of expressing certainty and doubt in academic writing is of major significance in relation to creating rhetorical effects in texts and drawing the reader's attention to the meanings that the writer wants to convey. Stating claims with a degree of certainty or tentativeness can be regarded as a function building a harmony across presenting argument in a desired manner to gain credibility and acceptance. A range of rhetorical and communicative strategies could be obtained via the harmony by moving from established and confidently presented knowledge claims to contentiously worded and low committed opinion-based claims in the texts. The Turkish L1 writers were found to treat their findings as mostly factual representations of real-world issues, and to present findings as established facts in many cases due to the fact that the results were considered to be evidenced by the data in their study.

(91) Araştırma sonucunda **görülmüştür ki** yaratıcı düşünme becerisi desteklenerek işlenen derslerde öğrenci başarısı **artmaktadır**. Bu bağlamda öğrenci başarısı daha da artırmak icin yaratıcı düşünme becerisinin bir ünite dışında birçok ünitede **kullanılabilir**. (TL1-26)
(***It was found that*** *student`s achievement* ***increased i****n the lectures when the ability of creative thinking was supported. In this context, for further student*

achievement, ability of creative thinking ***can/could/would/may/might*** *be used in many units other than except one.*)

As an example, the extract above (91) illustrates such a rhetorical effect achieved by the writer; s/he strategically manages the degree of commitment by providing a factual and reliable discovery about critical thinking skills, yet offering a cautious opinion to the experts designing the curriculum. The study resulted in an increase in student success when allied to creative thinking, but the writer decreased the level of certainty by claiming tentatively that student success would be enhanced further if creative thinking skills formed part of other course units. In other words, the vulnerability of the claim is decreased in order to make the generalization reliable and acceptable for contexts other those the research covered. The opposite rhetorical effect was rarely observed in Turkish L1 discussion sections (92 is an exception):

(92) Kitaplar görseller açısından değerlendirildiğinde metinlerle resimler açısından genel olarak bir uyum olduğundan **söz edilebilir**. Ancak 7 ve 8. sınıf kitaplarında kullanılan resimler metne ilgiyi arttırma özelliği **taşımamaktadır**. Öğrenme esnasında ne kadar çok duyu organı kullanılırsa öğrenme de o kadar kalıcı **olmaktadır**. (TL1-16)
(*It* ***can/could/would/may/might*** *be said that there is an adaptation in general terms when books evaluated in terms of visual images. However, the images used in the textbooks of 7 and 8 grades* ***do not have*** *the properties to increase attention to the text. The more sensory organ is used during learning, the learning* ***is so permanent***.)

As can be seen from example (92), the commitment and force of the propositions were increased (via the suffix *-maktadır* marking authority) towards the end of the paragraph in order to signal the confidence the writer felt, while moving towards establishing factual information from a doubtful case. The writer did not state definitively that there was a harmony between visual materials in the course book; however, what s/he attempted to show was that the pictures were unlikely to increase students' interest to the text. Then, the writer took a very highly committed stance towards making a knowledge claim about how to make the most of the learning process. This could be treated as a highly generalised claim in explaining the efficacy of making

use of different sense organs in permanent learning, yet the writer appeared to convey his/her claim with confidence and expected the reader to accept it without questioning.

Expressing knowledge claims in an authoritative manner and confident tone was more frequently observed in the academic texts of the Turkish L1 postgraduates. When compared with the English L1 and L2 writers, the Turkish L1 writers tended to mark their involvement in and responsibility for presenting their knowledge contribution as strongly and confidently as possible. This, to some extent, resulted in their being less aware of the potential viewpoints that their intended audience might have. Two knowledge claims are in examples (93) and (94), where the Turkish L1 writers assessed the truth value of the propositions as certain and close to absolute truth and provided their prospective readers with the sense of receiving a firm conclusion, representing the a voice of confidence.

(93) Ders kitaplarında, **özellikle** de Türkçe kitaplarında bu değerleri işleyen metinlere yer verilmesi **gerekir**. Yapılması gereken evrensel değerlerin millî öğelerle çocuklarımıza öğretilmesidir. Bu yolla çocuk hem kendi kültürünü hem de uluslar üstü kavramları ve davranış kalıplarını öğrenmiş **olacaktır**. (TL1-16)
(*In textbooks, **especially** in Turkish textbooks, a place **must be given** to the texts which render these values. What needs to be done is to teach universal values to our children with the national elements. The child **will learn** bothhis own culture and transnational concepts as well as the behaviour patterns*.)

Extract (93) illustrates that the writer made his knowledge claim strongly with the assessment based on the relationship between literary texts and national components (historical characters, tradition and customs) that should be included in Turkish textbooks. What is pointed out by the writer so confidently is the fact that such combinations in literary texts will boost the learning process. In other words, according to the researcher, introducing global values, assisted by national components in literary texts, will definitely allow students to learn in a fun way. The presentation of this claim prevents the intended audience from considering alternatives to the writer's view, such

as a failure in the learning process of pupils assisted by such literary texts. This might mean one-way interaction on the discourse occurred; the writer signalled a highly committed stance towards the contribution of such literary texts and simply expected the approval from readers.

> (94) 2005 eğitim öğretim programının uygulamaya başlamasının üzerinden her ne kadar 5 yıl geçmiş olsa da hali hazırda daha yapılandırmacılık yaklaşımını tanımayan öğretmenler bulunmaktadır. Bu da hizmet içi eğitim ile bu açığın en kısa sürede kapatılması gerektiğini **göstermektedir**. (TL1-26)
> (*Although it has been 5 years since the application of the 2005 educational curriculum, currently there are teachers who do not recognize constructivism approach.* ***This shows that*** *there is an urgent requirement for eliminating the deficit with in-service training*.)

A similar attitude by the writer is apparent in extract (94) above. The rhetorical practice can be best explained by writer's confident statement of an implication drawn from his/her particular study on the constructivist approach. The writer essentially indicated the urgent need for in-service training so that teachers could familiarise themselves with the approach. The force of the claim was increased intentionally to present readers with an assured piece of knowledge.

While presenting an explanation for and causal relations underlining the result reached via comparing different variables within the study, the Turkish writers of English frequently made use of hedging resources to point out reasoning, which has lower risk to be rejected due to the hedging resource as in the following example:

> (95) In the present study, the problems that preschool teachers face in the curriculum implementation showed no significant difference with respect to preschool teachers' educational level. This situation **may be** due to level of education studied, in other words, it is a consequence of dealing with early childhood education. (EL2-29)

The choice of highly detached constructions towards the truth value of the proposition is mostly favoured by Turkish writers of English while mentioning an unreal situation to clarify an assumption. The knowledge claim in (96) does not go beyond an assumption, as it is obvious that the mainline of argument concerns the lack

of learning strategies by remedial class students in a real world situation evidenced through this particular study. In this sentence, the writer is trying to position the reader to make the point that it is possible that the learners could have made more of the learning process (higher achievement, and motivation), had they been able to use learning strategies effectively. Accordingly, the non-factual status of the proposition in (96) has been marked via a multi-word construction *it may be claimed* and a hypothetical clause, as the unreal situation requires the writer to withhold full commitment due to the very low possibility of the claim being true. Implicitly, this hypothetical and unreal assumption appears to be presented as not to be taken as true.

> (96) Consequently, **it may be claimed** that **if** remedial class students had been able to use language learning strategies effectively, their motivation and success **would have increased** and learning **would have become** a meaningful and an enjoyable task. (EL2-26)

The use of stance adverbials in academic texts is also of great importance, due to the fact that they enable the writer to comment on the propositions, by conveying how the writer wants to achieve an intended meaning. Bondi (2008) stated that the accuracy of propositions can be increased (or decreased) via particular adverbials, which also allow writers to position themselves with respect to the truth value of their knowledge claims. There were many instances observed in the texts of the English L1 writers, suggesting a strong preference for positioning themselves with the help of such adverbials and signalling the degree of certainty/doubt.

> (97) Carla, on the other hand, discusses significant family problems and talks of needing ‘peace’ and ‘quiet’ and ‘calm’. In these cases the issues of family background and ability to interact socially **clearly** inhibit the young people’s capacity to participate in school. (EL1-5)

As can be seen in (97) above, the adverb employed (clearly) boosted the degree of certainty that the writer was portraying the relationship between the details of family background and social interaction ability, resulting in a restriction on young people’s abilities. The writer boosted the main verb of the sentence by looking at the evidence

gathered from a participant in the study. In other words, the conclusive claim the writer arrived at is linked to a robust and sufficient testimonial, and by evaluating the evidence, the writer strategically adopted a defensible and clear position. Not only do such instances let the writer express his/her views, supported adequately and in a convincing manner, but also enable unknown or as yet unaccepted arguments/ideas to be negotiated in order gain credibility. Nevertheless, the evidence might sometimes not be sufficient to allow the reader to evaluate the truth of the claim as in example (98) below. What the researcher knows about Harvey is that she had some background about the field system, which does not seem to be enough to definitively state the nature of the difference (if they were genuine) between Central Vale and Wold. Therefore, the writer adopted a position of doubt towards the results of the previous study, and withheld full commitment. The choices of the writer can be regarded as marking considerable tentativeness.

> (98) **Perhaps**, the apparent differences between the Central Vale and Wold field systems noted by Harvey **may have been** because she studied the field systems using 16th and 17th century surveys and maps. (EL1-24)

As expected, the writers also needed to supply evidence and support for the presentation of knowledge, in order not to introduce anything as unwarranted. That is because the critical reader would like to work out the validity of the claim within the area of examination. The use of evidence from analysis or knowledge drawn from previous research could adequately warrant the proposition offered. The writer simply positioned him/herself with respect to a claim by signalling the level of certainty/doubt. It is clear that example (99) is a hedged version of the conclusive assertion: ‘‘*trainees are adversely affected by the ‘defensive’ or ‘restrictive’ strategies of other established teachers fearful of redundancy or job insecurity*’’. Nevertheless, the writer is underlining a high level of uncertainty, to let the readership evaluate the proposition, as

something other than a factual presentation of the truth. Therefore, the interaction between the writer and reader is built via the hedging resources employed, whereby alternative voices are tolerated. Such a way of presenting claims can be best judged as having less face-threatening value due to the degree of detachment towards the truth status of what is being said.

(99) **There is little evidence to conclude** that trainees are adversely affected by the 'defensive' or 'restrictive' strategies of other established teachers fearful of redundancy or job insecurity. (EL1-2)

(100) **By looking at this data, it is possible to argue** that the use of the online forum affect several aspects of pupils' opinions and perceptions of learning. (EL1-8)

Example (100) is a similar instance to that described above; however, the writer here was making use of a double hedged proposition to elaborate the assertion. The highly generalised claim about the impact of online forum use on pupils is toned down noting that the actual data makes such a claim possible to put forward. That is because a highly generalised claim (without *by looking at this data, it is possible to argue*) is likely to mean what is discovered that is *mostly the case* in contexts and require adequate warranting for a wider context. However, what the linguistic choice made in (100) implies is that another context might not provide support for the claim, and not fully committing to the assertion helped the writer protect him/herself from possible objections.

A very rare highly committed stance towards an unknown case was found in the following example (101) from the concluding remarks of a discussion section. The EL2 writer is claiming to present the reader with a highly probable representation of a real-world phenomenon about the future evolution of English. By intensifying the illocutionary force of the statements via an incontestable proposition (accepting the fact that there are power variables), the writer expresses the certainty of the expected outcome regarding of change and evolution. In other words, the obvious reason for an

expected outcome based on a cause-effect relation is confidently conveyed to the readership as convincingly as possible. A very strong sense of conviction is thereby achieved at the close of the discussion section, with the expectation by the writer that the argument is persuasive enough for the reader to accept.

> (101) Regarding the future of English, **it is indisputable** that the economic, political and technological power of nations **will alter** and increase or decrease the popularity of English as the current lingua franca of the world, along with other languages such as Chinese or Spanish. English **will keep** on evolving and changing itself, and therefore the attitudes and practices of its users and learners alongside. (EL2-28)

At a general level, however, most of the Turkish writers of English (EL2) preferred to tone down their final remarks and accomplish the knowledge claim being presented with a less-face threatening and reasonably detached style as in the example below:

> (102) In conclusion, **it can be stated** that the suggested vocabulary teaching techniques have been effective and language teachers and learners, course or program designers and course book or skills book writers should take them into consideration and aim to incorporate a variety of these techniques and design their materials according to the principles of memory and brain-compatible teaching. (EL2-19)

4.3.6 A summary of qualitative considerations of commitment-detachment across the postgraduate texts

A qualitative analysis of linguistic expressions signalling commitment or detachment in the Turkish L1 texts supported the quantitative analysis to the effect that the writers were mostly making fairly assertive knowledge claims in their discussion sections. By employing boosters in most cases, the native speakers of Turkish attempted to meet the expectations of the reader to be presented with reliable and valid information. As it would be high-risk writing to make such claims without having enough of a warrant (e.g., evidence from data or support from the literature), there were also several examples of cautiously expressed propositions in the sub-corpus. However, the strategy

of TL1 writers in signalling certitude or tentativeness towards propositions was mostly in favour of boosting devices to mark a higher level of certainty and convey propositions as facts discovered or known by the writer. It is important to note that there could be variations in the comprehension of the translated sentences; therefore, my translations need to be treated as only the approximation of the meaning of the Turkish texts in the sub-corpus.

A closer investigation of the data and occurrences in the Turkish Speakers of English (EL2) texts supports the quantitative finding that postgraduates from this particular group preferred a much more detached style than did the others. The tendency of the Turkish writers of English to detach themselves from the propositions compared with the relatively fewer highly committed propositions resulted in a style promoting higher degrees of protection and deference.

Nikula (1997) suggested that use of hedges essentially ascribes a more active role and status to the imagined reader in negotiating and conveying meanings, compared with the strategy that ‘‘presenting claims as ex-cathedra assertions’’ (Hyland, 1996, p.446). The latter strategy, which is realised via the use of boosters, could limit the participation of the reader in the process of affirming the claim. Conveying commitment-detachment to mark authority in the texts of native speakers of English is achieved by employing more hedging resources than linguistic expressions underlining a higher level of certainty and confidence. In other words, the styles of the L1 and L2 writers of English seem to be similar and to contrast with the style adopted by the Turkish L1 writers. This is confirmed as by the statistical results.

The main instances where English L1 writers qualified their commitment or detachment were discourse functions such as interpreting the meanings of main results; linking findings to the literature to confirm or contradict any previous findings; identifying potential weaknesses and strengths; promoting the study itself by pointing to

the significance of the findings; making use of claims (from literature which has some acceptance by the scientific community) to support an argument.

4.4 Discussion of findings in relation to Research Question 1

The major emphasis of this section is to discuss and summarize the findings of the present study regarding the way commitment and detachment were displayed across the texts of the three groups of postgraduates (namely, Turkish L1 writers, Turkish writers of English, and English L1 writers), as well as to answer one of the main research questions (see Section 3.1 and below) in the light of the results.

RQ1. How do postgraduate students (L1 writers of Turkish and English & Turkish writers of English) display their commitment-detachment towards their propositions in their academic texts?

1.1. What are the most employed linguistic means of qualifying commitment-detachment in postgraduate texts?

1.2. Are there any similarities or differences across groups in terms of the commitment-detachment strategies?

It is of course almost impossible to evaluate and check all potential factors affecting the writer's use of such strategies, however, the comparison across groups is based on just two variables. These are *language* (Turkish vs English) and *culture* (Turkish vs English). Does the frequency of commitment-detachment strategies vary across languages? And, are there any significant differences between Turkish (L1 and L2 English) and British writers when it comes to the use of such strategies to create a rhetorical effect in order to be ratified? Detailed quantitative and qualitative findings and comparisons can be found in Sections in 4.2 and 4.3; nevertheless, focusing on some of the results will let us see the comprehensive findings across groups.

One of the aims of the present study is to identify the degree of commitment/detachment in a continuum whose end points are Full Commitment and Full Detachment in the academic writing of postgraduates. The study is concerned with revealing the tendencies of postgraduates from different discourse communities, by looking at the linguistic items explicitly employed to qualify the writer's own assessment towards the truth value of the information presented to the intended audience. The intended audience in the case of postgraduates (Master's) consists of the examiners, who are known to be the experts in the research area to which the students hope to contribute, as well as other potential researchers interested in the topic and area. Therefore, the postgraduates are expected to maintain a style in which they both sound persuasive enough to convince the readership and leave enough room for reader to make their own judgements. The idea is thus to build up an interactional dialogue for social relationship between writer and reader through the text, whose components are ideas and linguistic expressions corresponding to how knowledge in the discourse is presented. In other words, the knowledge is conveyed to the reader via different rhetorical effects designed to invite them to accept, reject or think about claims.

The answer to the main research question stated in Section 3.1 has different angles based on the variation found in the corpus data of the three groups. Before answering the research question, it is important to note that native speakers (TL1 and EL1) are not necessarily the appropriate reference groups for evaluating the EL2 texts, as it is quite possible that similar rhetorical features could be identified in relation to postgraduate's (in)experience in producing an academic prose. However, it was stated previously that in this research that quality is not particularly the issue; rather it aims to identify the tendencies of different postgraduate communities.

It is apparent that there were similarities and differences in the data that writers evidently qualified their level of commitment to a higher level or intentionally withheld

their commitment and detached themselves from what they asserted. If we consider all the occurrences detected in the three groups, Figure 4.11 shows that the Turkish L1 writers constructed a slightly less interpersonal discourse in overall (19.1 per 1000 words), based on the total hedging and boosting devices, which clearly contribute to the interactive side of academic writing (Hyland, 2000). It was the texts of the Turkish writers of English (EL2) where the total number of devices allowing the writer to negotiate knowledge and socially interact with the reader was the highest (23.5 per 1000 words). This can be regarded as a key contrast between Turkish postgraduates based on awareness of the readership and the creation of a more communicative prose when assessing the truth value of claims. In particular, it was unexpected that although all the Turkish writers (Tl1 and EL2) were from same cultural backgrounds, the Turkish writers of English attempted, like the English L1 counterparts, to build a significantly more modest strategy for presenting their knowledge claims by employing fewer boosting resources to commit themselves to the propositions.

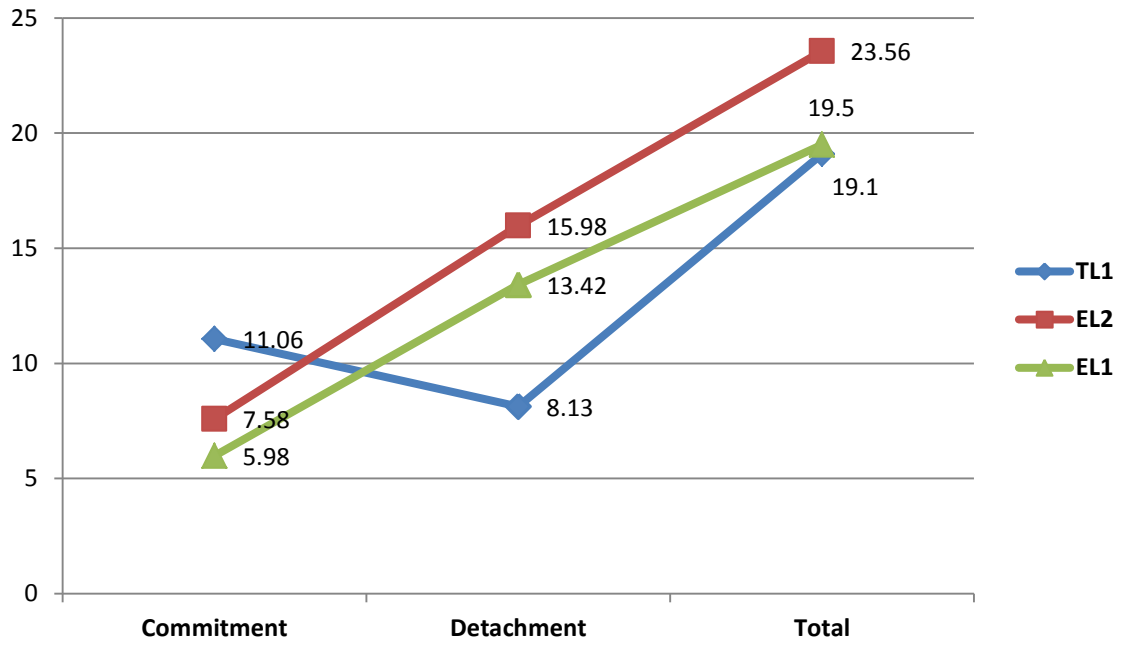


Figure 4.11. Commitment and detachment across the sub-corpora (per 1000 words).

As can be seen from Figure 4.11 above, the tone of the Turkish L1 writers differed from that of the English L1 and L2 writers in terms of the use of linguistic expressions signalling how far they were endorsing their propositions. It is clear that English L1 and L2 writers preferred to sound more detached from what they presented than the Turkish L1 writers.

Interestingly, the position of the Turkish writers of English is not in between the other two groups in terms of signalling detachment, whereas they did take the middle position (in between of Turkish L1 and English L1) in terms of employing committed propositions (see Figure 4.12 below). When this finding is compared with Vassileva's (2001) pioneering work, the position of the interlanguage users in this study was contradictory to her findings. Apparently, Bulgarian writers of English seemed to deviate from both English and Bulgarian L1 writers in the discussion sections of her corpus by being highly committed. The deviation of the Turkish writers of English seemed to stem from trying to protect themselves from potential criticism by readers. This resulted in highly tentative writing, even more tentative than that of the native speakers of English. There might be even a case of over-using such expressions to comfort themselves, as they were writing in a language in which they were not as competent as native speakers. On the other hand, when we consider the reasonably tentative tendency of the English L1 writers, this could be treated as an acceptable characteristic of postgraduate writing in English as the literature (e.g., Atai, 2006; Hyland 2005; Tan, 2002) suggests that native writers of English include numerous hedged propositions.

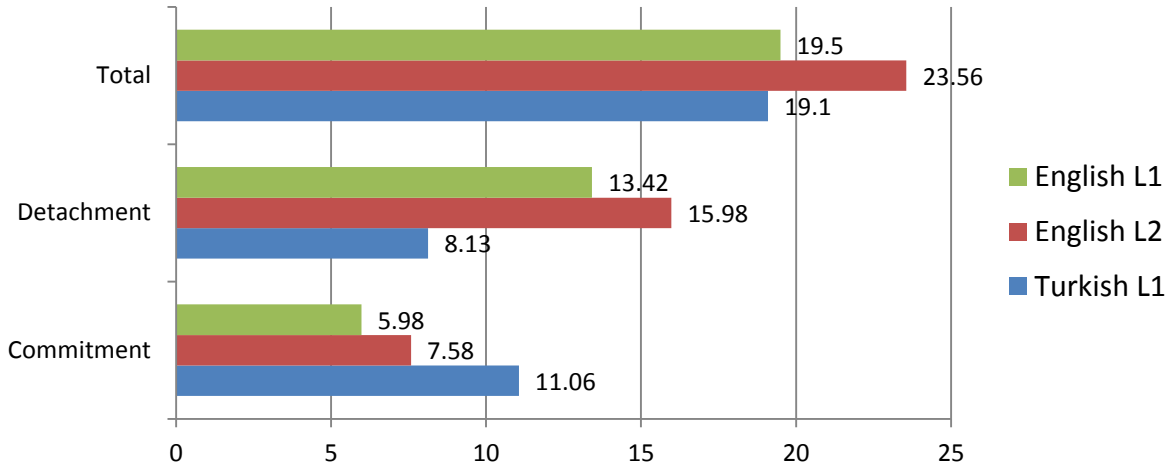


Figure 4.12. The positions of postgraduate writers regarding the commitment-detachment.

As is well known, a competent speaker of any language has the ability to adapt to a certain way of expressing intended meaning in that language. Kartalcik and Bulgurcu (2012) point out that conventional style for particular formal writing genres in Turkish has a ‘‘probative nature’’ to increase the chance of the intended meaning getting accepted (p.230). The preference by the Turkish L1 writers for being assertive and conveying highly committed propositions to the intended audience could be attributed to expected use of such assertive style in Turkish. It could be also argued that the Turkish writers of English followed the tradition of strengthening their claims but to a lesser degree, and that they were influenced by both Turkish and English traditions. The L1 effect can also be supported by the result of potential intra-cultural features on academic writing regarding the fact that Turkish L1 writers seemed more confident in making knowledge claims in Turkish language whereas the effect of English could be a result of adoption of target language conventions in the prose.

To reiterate, the Turkish L1 writers were found to be committing themselves to the propositions, in order that they could show a higher degree of confidence over what they asserted. This resulted in an authoritative tone of writing, in which the writer was

aiming to manipulate the reader's interpretation through qualifying his/her commitment with the frequent expressions of full commitment on the scale of C-D. This supports what Kartalcik and Bulgurcu (2012) stressed in their study of spoken and written features of modern Turkish. Most of the knowledge claim instances in the Turkish L1 texts seemed to be presented as justified and warranted true beliefs/observations/ideas, which were fully supported by the evidence from literature-based sources or from the results of their studies. It might be argued that the evidence sometimes was not always strong enough to justify sounding that level of authoritativeness (unless an expert in the field evaluate them); but what Turkish L1 postgraduates seemed to want to achieve was to report and convey meanings as factual information rather than as possibilities about the real world.

Based on the argument and evidence in 5.3, it is possible to claim that the Turkish L1 writers were taking the information from the literature (itself worded authoritatively) at face value and tended to transfer knowledge claims as factual. Nevertheless, the English L1 and L2 writers were found to be reducing the force of their claims from the literature, and treating them as cautiously as possible, in order to avoid taking the responsibility for the original source's being true or not. In other words, detachment from what other researchers put forward led the English L1 and L2 writers to become far more tentative in confirming or refuting the claims of others. The greater use of such tentative reporting verbs suggests that a higher degree of certainty avoidance was adopted in the discussion sections of the Turkish writers of English and English L1 writers, when linking their own results to those in the literature. Therefore, far more speculation was found in the English texts than in the Turkish texts. The similarity between native and non-native writers of English might be linked to their familiarity with the linguistic resources available. This can, for the most parts, be related to the academic writing courses that the Turkish writers of English had undertaken (if

any) or the adoption of an academic style of reporting other people's work, from the English academic texts they engaged had with. This can be regarded as intuitive exposure to the academic and expert materials including such resources would enable novice writers to acquire the appropriate use of such sources with target-like functions in expressing stance. This would be in line with the idea supporting one of the main hypotheses of Contrastive Rhetoric, that the writing of L2 writers is not only affected by the native language and culture, but also by the exposure to the target language (Harder, 1984).

Discussion sections of dissertations seem to be the part where a range of discourse acts are achieved in order to meet the expectations of the academic discourse community in terms of pursuing the main issues of research. Therefore, a more frequent and interactional dialogue can be expected in this particular section, while discussing the main findings, proposing causes for specific cases, and making the concluding remarks. Compared with Turkish L1 writers, the English L1 and L2 writers were found to be employing more and varied linguistic expressions to inform their intended audience about their own assessments towards the truth value of the propositions. The variety of linguistic devices qualifying the writer's assessment in the Turkish L1 –texts was found to be relatively limited–primarily the use of the *-ebilir*/*abilir* suffix to manifest either a lack of, or complete, commitment to the truthfulness of a proposition. On the other hand, the tendency of the Turkish writers of English (L2) in making use of mostly the same expressions could be also linked to their level of competence and experience in the target language. Meunier and Granger (2008) suggested that writing in a foreign language could be particularly challenging, requiring one at times to achieve native-like competency, and the result was often over or under use of specific expressions. Therefore, the Turkish postgraduates writing in English will probably continue adding new expressions to their mental lexicon as long as they keep their

academic work going and gain experience. However, it is worth noting that the L2 writers in the present study frequently used *bundles* as ‘‘words which follow each other more frequently than expected by chance, helping to shape text meanings and contributing to our sense of distinctiveness in a register’’ (Hyland, 2008a, p.5) which can also be treated as a sign of fluency in the target language. Such occurrences allowed them to negotiate knowledge claims via fixed phrases such as *may be due to*; *it is possible that; was/were found to be* and so on. According to Cortes (2004), the frequent use of bundles may well be an indication of efficient language use although it should be kept in mind that even novice native speakers of English would fail in the appropriate use of lexical bundles.

As stated previously, the diversity of the resources the writers employed to qualify their commitment/detachment also varied slightly across groups. The hedging resources enabling writers to signal either a lack of, or complete, commitment were mainly the suffix (*-ebilir*/*abilir*) in the Turkish L1 texts, whereas English L1 and L2 writers employed auxiliary verbs to decrease the strength of their claims. This seems to be another common strategy across groups in achieving modal meaning in the discussion sections of dissertations. Then, the lexical choices made to weaken the knowledge claims were mainly achieved by full verbs in the English texts (L1 & L2). On the other hand, the use of adverbs than the full verbs was slightly more favoured by the Turkish L1 writers to indicate academic modesty and caution, while situating their knowledge claims in the research world and expecting the reader’s approval by leaving them room to evaluate the argument themselves.

According to Akbas (2014), *can* could be treated as a weak hedging device following on-going debate in the literature over the inclusion of *can* as a hedge. However, it is surprising that the most favoured modal auxiliary was *can* in the Turkish EL2 texts, compared with *may* and *would* in the native speakers of English texts. A

similar case was observed in the cross-cultural study carried out by Atai and Sadr (2006) for Persian and English writers, where non-native speakers of English tended to use *can* as a means of hedging much more frequently than the native speakers. In the present context, it is reasonable to argue for a potential direct transfer by the Turkish writers of English inasmuch as the modal auxiliaries in English are all represented by the same suffix in Turkish. In early language education, Turkish teachers of English attempt to teach the modal system in English by relating it to the system in Turkish by matching the use of *can* with *-ebilir*/*abilir* due to the multi-function of that particular modal verb in expressing ability, permission, or possibility. Therefore, it is likely that learners at that stage would learn to match the use of *can* with/to the Turkish suffix for such functions. Although it can be claimed that they might in time adopt a better view of modal meaning, as they master the target language, the Turkish writers of English did still prefer *can* to signal a sense of hedging as the data in the current study suggested.

When the variety of boosting expressions is considered, there was a significant difference across groups. The tendency of the English L1 writers was mainly to employ adverbs and adjectives to signal firm commitment to propositions, whereas the L2 writers were found to favour the use of lexical verbs such as *show, reveal,* or *find* and auxiliary verbs (mainly *will*), to position the reader by increasing the force of the subsequent knowledge claims, to suggest factual information rather than a reasonable degree of doubt. The most frequent resources used by the Turkish writers of English were found to be the highly frequent boosting strategies in research articles (e.g., *will, show, it is clear that*) that Hyland (1998a) found out in his initiative work on discoursal choices affecting the interpersonal aspect of academic writing.

Interestingly, the use of particular suffixes mentioned in 5.3 by the Turkish L1 writers dominated their way of expressing certainty and conviction over their statements, and as all such suffixes were added to the main verb of the sentence, it was

not possible to differentiate whether the writer aimed at primarily using a strong epistemic verb (e.g., *ispatlamak, göstermek*) or the suffix (*-mIştIr*) to qualify his/her commitment in the process of persuading the readers. From this perspective, it could be claimed that Turkish writers (both TL1 and EL2) were sharing similar linguistic strategies to mark their epistemic authority in presenting strong knowledge claims. Thus, the linguistic choices made by writers to intensify their degree of certainty towards propositions varied significantly across groups contrasting Turkish writers with native writers of English.

Although there are some studies (such as, Hu, Brown & Brown, 1982; Hyland & Milton, 1997) suggesting that learner writers of English (L2) tend to present stronger commitment to the knowledge claims and build a more authoritative tone of writing than native speakers of English, this does not seem to be the case for Turkish writers of English at postgraduate level. The logic behind conclusion is supported by the overall incidence of boosters and hedges in the sub-corpora of English L1 and L2 writers. Although, unlike the English L1 writers, the Turkish writers of English (L2) made use of considerably greater numbers of boosters to qualify their certainty level, by signalling their commitment and an assertive tone, they nevertheless seemed to prefer a fairly detached style in order to gain credibility for their knowledge claims. By clearly expressing doubt or suspicion about the claims they made, the English L1 and L2 writers developed their own epistemic strategies, by sounding more tentative and cautious and withholding their commitment. This could be related to the academic conventions in English scientific discourse, where writers are expected to produce their claims by anticipating potential opposition by the intended audience, who the writers need to try to guide towards a specific interpretation. As Hyland (1996) points out, ‘‘if ‘truth’ does not lie exclusively in the external world, there is always at least one plausible interpretation of particular data’’ (p.436). It is therefore central in academia

(especially in English academic traditions) to present one of these plausible interpretations, without fully commit to it, and guide readers to comprehend what is asserted, as the way the writer interprets it would enable an unproven knowledge claim to gain the reader's credibility and acceptance. What was observed in the present postgraduate data was that the English L1 and L2 writers mostly mitigated their claims, and thereby showing an awareness of the presence of the readers and letting them judge from their own point of view based on the evidence supplied.

Interestingly, the three groups of writers all confidently presented what they themselves had achieved in their research (see 4.3.1). The main reason for such a strategy was in all probability making the desire to indicate their research worth considering as a piece of academic work and to contribute to the global stream of academic knowledge. To this end, the postgraduates increased the force of the propositions to 'fact' and the level of their commitment as 'full'.

It should be noted that there has been an issue (called expression faulty) in Turkish of how to treat utterances expressions signalling both doubt and certainty in the same sentence. Pilanci (2009) treats example (103) below as an expression faulty, which includes both a state of affairs where the writer is completely certain and signal his/her doubt towards the action in the proposition.

(103) **Eminiz ki** iradeli bir insan olan öğretmenimiz bu sorununu da **herhalde** çözmüştür. (p.223)
(***We are sure that*** *our strong-willed teacher* ***probably*** *solved his problem too.*)

Causing a contradiction in the meaning (Did he solve the problem?) seems to be not tolerated in the Turkish language and therefore treated as a failure in expressing accurate information, due to the ambiguous nature. There was no such an instance in the Turkish texts in the present study, but the phenomenon was several of the apparent in English texts, as in the following typical example by a native writer of English. The

writer increased the force of the overall proposition about Bolton speakers, by signalling a high degree of certainty via the adverb (*Certainly*). On the other hand, the information presented carries a sense of scientific caution (*are likely to hear*), as well as a decrease in the degree of assurance, in order not to overstate the case for Bolton speakers. Therefore, the tendency of participants towards a state of affairs that is not always true/happening is realised as a categorical assertion carrying a substantial degree of confidence.

> (104) ***Certainly***, Bolton speakers ***are likely to hear*** pronunciations of SQUARE words with front vowels when they talk to people from other areas of Greater Manchester or further afield. (EL1-12)

As academic writing is known to be a way of knowledge making, the potential differences in the research fields in which the real-world problems are investigated might also affect how the researchers address them in their academic discourse. Hyland's (1998) label of 'soft-knowledge' fields could account for a more interpretative nature of knowledge making in the Social Sciences, from which the sub-corpora were built in the present study. According to Hyland, the Social Science writers are expected to negotiate knowledge claims by relying on a less taken-for-granted style and calling on readers to pursue the premises and reasoning the writers have purposed to gain credibility in the ratification of knowledge claims. Therefore, a much more cautiously built discourse would make knowledge claims more acceptable, rather than less deniable, with the aim of appealing to the readership by withholding their complete commitment. Nevertheless, this does not seem to be the case for the Turkish L1 discussion sections, where less speculative statements were produced, resulting in a markedly more authoritative tone. In contrast to the representation of knowledge claims in the Turkish L1 texts, the English L1 & L2 writers, as shown earlier, seemed to limit their commitment far more strongly. The adoption of a more cautious tone of writing in

the texts of the Turkish writers of English can best be explained by the proposal by Lewin (2005), that rhetorical strategies which are different from native language ones need teaching in EAP contexts, as they tend to be culturally-bound. The fact that Turkish writers of English (L2) in the present study adapted a far more cautious style might be attributed to an emphasis on hedging in the teaching course they had attended. The parallel use of hedging resources in both sets of English texts (L1 & L2) was supported by the results of the overall quantitative analysis. There was not a significant difference in the use of hedging resources by EL1 and EL2. In other words, the tone of writing that L2 writers accomplished in their discussion sections was reasonably similar to what was observed in the texts of the native speakers of English.

Chapter 5
Results and discussion: Authorial presence in postgraduate writing

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the authorial presence findings both quantitatively and qualitatively. The focus will be on the frequency of occurrences and comparisons of the explicit and implicit references across the groups. Then, the focus will shift to particular choices by postgraduates and how they accomplished some discourse functions in their discussion sections.

It might be assumed that the use of authorial references (explicit and implicit forms) by novice academic writers can be accounted for by a range of related phenomena:

- The expectations of the academic institutions they are in and personal awareness of academic conventions;
- Creating a more objective style of scientific writing via disguising themselves in the texts with agentless passives (Yakhontova, 2006), anticipatory *it* (Harwood, 2003);
- Featuring a more authoritative style to appeal to readers and indicate personal responsibility taken.

As discussed in Section 3.8., the linguistic realizations of authorial presence (explicitly or implicitly) will be presented by focusing on the use and functions of personal pronouns and impersonal constructions.

5.2 Quantitative analysis: Linguistic means of signalling authorial presence across postgraduate academic texts

The quantitative investigation of authorial presence in the writing of postgraduates revealed significant differences across groups. As mentioned previously in 3.3.2, the sizes of the postgraduate texts were not equal, so, an equalisation of occurrences (per 1000 words) had to be undertaken. The normalised figures below indicate a greater tendency for TL1 and EL2 writers to avoid the use of explicit personal pronouns (*I* and *we*), which downplayed their authorial presence, compared with the EL1 writers.

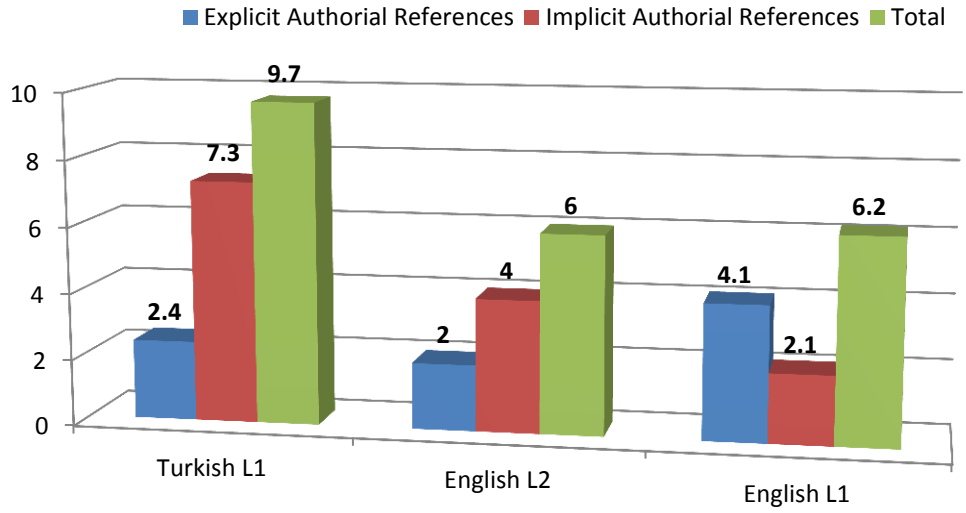


Figure 5.1. Mean frequency of explicit and implicit references (per 1000 words).

As clearly seen above, the Turkish L1 and English L2 writers mainly chose impersonal forms, such as passive structures or prominent research elements (i.e. the data, or findings) instead of explicit personal pronouns to represent and emphasise their personal inclusion. In contrast, the English L1 writers preferred to participate more actively in their discourse by employing personal pronouns and explicitly highlighting their authorial presence. The use of explicit authorial references by these writers was twice as frequent as for the Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English.

Ranks

	Group	N	Mean Rank
Explicit Authorial References	Turkish (TL1)	30	45.93
	Turkish of English (EL2)	30	35.33
	English (EL1)	30	55.23
	Total	90	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	Explicit Authorial References
Chi-Square	8.828
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.012

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: Group

Figure 5.2. Kruskal-Wallis Test for explicit authorial references across groups (TL1, EL2, EL1).

The Kruskal-Wallis test revealed a statistically significant difference across the 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 (see Figure 5.2) regarding the use of explicit authorial references.

The normalised figures in Figure 5.1 and the raw frequencies of the instances essentially indicated which group caused a statistically significant difference in representing authorial presence explicitly. This was the English (L1) writers, with 428 total occurrences of personal pronouns and 4.1 instances per 1000 words. The Mann-Whitney U test (Figure 5.3 below) confirmed this conclusion and reported a statistically significant difference when Turkish L1 writers (TL1) and Turkish writers of English (EL2) were grouped as cultural pairs and compared with the English L1 writers (U: 608, p=0.012).

Ranks

	T1+T2 vs E1	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Explicit Authorial References	Turkish	60	40.63	2438.00
	English	30	55.23	1657.00
	Total	90		

Test Statistics[a]

	Explicit Authorial References
Mann-Whitney U	608.000
Wilcoxon W	2438.000
Z	-2.515
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.012

a. Grouping Variable: T1+T2, E1

Figure 5.3. Mann-Whitney Test for explicit authorial references across cultures (Turkish vs English)[28].

Nevertheless, when the use of explicit authorial references is compared between Turkish and English (both L1 and L2 grouped as the language pair) languages, the Mann-Whitney U test did not reveal a statistically significant result (U: 887, p=0.911)

[28] 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.

as shown in Figure 5.4. Hence, language was not found to be as effective as culture in explaining the variety across groups.

Ranks

	T1,E2+E1	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Explicit Authorial References	Turkish	30	45.93	1378.00
	English	60	45.28	2717.00
	Total	90		

Test Statistics[a]

	Explicit Authorial References
Mann-Whitney U	887.000
Wilcoxon W	2717.000
Z	-.112
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.911

a. Grouping Variable: T1,E2+E1

Figure 5.4. Mann-Whitney Test for explicit authorial references across languages (Turkish vs English)[29].

As can be seen from Figure 5.5 below, the number of sentences constructed using explicit forms of authorial reference (per 1000 sentences) was relatively close in the texts of Turkish writers (TL1 and English L2): 53.1 and 39.3 respectively. As the position of the EL2 writers was even below that of the Turkish L1 writers, it resulted in a non-significant difference between the groups (Turkish L1+English L2 vs. English L1). This might explain why the difference above (Figure 5.4) was not statistically significant.

[29] 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.

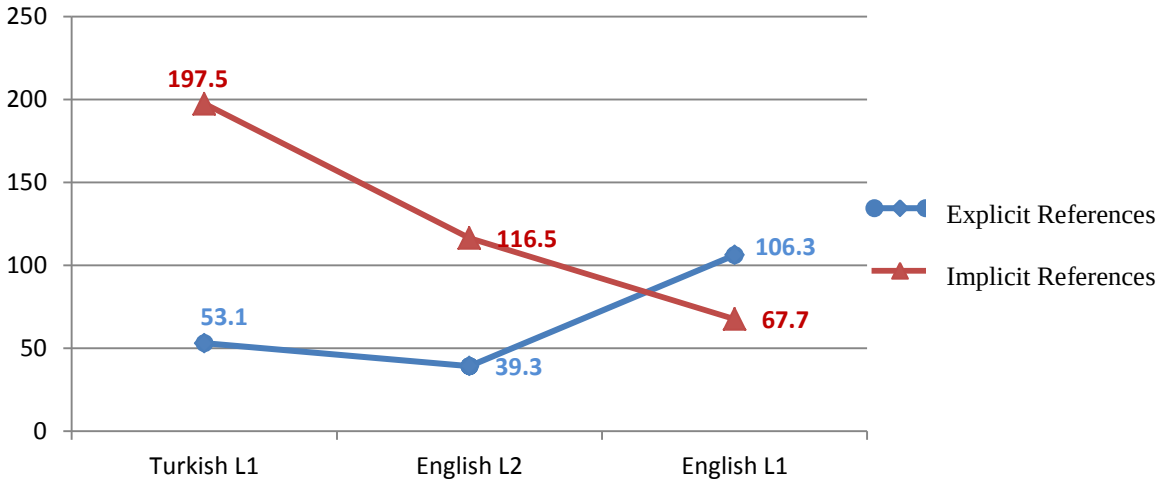


Figure 5.5. Mean frequency of explicit references and implicit references per 1000 sentences across postgraduate texts.

When the normalised figures, as shown in Figure 5.1, for the implicit authorial references were considered, it was found that the TL1 writers employed such expressions (7.3 per 1000 words) approximately twice as frequent as the Turkish writers of English (EL2), and more than triple the figure for the English writers (EL1). Comparing just the English texts generally, (4.0 instances vs. 2.1 instances per 1000 words), impersonal features were favoured by the L2 writers more; the English L1 writers mostly preferred to use explicit authorial references. Figures 5.1 and 5.5 clearly show that Turkish L1 writers revealed their authorial presence through impersonal constructions (approximately 4 times more frequent than the personal references) and this can be seen as a way of taking less explicit responsibility for the propositions in their discourse.

The Kruskal-Wallis test again showed that there was also a statistically significant difference (H (2): 29.673, p=0.00) across the three groups regarding creating a rhetorical effect by disguising one's authorial presence and putting element-prominent or passive constructions in front (see Figure 5.6).

Ranks

	Group	N	Mean Rank
Implicit Authorial References	Turkish (TL1)	30	63.33
	Turkish of English (EL2)	30	46.53
	English (TL1)	30	26.63
	Total	90	

Test Statistics[a,b]

	Implicit Authorial References
Chi-Square	29.673
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.000

a. Kruskal Wallis Test
b. Grouping Variable: Group

Figure 5.6. Kruskal-Wallis Test for implicit authorial references across the three groups (TL1, EL2, EL1).

The mean ranks were 63.63 (Turkish L1), 45.97 (English L2), and 26.63 (English L1). These mean ranks indicated that the implicit authorial references were highly preferred patterns by both Turkish L1 and Turkish writers of English (EL2) whereas such instances were comparatively less frequent in the English L1 texts. In other words, EL1 writers rhetorically deemphasised their authorial presence significantly less than the other two groups. To confirm this finding, Mann-Whitney U tests were run.

The Mann-Whitney U tests reported statistically significant results on the comparisons of samples paired as culturally-tied and linguistically-tied groups. The first comparison (Turkish L1+English L2 vs. English L1), involving the culture variable, resulted in U: 334, p= 0.00 (see Figure 5.7). This basically shows that the use of implicit authorial references by Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) differed significantly from what the English L1 writers did.

Ranks

	T1+T2, E1	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Implicit Authorial References	Turkish	60	54.93	3296.00
	English	30	26.63	799.00
	Total	90		

Test Statistics[a]

	Implicit Authorial References
Mann-Whitney U	334.000
Wilcoxon W	799.000
Z	-4.845
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

a. Grouping Variable: T1+T2, E1

Figure 5.7. Mann-Whitney Test for implicit authorial references across cultures (Turkish vs. English).

When the linguistically-tied groups were included in the Mann-Whitney U test based on the language variable (Turkish L1 vs. English L2 + English L1), there was still again a statistically significant difference as shown in Figure 5.8 below. Implicit references were heavily used in the Turkish texts compared with the English ones (U: 365, p= 0.00). Therefore, the group affecting the significance appeared to be the Turkish L1 writers as illustrated below:

Ranks

	T1,E2+E1	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Implicit Authorial References	Turkish	30	63.33	1900.00
	English	60	36.58	2195.00
	Total	90		

Test Statistics[a]

	Implicit Authorial References
Mann-Whitney U	365.000
Wilcoxon W	2195.000
Z	-4.579
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

b. Grouping Variable: T1,E2+E1

Figure 5.8. Mann-Whitney Test for implicit authorial references across languages (Turkish vs English).

Before moving on to more detailed quantitative considerations of the authorial references, it should be briefly noted that the use of authorial references across the three

postgraduate profiles differed greatly. For instance, there is a clear distinction between the Turkish L1 writers' use of personal pronouns and what the English writers' (L1 and L2) employed. The predominance of impersonal constructions was much more apparent in the Turkish postgraduates' texts (TL1 and EL2), related to the tendency to employ less explicit expressions.

5.2.1 Expressions signalling explicit authorial presence across groups

This section presents a detailed consideration of linguistic expressions used to refer explicitly to authorial presence, as well as the quantitative distributions of such items across the texts.

An analysis of uses of *I*- and *we*-based personal pronouns can show how the writers differed in presenting their authorial selves. This could be treated as the reflection of authoritativeness in the academic texts of postgraduates as explicit references contribute to how they would like to be endorsed with the piece of information presented. As Duenas (2007) argued, authorial self is positively portrayed in order to create a persuasive discourse, where explicit self-mentions help construct credibility and authorial voice.

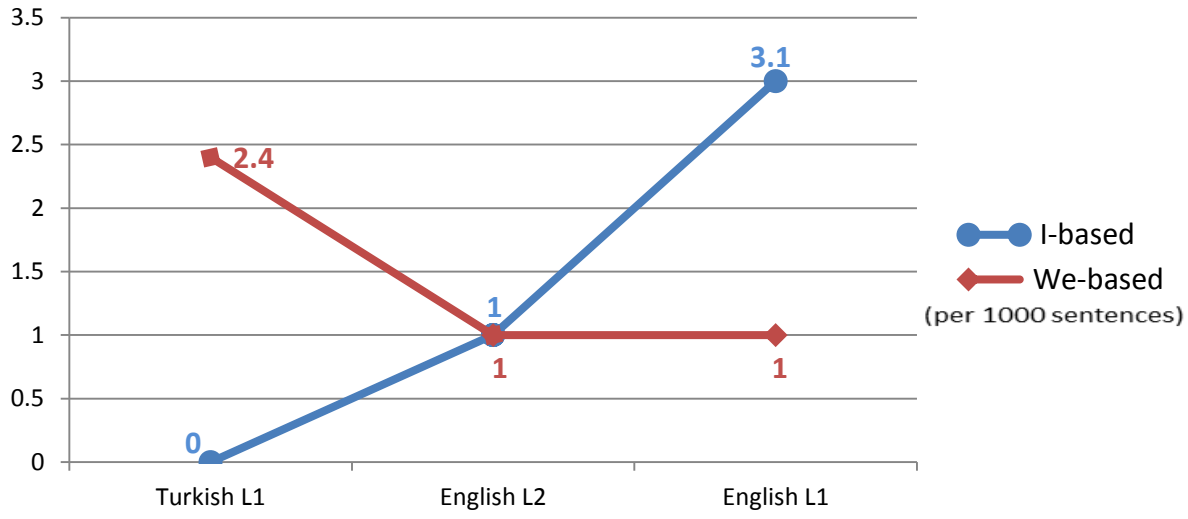


Figure 5.9. Mean frequency of *I*- and *we*-based authorial references across groups (per 1000 sentences).

As Figure 5.9 illustrates, it is surprising that there was *not* a single reference of the personal pronoun *I* in the writing of the Turkish L1 writers over the 173 linguistic expressions signalling authorial presence explicitly. In other words, they did not prefer to foreground their authorial presence, as a researcher/thinker or writer, explicitly via one of the most common authorial references in the scientific world. Nevertheless, on the basis of quantitative investigation, it was found that Turkish L1 writers made significant use of *we*-based pronouns (such as *we, our, us*) although these texts were all single-authored. The frequency of *we* pronouns in the TL1 texts was 2.4 per 1000 words. It is important to note that the realisation of first person plural instances in the TL1 texts occurred in various ways, such as suffixes to the main verb (*-dIk*, *-iz*), a possessive adjective form of 'we' added to nouns (i.e. araştırma**mız**), or the object pronoun 'bize'. The comparison with English pronouns still seemed to be reasonable as the occurrences were functionally identical.

The use of personal pronouns in the EL2 texts was interestingly equal (122 instances for *I*-based and 122 for *we*-based pronouns). However, it was so frequent that they used 'our' quite often (20% of all explicit items) with research elements such as '*our* study', '*our* prediction', '*our* sample', '*our* hypothetical scenario' as shown below. Such expressions were almost three times as frequent as instances referring to the study or data itself (3).

(1) Finally, **our hypothetical situation** that involved a transgression in an interpersonal context and a responsibility lapse based on previous research elicited feelings of guilt among 44% of the Turkish children. 20% the children reported that they would have felt ashamed. (EL2-2)

(2) **Our findings** are also in line with this trend. (EL2-25)

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

The EL2 writers were found to employ fewer explicit authorial references than the other writers. However, one of the most striking differences across groups regarding

self-references was the contrast of choices that native writers of Turkish and English had over the pronouns performing rhetorical positioning. As can be clearly seen from Figure 5.9, the EL1 writers made greater use of first person singular pronouns (3.1 items per 1000 words) whereas Turkish L1 writers did not use any *I*-based pronouns. In contrast, Turkish writers of English (EL2) equally used both of the first person plural pronouns while manifesting their authorial voice. Although it was three times less frequent than I-based self-references, some EL1 writers did employ first person plural pronouns to indicate authorial voice. However, it could be argued that making use of *we*-based pronouns in the single-authored texts is designed to avoid the level of personal intrusion of *I*, but to still create a reasonable level of authority. In other words, as Hyland (2001) put it:

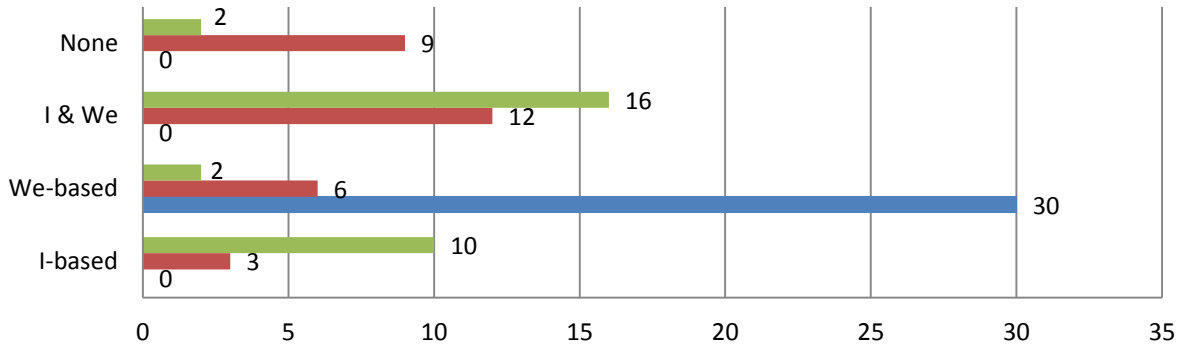
> These examples from single-authored papers suggest how writers can simultaneously reduce their personal intrusion and yet emphasise the importance that should be given to their unique procedural choices or views (p.217).

Considering the fact that the use of first person plural pronouns occurs in the three groups of postgraduates and as literature regarding *we*-based authorial references in expert academic writing (Harwood, 2003; Hyland, 2001; Mur Duenas 2007) indicates, the rhetorical positioning via *we*-based expressions can be treated as one of the prevailing ways of building disciplinary knowledge and communication in scientific writing. As the use of 'I' was not present in the Turkish L1 texts and the use of *we* was greater (2.4 instances per 1000 words) than for the other two groups, TL1 writers did not seem to display a self-prominent style. However, it can be speculated that Turkish L1 writers tend to highlight ''instant claiming of authority and communality'' (Pennycook, 1974, p. 176).

The use of personal pronouns has also been identified as one of the various linguistic resources creating interpersonal interventions in academic texts. Tang and John (1999) stated that the strategic use of these items is significant in constructing an authorial/authoritative-self, based on numerous functions at discourse level. Although such use of personal authorial pronouns is quite important in establishing and

positioning the identity of the author in the discourse and the scientific community, there has to date been no clear and straightforward information on their use (Martinez, 2005). There could well be variations even in the same disciplines and discourse communities because of personal and cultural differences across writers.

It has been shown that there are marked tendencies for particular discourse communities to choose particular authorial pronouns to best represent them in the discourse. For instance, Hyland (2001) found that expressing writer identity through w*e*-based self-referential pronouns was particularly dense in the texts of Physics (0.1 vs. 55.7 per 10,000 words) and Biology (0.2 vs. 33.0 per 10,000 words) expert writers, compared with Philosophy research articles, where writers featured self-prominent writing via heavy use of *I*-based pronouns (45.8 vs. 2.2 per 10,000 words). Such a clear disciplinary distinction could be expected based on the nature of the topic work and on prominent academic conventions in the disciplines, not related to cultural or linguistic issues. That could be also related to the style of claiming a degree of membership in the community, by following what is accepted in terms of personal intrusion and professional ways of building authorial presence. Therefore, the choices of writers might vary from one scientific community to another. However, as the comparison in the present study is not about the misuse of any kinds of linguistic device, the differences across the groups could be labelled as underuse or overuse. For example, as can be seen from Figure 5.10 below, all Turkish L1 writers made use of *we*-based pronouns, and this could be regarded as an excessive use of that self-mention appearing every single text compared with less frequent use of *we* by the other two groups.



	I-based	We-based	I & We	None
English L1	10	2	16	2
English L2	3	6	12	9
Turkish L1	0	30	0	0

Figure 5.10. Number of texts containing I-based and we-based authorial references across groups (30 texts in total from each group).

A great number of the postgraduates writing in English (L1 & L2) were found to move between *I*- and *we*-based pronouns to build to the relationship between themselves and the intended audience. In other words, it was observed that the combination of first person singular and plural pronouns was a relatively common practice in the texts of the EL1 and EL2 writers. The number of texts that both types of authorial pronoun appeared was 12 (40%) in EL2 and 16 (53%) in EL1 (see Figure 30).

Interestingly, only three of the Turkish writers of English (EL2) exclusively used first person singular (*I, my, me*) pronouns to make their presence explicit, whereas no *I*-based pronouns were chosen by Turkish L1 writers, as noted earlier. One postgraduate from every three from the EL1 (10 in total) group preferred displaying a more ‘‘overt structure for their discourse’’ (Hyland, 2001, p.221) by employing exclusively first person singular person markers. When this figure is also combined with the English L1 postgraduates who made use of both first person pronouns (16 postgraduates out of 30), this simply showed that more than 86% of students in EL1 seemed to be more likely to use *I*-based pronouns to reflect their authorial identity in

their discourse. Conversely, just half of the EL2 texts (3 with only *I* and 12 texts with a combination of *I* and *we*) included I-based pronouns.

Interestingly, there were some English texts (L1 and L2) in which the writers chose not to represent their authorial voice via any explicit reference as Figure 5.10 shows. Almost 30% of the EL2 discussion sections showed no sign of rhetorical positioning realised through explicit references to the author. Although it was significantly less than for EL2, there were only two texts by English L1 writers where the discourse was intentionally framed in a rather impersonal way without emphasising their contributions explicitly. As can be expected, the writers adopted a style in their texts without any personal forms; this might be one of the reasons why impersonal forms of rhetorical positioning for the Turkish writers of English, as will be described in 5.2.3, are significantly more frequent than for the English L1 writers.

The difference between native and non-native writers of English was statistically significant; inasmuch as EL1 writers basically employed first person pronouns more than twice as frequently as EL2 writers. This is in line with what Martinez (2005) observed in a comparative study of academic texts from native speakers and non-native speakers of English (38.2 vs. 18. 9 per 10,000 words). Similarly, Luzon (2009) found that L2 writers of English with lower proficiency had a tendency to overuse personal author pronouns. In contrast, Turkish writers of English (EL2) were found to be employing significantly fewer pronouns while achieving discourse goals such as organizing textual features and making the discourse structure comprehensible to the reader, describing experimental procedure, or reporting results and findings. Nevertheless, it was found that Turkish writers of English did not overuse such personal pronouns compared with the instances in the English L1 texts (2 vs. 4.1 per 1000 words). This could be related to the awareness of writers, as suggested by Hyland (2002) and Martinez (2005), that non-native speakers of English mostly avoid using personal references.

5.2.2 Authorial roles signalled via explicit authorial references

This section explores the authorial roles signalled and accomplished via the explicit references in postgraduate writing, reviewing Table 5.1 below might help us remembering the authorial roles those were apparent in the corpus of the study and labelled as *Research Conductor, Opinion Holder, Discourse Creator and Participant*, and *Community-self*.

Table 5.1 *The rhetorical roles accomplished by the postgraduates in the corpus*

Rhetorical roles	Explicit or implicit references used for	Example
Research Conductor	• research process and procedures; • research aim, focus, expectations; identification of new items; • comparisons of data and results; • predicting cases to lead to a conclusion; outcome of the study; • research-based struggles and limitations; data exclusion or inclusion as reflective issues.	▪ **I designed** this case study and explored teachers' attitudes and behaviours towards research at the DBE at (METU). ▪ **The study was conducted** in two phases.
Opinion Holder	• presenting an explanation for a consequence; • presenting writer's belief and thoughts; inference; claim and suggestions, assumption, disagreement or approval of the idea; • proposing or hypothesising an idea or theory; • implying or indicating opinions from/based on data, findings or analysis; • elaborating an argument.	▪ **I suggest** that the reasons for this are... ▪ **It can be said** that the cultures of the Turkish students are totally ignored during the classes.
Discourse Creator and Participant	• announcing what is included in the present discourse section or directs readers to other parts of the section to remind what has been/will be achieved; • shifting the topic to move on another argument or illustration; • illustrating examples of the mentioned phenomenon; listing items or categorises; defining terms; • mentioning his/her presence and the intended audience as discourse participants	▪ **As we have seen**, training and professional development has not been as widespread… ▪ Now **let us see** how the contrast below can be explained
Community-Self	• remarking on one's contribution to the discourse community with the research aim/focus attempted and its outcomes; • recommending suggestions for further prospective studies by the potential gaps and drawbacks of his/her own study; • remarking on one's presence in the discourse community as an individual such as a teacher, researcher, sociologist, historian.	▪ **The present study contributes** to research on... ▪ For future studies, **it is recommended** that the father daughter relationship…

Regarding the analysis of the personal pronouns based on the categories outlined in Section 3.8.2 and summarised in Table 5.1 above, there are some differences and

similarities across groups (see Figure 5.11). It should be underlined that some pronouns seem to have a multifunctional nature; nevertheless, the contextual analysis by looking at the co-occurring verbs helped with categorising each occurrence and assigning it to one category by differentiating the authorial roles taken over in the discourse. A more detailed discussion about the authorial roles adopted by the postgraduates will be presented in Section 5.3.2.

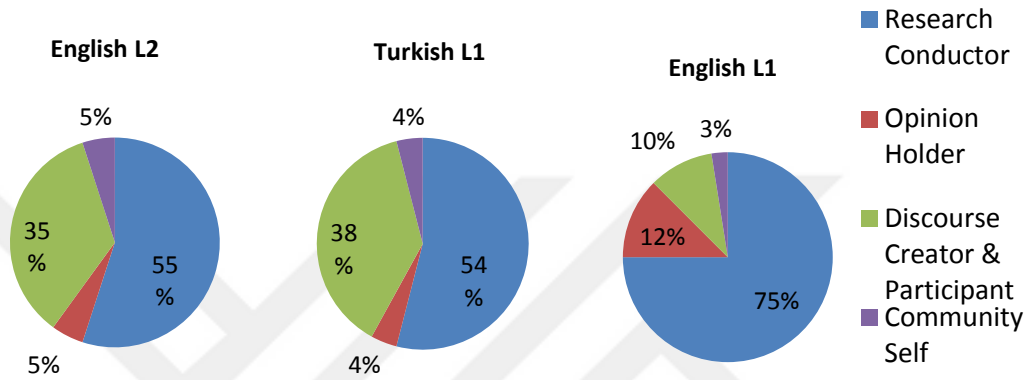


Figure 5.11. Proportions of the authorial roles across groups.

From a quantitative perspective, it is clear from Figure 5.11 and Table 5.2 that all groups of writers used personal pronouns predominantly to flag the idea of Research Conductor (TL1: 1.3, EL2 :1.1, and EL1: 3.0 occurrences per 1000 words).

The Kruskal-Wallis (see Table 5.2 below) significance test has revealed that there was a statistically significant difference across writers (H (2): 10.507, p=0.005 with the mean ranks of 43.33 for Turkish L1; 36.00 for Turkish writers of English and 57.17 for English L1 writers). The difference is simply because EL1 writers who featured almost three times as many instances of explicit authorial references as the other two groups of writers.

Table 5.2 *The occurrences of authorial roles via explicit resources (per 1000 words) and statistical results*

	Research Conductor	Opinion Holder	Discourse Creator & Participant	Community Self
Turkish L1	1.3	0.1	0.9	0.1
English L2	1.1	0.1	0.7	0.1
English L1	3	0.5	0.4	0.1
Kruskal Wallis Significance	0.005	0.01	0.289	0.488

Note: A p value of 0.05 is taken as the cut off for statistically significant difference.

Although it was observed that TL1 postgraduates preferred *we*-based pronouns over *I* as in (4), there was a balance in EL1 and EL2 texts in terms of employing *I* and *we*-based pronouns to accomplish the *Research Conductor* role (see examples 5-7).

(4) Özsoy (2006), çalismasinda çalisilan yerle ilgili olarak hazirlik asamasinda köylerde daha çok sorun yasandigini belirtmistir. Bu sonuç **bizim ulastigimiz** sonuçlarla paralellik göstermemektedir. (TL1-19)
(*Özsoy (2006) stated that there were more problems in the villages during the preparation phase in his study. This result is not in line with* ***the results we reached.****)*

(5) To answer this question, **I analyze** representative intervention structures within three major wh-in-situ and intervention approaches (EL2-6)

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

(7) **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)

This role can be regarded as less face threatening, due its non-contentious, compared with *Opinion Holder* cases, which were dramatically fewer than *Research Conductor* cases in the corpus, as illustrated in Table 5.2. Although Hyland (2002) observed that the L2 undergraduate writers mostly employed personal pronouns for the discourse functions of stating research process-based aspects of texts, such as the research focus, or methodological considerations, this finding can be extended to the writing of postgraduates as the three different groups of writers evidenced this tendency.

This might be related to avoiding making controversial statements and opinions and claiming authority, but feeling quite confident enough to highlight their authorial role. The second common authorial role adopted by postgraduates was *Discourse Creator and Participant*. A very small number of instances were identified in the corpus: TL1: 0.9, EL2: 0.7 and EL1: 0.4 items per 1000 words. The statistical tests did not reveal a significant difference across groups; rather, it seemed to be a common strategy whereby postgraduates interacted with their intended readers and guided them through the text. As outlined in Section 3.8.2 for the role of *Discourse Creator and Participant*, postgraduates made use of explicit reference to their presence in the texts when:

Highlighting their own and the readers' presence in the text inclusively:

(8) Son cümleye **baktigimizda** aktif ögrenme biçimine sahip ögrencinin bu özelliginin olmasi, yani ögrendiklerinin ise yaradigini görmeleri doyum saglamalarina neden olur ve ögrenciyi ögrenmeye güdüler. (TL1-17)
(*When **we look at** the last sentence, the active learning skill that the student has, which makes them see that what they learn help, provides them satisfaction and motivates the student to learn.)*

(9) **As we have seen**, training and professional development has not been as widespread or as deep as many teachers and researchers would like. (EL1-3)

Shifting topic:

(10) **Now let us see** how the contrast below can be explained if *we* adopt Reinhart's (1997, 1998) choice function analysis. (EL2-6)

Announcing a discourse goal:

(11) **I would now like to turn** to the university system from which the sample of my questionnaire was selected in order to discuss some concerns for effectively implementing such a pursuit (EL1-13)

The use of *I*- and *we*-based pronouns by all postgraduates to construct themselves as the *Opinion Holder* seemed to be rather infrequent compared with *Research Conductor* and *Discourse Creator & Participant* roles. It is especially in the TL1 and EL2 texts that there were quite limited incidences: 0.1 items per 1000 words

for both groups. In other words, this particular functional analysis provided very little evidence to support the hypothesis that Turkish postgraduates used personal pronouns to elaborate an argument or express the novelty of an opinion, claim or suggestion.

Nevertheless, it should be emphasised that this does not necessarily mean these texts do not include claims or arguments. That is because Turkish L1 and EL2 were found to be employing more impersonal elements to disguise their presence in the process of introducing their claims, as discussed in Section 5.2.3. However, there was a marked difference in the discussion sections of English L1 writers, in that they employed almost five times more instances than the other groups. This was also supported as a statistically significant difference by the Kruskal-Wallis test: H (2): 14.240 p=0.001 with the mean ranks of 36.65 for TL1; 42.83 for EL2, and 57.02 for EL1 writers. The occurrences where the avoidance of first person pronouns did not take place, but full responsibility was taken might be best exemplified as follows:

(12) Bu noktadan hareketle **diyebiliriz ki** geleceğin yetişkinleri olan bugünün öğrencilerine emanet edilen ülkemizin kalkınabilmesi için doğru düşünme ve çağımızın bir gereksinimi olan yaratıcılık yaratıcı düşünme becerisi öğrencilere kazandırılması gereken öncelikli becerilerden olmalıdır. (TL1-26)
(*From this point,* ***we can/could/would/may/might suggest*** *that correct thinking and creative thinking skills should be of priority to make students gain in order that our country, which is entrusted to today's students of future adults, can/could/would/may/might develop*.)

(13) **We believe** that vocabulary instruction or 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 (i.e., a heightened awareness of and appreciation for words). (EL2-19)

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

(15) **I suggest** that the reasons for this are that these dyads had established a successful method of constructing tangrams without the need for dialogue; therefore introductory mentions of referents in the speech part of the experiment did not need to be as intelligible. (EL1-17)

Although it was quite rare in all texts, some of the explicit references functioned as *Community-self* markers. The authors preferred highlighting their presence by revealing another identity, as the community member to whom they addressed their particular research or stressed the contribution of the research (see example 16) to the academic community. Not only do they emphasise another identity (see example 17), such as teacher, or trainer, but also recommend further studies by critiquing the potential gaps within their research. Nevertheless, the instances were rather limited in all groups (7 items in TL1, 15 items in EL2, 8 items in EL1). This might be because some postgraduates preferred accomplishing such a role in the Conclusion section, as this generally had recommendation and limitation sub-sections.

(16) **Our study has extended** recent research on display rules of emotions in a number of ways (EL2-2)

(17) It is imperative that **we provide** teachers with continuous and systematic staff development training on vocabulary and concept knowledge (EL2-19)

The next section will explore the other way of expressing authorial presence, via impersonal forms, which played an important role in rhetorical positioning and the knowledge construction process in the writing of the postgraduates included in the study.

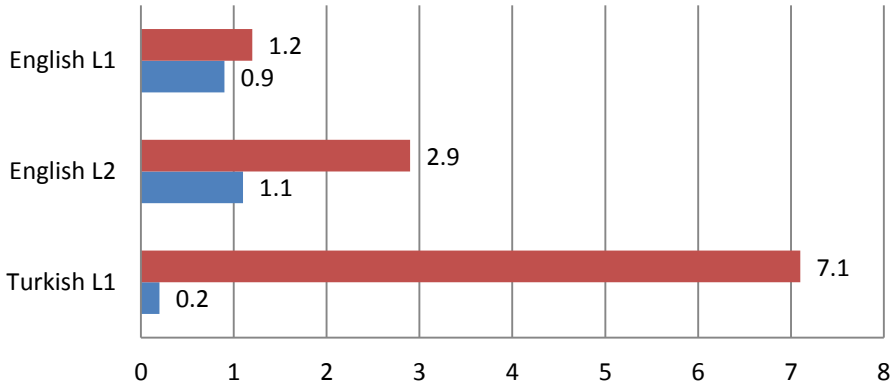
5.2.3 Expressions signalling implicit authorial presence across groups

When the notion of interpersonality is considered in academic writing, the academic communication, regardless of how the intended meaning is conveyed, gains more importance. It could be argued that the way authors aim to present propositional meanings is a matter of rhetorical choices and positioning. In other words, the linguistic form of items helps the author create a message by constructing a rhetorical effect for the persuasive purposes.

As outlined in 3.8, this research on postgraduate writing provided some valuable insight on how the authorial visibility might be realised by impersonal linguistic preferences. There was a strong tendency for TL1 and EL2 writers to make use of an impersonal tone for knowledge presentation in Discussion sections, compared with EL1 writers. As can be seen from Figure 5.1 in Section 5.2, the TL1 writers employed more than three times more implicit forms than explicit references (2.4 vs. 7.3 items per 1000 words), and similarly, the Turkish writers of English also adhered to a more impersonal style in their discussion sections (2.0 vs. 4.0 items per 1000 words). In contrast, the English L1 writers displayed a rather explicit reference-prominent style of writing (4.0 vs. 2.1 instances per 1000 words). This could be used to support the idea that EL1 writers tend to flag their presence principally not by avoiding author-prominent features, but by inserting explicit manifestations of them to gain personal credibility. The common devices that the postgraduates were found to use in building an impersonal style, while achieving particular discourse functions, included numerous uses of passive constructions, and relatively rare use of active verbs with inanimate subjects (element-prominent instances, or 'abstract rhetors' as defined by Hyland 1994, 1996).

The use of passive constructions can have an effect on decreasing the directness and weaken the style of an author, compared with using the active voice, as mentioned in 3.8.2.2. Therefore, it is possible to argue that a more indirect style could be achieved by the use of passive forms allowing authors to present information, but not as powerfully as a personalised style with the active voice. Table 5.3 shows that Turkish L1 writers employed a significantly greater number of passive constructions (7.1 items per 1000 words) than the other two groups. In other words, the passive constructions by the postgraduates who were writing in English (L1 and L2) were less frequent than those in the Turkish L1 texts.

Table 5.3 *Distribution of implicit authorial references across groups (per 1000 words)*



	Turkish L1	English L2	English L1
Passive Constructions	7.1	2.9	1.2
Element-Prominent Constructions	0.2	1.1	0.9

The other way of highlighting authorial presence implicitly is to use inanimate subjects with active verb constructions, which I call *Element-Prominent* structures, as the author disguises him/herself and brings the elements of the research (i.e. data, result, study, or thesis) to the front to achieve one of the discourse roles as outlined in 3.8.2.3. By making the elements become the subject of the sentences, the author essentially inserts 'the source of the claim' (Hyland, 1996, p.444) as if the source speaks for itself as the grammatical subject of the construction, as in the example below:

(18) **Bu araştırma** Türkiye'de eğitime sadece bütçeden daha fazla pay ayrılarak eğitimin çözülemeyeceği düşüncesini 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.)*

(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)

Examples (18) and (19) imply that the authors expressed what they wanted to achieve by de-emphasising their explicit presence and portraying their voice as the 'research'. It is interesting to note that there were only two expressions used by the TL1

writers, which are *araştırma* and *çalışma*. However, both Turkish writers of English and English L1 writers included greater variety of such resources, as illustrated in Table 5.4.

Table 5.4 *The five most common inanimate subjects used by postgraduates*

Turkish L1	English L2	English L1
araştırma [30]	study	study
çalışma [31]	section	chapter
x	chapter	research
x	research	section
x	thesis	data

Such constructions can be considered as in between personalised forms of authorial references (*I*, *we*: the author is conspicuous) and agentless passive impersonal authorial references, where authors are completely hidden. That is because such resources enable authors to disguise their presence with non-agentive subjects encouraging intended readers to focus on the research (like data, result) or textual elements (chapter, or section) rather than the author's actual presence. Such constructions constituted 2% in TL1; 29% in EL2; and 41% in EL1 of all implicit authorial references found in the corpus. Table 5.4 above illustrates that the English L1 and L2 writers had a greater tendency to construct such an impersonal means of fulfilling some discourse roles without making explicit reference to themselves (0.9 and 1.1 per 1000 words respectively) than TL1 writers (0.1 per 1000 words).

The following section reports the authorial roles accomplished via implicit references of passive and element-prominent constructions in the postgraduate texts.

5.2.4 Authorial roles signalled via implicit authorial references

As Table 5.1 in Section 5.2.2 showed, there were four rhetorical roles achieved by the postgraduates in their discussion sections either by explicit or implicit authorial references. Starting with the implicit forms, a quantitative analysis of the impersonal resources revealed that the writers preferred employing implicit authorial references to

[30] The '*araştırma*' can be translated as the '*research*'.
[31] The '*çalışma*' can be translated as the '*study*'.

hide/disguise their presence for particular effects. One of the most striking similarities across groups concerned the use of passive constructions or element-prominent instances to portray the Research Conductor role.

Table 5.5 *The implicit occurrences of authorial roles (per 1000 words) and the statistical results*

	Research Conductor	Opinion Holder	Discourse Creator & Participant	Community-self	All
Turkish L1	5.1	1.3	0.7	0.2	7.3
English L2	2.2	0.7	0.9	0.2	4.0
English L1	1.0	0.4	0.6	0.1	2.1
Kruskal Wallis significance	0.0000	0.0002	0.0001	0.1720	0.0000

Note: A *p* value of 0.05 is taken as the cut off for statistically significant difference.

This was the most common of four roles for all three groups; nevertheless, the differences across the groups was statistically significant, as illustrated in Table 5.5 (H (2): 32.908, p=0.000 with the mean ranks of 65.40 for TL1; 44.33 for EL2 and 26.77 for EL1).

The research process and procedures, such as analysing the data, or comparing the author's own data and results, are simply reflected by leaving out their own actual identity (implicit presence). This suggests the intention was mostly to report the research issues rather than the author's existence in the text, as it is apparent that the audience is already aware of the fact that the author is the contributor. Examples of the Research Conductor role being flagged implicitly are 20-23:

(20) Araştırmanın bu alt probleminde üniversite öğrencilerinin etkinliklere katılıp katılmamalarına göre algılanan sosyal destek puanlarının farklılaşıp farklılaşmadığı **incelenmiştir**. (TL1-14)
(***It was examined*** *whether the perceived social support might be differentiated or not based on the participation of the university students in the activities in this research question of the study.)*

(21) Yine Bolu ilinde çok fazla görülen mantar türlerinden kanlıca mantarını ilçedeki öğrencilerin %77,2'sinin tanıdığı, kentteki öğrencilerin %46,5'inin tanıdığı **tespit edilmiştir**. (TL1-2)

(***It was found that*** *%77,2 of the students in the county and %46,5 in the city recognised Kanlica, one of the most common mushroom types in the province of Bolu.)*

(22) The scores of the pre-test (see appendix F) and the scores obtained from the post-test (see appendix G) **are compared and analyzed** to reach some conclusions. (EL2-19)

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

Interestingly, the *study* (23) is one of the most common metonymic words used by the English L1 and L2 writers (see Table 5.4).

Although all writers made use of such implicit authorial references to reveal their Research Conductor identity, explaining the steps that the author followed during the research was not found to be as frequent in the Turkish L1 texts as in the English texts. It is possible to argue that such a role could be more prevalent in the 'Methods' section in dissertations, but there were some instances in the English texts describing procedural issues in order to justify methodological choices (as regards data collection, exclusion, or analysis) as in the following examples:

(24) In this study **the data were collected** via five different student questionnaires, interviews with the teacher and students, and a journal kept by the teacher. **The first questionnaire was designed** to get information about the students' reading skills and Internet use. **The second questionnaire was designed** to get information about students' attitudes towards the benefits and challenges of using Internet sources for developing reading skills. (EL2-24)

(25) **The study was conducted** in two phases. For the first - pilot – phase Awarding Body 1 (AB1) **was selected**. (EL1-6)

(26) Unfortunately, **exploratory analyses** showed that tendency to conform to the authority measured with the Tendency to Conformity Scale (Goldsmith, Clark, & Lafferty, 2005) failed to associate with self-reported academic dishonesty and thus **was removed** from further analyses. (EL2-18)

One of the reasons why the Research Conductor role is significantly more frequent in the TL1 texts than for other two groups is most probably because of the tendency for TL1 postgraduates to report the outcomes based on their data and/or

analyses. To this end, the Turkish L1 writers employed impersonal forms (as in the examples below) such as *bulunmuştur*, *gözlenmiştir, rastlanmiştir* to indicate the actions they carried out but to hide their academic identity ‘‘to suggest that any researcher could have carried out the research and would have come to the same conclusions’’ (Runbald, 2007, p.251).

(27) Sosyal destek arama ve stres yaratan sorun üzerinde odaklaşma türünden başaçıkma yollarını erkeklerden daha çok kullandıklarını belirten sonuçlara **rastlanmıştır.** (TL1-28)
(*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.)*

(28) 10. sınıf öğrencilerinin ailesel beklentiler ve ailesel eleştiriler puanları diğer sınıflarda okuyan öğrencilere göre daha yüksek **bulunmuştur**. (TL1-24)
(***It was found that*** *10th grade students' family expectations and family criticism points were higher than students studying in other classes.)*

(29) Beceri ölçeğine göre gruplar arasında deney grubu yönünde bir anlamlılık olduğu **gözlenmiştir**. (TL1-24)
(***It was observed that*** *there was a significance according to the skill scale between the groups with regard to the experiment group*.)

As shown in 5.2.2, TL1 and EL2 writers were found to make significantly less use of explicit authorial references when they revealed their opinions/arguments/claims towards the phenomenon they presented in their discussion sections (0.1 instances per 1000 words in both group). They preferred more implicit references to accomplish the *Opinion Holder* role (TL1: 1.3 instances; EL2: 0.7 per 1000 words). This was rather a contradictory style when compared with EL1 writers' choices of explicit (0.5 instances per 1000 words) and implicit (0.4 instances per 1000 words) authorial references while elaborating arguments/claims. That seemed to be more balanced across EL1 texts.

(30) Elde edilen bulgular ışığında bellek destekleyiciler doğru olarak kullanıldıkları taktirde hem öğrenme hem de öğrenilenlerin kalıcılık düzeyleri üzerine önemli katkı sağlayacağı **söylenebilir.** (TL-3)
(*In the light of the findings,* ***it can/could/would/may/might be said that*** *it will/would make a significant contibution towards both learning and the persistence of learnt levels if the mnemonics are used correctly*.)

(31) **It can be said** that the cultures of the Turkish students are totally ignored during the classes. (EL2-11)

(32) **As research suggests**, forgetting factor has a detrimental role in vocabulary learning. (EL2-19)

Although there was a statistically significant difference (H (2): 14.784, p=0.001 with the mean ranks of 40.53 for TL1; 59.93 for EL2 and 36.03 for EL1) across groups for *Discourse Creator and Participant* roles as regards overall frequency (see Table 5.5), the postgraduates seemed to make use of similar choices in accomplishing many discourse functions (a-d below):

a) Outlining the section and informing the intended readers about the purpose of the research/section:

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

b) Defining terms, listing ideas and summarising:

(34) Bu araştırmada bulgular sonucunda ulaşılan sonuçlar aşağıda **özetlenmiştir**. (TL1-17)
(The findings reached based on the results in this research **are summarised** below)

c) Showing what is achieved in terms of discourse goals:

(35) **This part presents** the discussions on the findings, recommendations and the implications parallel with the relevant literature. The results and the probable reasons behind these findings **were discussed** by comparing them with the other studies on the same subject. **The discussion will be presented** under two main headings. (EL2-22)

d) Directing the reader to another part of the dissertation:

(36) **This will be discussed** further in Sections 6.3 to 6.4. (EL1-12)

There was not a statistically significant difference (H (2): 3.526, p=0.172 with the mean ranks of 44.03 for TL1; 51.33 for EL2 and 41.13 for EL1) across groups in terms of the last authorial role outlined in 3.8.2.3, *Community-self*. As was the case with explicit authorial references, this role was less frequently adopted by the postgraduates.

It was almost always towards the closing part of the discussion sections that this role was observed. Nevertheless, the TL1 and EL2 writers were found to employ slightly more frequent (0.2 instances per 1000 words) implicit references than the EL1 writers (0.1 instances per 1000 words). The examples below illustrate some of the discourse functions accomplished via passive and element-prominent constructions, such as promoting the overall contribution of the research to the discourse community (37), making recommendations to researchers from that particular community for the further studies (38), or underlining the membership status of the author in the discourse community but employing a different identity (e.g., an English teacher).

(37) **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)

(38) **Bu araştırma**, deneysel uygulamanın dört hafta ile sınırlandırılmış olması nedeniyle SYÖO ve MYÖO tasarımlarının akademik basari ve öğrenmenin kalıcılığı üzerindeki etkilerini ölçmekte yetersiz kalabilir. Bu nedenle, ilköğretim – ortaöğretim -yükseköğretim düzeylerinin birinci sınıflarından başlanarak boylamsal bir çalışma yapılması **önerilebilir**. (TL1-22)
(***This research*** *can/could/would/may/might/ be insufficient on measuring the impact of academic achievement of SYÖO and MYÖO`s design and the permanence of learning due to the fact that the experimental application is limited to four weeks. Therefore,* ***it is recommended*** *that a longitudinal study should be carried out in the primary school, the secondary school and the higher education levels starting from beginner classes.*)

Having portrayed some of the quantitative findings on authorial presence and roles across groups, the following section will present more detail on the use of explicit and implicit references in the Turkish and English texts from a qualitative perspective. In Section, 5.4, a summary of quantitative and qualitative findings will be given.

5.3 Qualitative analysis: Authorial presence across postgraduate academic texts

This section focuses qualitatively on the authorial presence portrayed in the postgraduate academic writing sampled from the three writer groups. As has been shown in the previous section (5.2.), a range of linguistic resources (namely, personal pronouns, and element-prominent constructions) allowed the postgraduates to take on authorial roles and achieve several discourse functions. According to the definition by Kuo (1999), a discourse function is realised within the immediate context through the linguistic resources to the extent that ‘‘it reflects the specific communicative purpose of writers’’ (p.130). The discourse functions or acts identified in the discussion sections in relation to authorial presence include *portraying the research process, interpreting the results, stating conclusions, presenting a solution, comparing results, giving methodological explanations and consideration, using literature to support claims or compare findings, presenting a hypothesis, attracting reader's attention and inviting them into the discourse*, and *stating research objectives (to be) accomplished*. In other words, the authorial references employed by postgraduate writers tended to occur to achieve such discourse functions in their discussion sections, and section 5.3.2 will elaborate the occurrences of authorial presence associated with these discourse functions. This section will also be followed by a summary of the quantitative & qualitative results in Section 5.4 and the responses to the second research question of the study will be presented in 5.5 with a discussion of the results.

5.3.1 Overview of the explicit/implicit devices signalling authorial presence across groups

5.3.1.1 Discussion sections by Turkish L1 postgraduates

As the quantitative results in Figure 5.1 suggest, the Turkish L1 writers were found to prefer significantly more implicit authorial references than explicit personal pronouns.

In other words, impersonal and passive constructions were more favoured than making oneself more visible by the use of self-mentions. Surprisingly, whereas no examples of *I*-based pronouns (*I, my, me, mine*) were found in the sub-corpus, all the Turkish L1 writers featured first person plural pronouns (*we, our, us, ours*) while revealing the importance of the findings and producing final claims about the research. Therefore, there was a dominance of *we*-based authorial references in the Turkish L1 texts.

The most dominant rhetorical role that TL1 writers adopted was that of *Research Conductor,* as stated in 5.2.4. While accomplishing that role, the TL1 writers employed first person plural pronouns (1.3 per 1000 words) combined with verbs referring to the research process (i.e. 'find', 'study', 'analyse', 'collect') less frequently than impersonal ways of manifesting authorial presence (5.1 per 1000 words). However, the number of personal references followed by discourse verbs (such as 'summarize', 'describe', 'exemplify') in conveying the second most common role, *Discourse Creator and Participant,* was slightly higher than that of impersonal references, to guide the reader through the text and build a relationship between writer and reader as the participants of the discourse. These roles were followed by *Opinion Holder* and *Community Self.* Although implicit references (0.2 per 1000 words) were found to be slightly more favoured than explicit references (0.1 per 1000 words) for the *Community-self* role, TL1 writers took on the role of *Opinion Holder* predominantly by employing impersonal strategies, rather than using personal pronouns (0.1 vs. 1.3 per 1000 words).

5.3.1.2 Discussion sections by Turkish writers of English (EL2)

The quantitative results showed that EL2 writers had some similarities to and differences with both groups. They basically had a tendency to use significantly more impersonal constructions than personal pronouns. In general, the greater use of impersonal constructions (4.0 per 1000 words) supported the idea that the Turkish writers of English tended to create a reasonably impersonal and distant academic prose,

like the TL1 writers. Therefore, one of the most significant similarities between the EL2 and TL1 writers seemed to be the greater number of implicit authorial references (7 times for EL2, and 13 times for TL1 compared with explicit references) while presenting their arguments and making knowledge claims. In other words, impersonal constructions also contributed to discussion sections by making the authors less visible in elaborating arguments. Nevertheless, the existence of some personal pronouns (especially *I*-based pronouns) supported the influence of English and writing practices available in English.

Regarding the authorial roles taken on by the EL2 writers in the study, the quantitative findings demonstrated that they were also predominantly *Research Conductor*, followed by *Discourse Creator and Participant, Opinion Holder*, and *Community Self*.

5.3.1.3 Discussion sections by English L1 postgraduates

Analysis of the EL1 texts indicated a distinctive approach to authorial presence in postgraduate academic texts. The initial distribution and percentages of explicit references (*I*- and *we*-based pronouns) extended the idea that EL1 writers preferred to be more visible in the presentation of their discussion to intended readers (4.1 explicit references vs. 2.1 implicit references per 1000 words). The greateruse of *I*-based pronouns, rather than employing exclusive '*we'* (*we* for *I*) also demonstrated they were prone to building a more personal academic prose.

Interestingly, the sequence of authorial roles for the EL1 writers was exactly the same as for the Turkish writers (both TL1 and EL2); and the main one was *Research Conductor*, which was marked by a number of research activity verbs combined with both personal pronouns (3.1 per 1000 words) and impersonal constructions (1.0 per 1000 words). This appeared to be a common practice in postgraduate academic writing across all groups. The EL1 writers were found to be the only group in which more

personal pronouns (5 times higher than TL1 and EL2) were employed to take over *Opinion Holder* role than impersonal constructions, even though the difference was small (0.5 vs 0.4 per 1000 words).

5.3.2 Explicit and implicit authorial references in accomplishing particular discourse functions across postgraduates

5.3.2.1 Indicating the structure of the discussion sections and guiding readers through the texts

The discussion section within postgraduate dissertations constitutes a relatively long and complex piece of text and therefore, it is organised in terms of what the reader could find in this particular section of the discourse. This simply increases the reader-friendly nature of the discourse presented to the audience, so that the reader can be informed about (1) what is coming in that section as a whole (at the micro level, rather than the overall organisation of the dissertation)–this is normally located at the start of the section–or (2) what is going to be dealt with next in the next paragraph or sub-section. By employing explicit (*I*, *we*) or implicit (passive or element-prominent constructions) authorial references, mostly to introduce the organisation of sections or guide the readership, the postgraduates appeared to take over the rhetorical role of *Discourse Creator*.

Most of the writers dedicated an initial paragraph to map out and prepare the audience for the general structure of the discussion section at the beginning of it. It was less common in the EL1 discussion sections that writers made their audience aware of the section structure by acting as discourse guides. As two of the very few examples of this type below showed, EL1 writers preferred shorter announcements regarding the content included in the section, either with personal constructions (39) or impersonal constructions (40-41). The number of explicit references found in EL1 texts seemed to be proportionally fewer than impersonal constructions as seen from the general EL1

tendency to construct their authorial presence via the role *Discourse Creator and Participant* (0.4 for explicit vs. 0.6 implicit constructions per 1000 words)

(39) In the following sub-sections, **I will discuss** the results pertaining to specific questions that my research attempted to address. (EL1-19)

(40) **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)

(41) **This chapter begins** by discussing the results of this study in light of the literature review; and then **takes a closer look** at the theory that was produced and how it relates to the research questions defined in Chapter 3. **It then states** my concluding thoughts, and **ends by highlighting** limitations to this study.(EL1-14)

The EL2 writers seemed to employ more personal and impersonal constructions in the opening part of their discussions than the EL1 writers, to announce what was included in the section. Most of the EL2 writers preferred to state the section organisation by making use of a first person singular pronoun to rhetorically assume the *Discourse Creator* role. A typical example (42) below illustrates how that rhetorical role was adopted by using a combination of personal pronouns and discourse verbs referring to what would happen (discussion of research findings and implications, description of limitations, presentation of conclusion) that in the subsequent four sub-sections of the text. Such actions can also be considered as the goals/tasks determined for that particular section; the announcement and accomplishment of such goals/tasks will be covered in 5.3.2.6 in more detail.

(42) In the first section, **I discuss** the key research findings of the questionnaire and interviews in four different sub-sections in relation with the themes raised in the two research questions: pronunciation, grammar, culture and EIL. In the second section, **I discuss** the pedagogical implications of the study. In section three, **I describe** the limitations of the study, and **make suggestions** for further research. Finally, **I present** the overall conclusions of the study. (EL2-28)

It was also found to be quite common for the Turkish writers of English texts to inform readers before a change of focus or shift in the topic:

(43) **Now let us see how** the contrast below can be explained if we adopt Reinhart's (1997, 1998) choice function analysis. (EL2-6)

(44) **Let us review** the subset principle and the related research question in the thesis.(EL2-1)

In contrast, the announcements of the section organisation in TL1 texts consisted of purely impersonal constructions, hiding authorial presences as creators of the discourse. The examples below demonstrate how the TL1 writers topicalised the subject (*bulgu*, *tartışma*, *öneri*) of the discourse actions (*tartışmak*, *yorumlamak*, *yapmak*) to be completed in the subsequent sections via impersonal reference (passive constructions in that case) and opted for a more impersonal discourse.

(45) Bu bölümde "Yapılandırmacı İlk Okuma Yazma Süreci Değerlendirme Anketi"nden elde edilen **bulgular tartışılmış** ve **yorumlanmıştır**. (TL1-19)
(*In this section, the findings from the "Constructivist First Read Write Process Evaluation Survey" were discussed and commented*.)

(46) Bu başlık altında, araştırma bulguları doğrultusunda ulaşılan sonuçlar ve sonuçlara yönelik tartışmalar **ele alınmıştır**. Bunun yani sıra araştırma bulguları ışığında araştırmacılar ve uygulayıcılar için öneriler **sunulmuştur**. (TL1-22)
(*In this section, the findings reached in accordance with the research results and the discussions intended for the results* ***were focused.*** *Besides, in the light of research findings, the recommendations* ***were presented*** *for researchers and practitioners*.)

(47) Bu bölümde, sonuçların mevcut kuramsal literatür desteğiyle tartışılmasına ve değerlendirilmesine **yer verilmiştir**. (TL1-24)
(*In this section, the discussion and the evaluation of the results supported with the existing theoretical literature were presented.)*

The introduction paragraph (or sentences) of the TL1 discussion sections b usually included the general aim/accomplishment of the study (not the focus/goal of the discussion section), mostly via impersonal constructions, before talking about the organisation/content of the section, as in (48) and (49):

(48) Bu araştırmada öğrenme stratejilerinin öğrenme stilleri ve bazı değişkenler açısından incelemesi **yapılmıştır**. (TL1-5)
(*In this study, the learning strategies* ***were examined*** *in terms of learning styles and some variables*.)

(49) Bu araştırma, İlköğretim 5. ve 6. sınıf beden eğitimi derslerindeki bazı basketbol temel becerilerinin öğretiminde görsel materyallerin psikomotor öğrenmeye etkisinin olup olmadığını araştırmak amacıyla **hazırlanmıştır.** (TL1-1)
(*This research* ***was prepared to*** *investigate whether visual materials have any effect over psychomotor learning in teaching of some basic basketball skills in physical education class in primary school`s grades 5 and 6.)*

English L1 and L2 writers seemed to establish textual links via implicit authorial references to cross-refer to something mentioned or explained before. Such impersonal constructions were differentiated from the ones signalling the *Discourse Participant* role (as explained in 5.3.2.7) by looking at the action completed. In other words, the actions such as *indicated*, *stated*, *mentioned* could only be accomplished by the *Discourse Creator* whereas the action in ‘‘As was seen in Chapter 5’’ could indicate an action (*see*) that both the writer and the reader(s) as the discourse participants completed in Chapter 5 of that text. No such link was established in the TL1 texts, either via personal or impersonal references as the Discourse Creator.

(50) **As was indicated in Chapter IV**, the notes on the questionnaires revealed that some teachers seem to have overlooked the intended research model related to the questions and responded the questions independently. (EL2-23)

(51) Furthermore, **as have been explained and exemplified in the results chapter**, during the interviews some participants explicitly stated the effect of ‘locality’ of environmental problems on their moral reasoning patterns. (EL2-2)

(52) **As stated in Chapter 4**, the acronym ‘‘LIST’’ means Leadership, Institute, Students and Teachers. (EL1-14)

(53) **As mentioned in the methodology chapter**, two units of work were carried out for each of the two cohorts involved in the project– one using the school’s usual approach to the teaching of history and geography, and one which included the use of the online forum (see table 5). (EL1-8)

This seemed to be one of the common strategies shared by English L1 and L2 writers: to remind their readers of what they had already mentioned or stated in the previous parts of their dissertations, by making the author less visible. Alternatively, the

writers might have made use of explicit authorial references, as they were the ones who mentioned or stated such things in the other parts of their dissertations, i.e. ‘‘As *I/we indicated* in Chapter IV’’ or ‘‘As *I/we mentioned* in the methodology’’. Although this made them less visible as people, the postgraduates produced more accessible texts linked to each other, so that the intended audience could easily go backwards or forwards, as mapped out by the writers.

5.3.2.2 Restating data collection, analysis and other methodological issues

The use of authorial references while restating the methodological considerations or issues concerning research procedures seemed to vary across postgraduates. EL1 writers tended to employ both personal and impersonal constructions while reminding or explaining the research procedures and decisions as the *Research Conductor* of the study. Although impersonal constructions were slightly more frequent than personal references, it was a fairly common convention in British texts to make use of *I*- or *we*-based expressions combined with research verbs as illustrated below. Example (54) clearly acts as an extensive reminder of the issues that –and this might equally have been revealed in the Methodology of the study– the researcher went through and took action on, in order to carry out that particular research study. The research verbs combined with pronouns by English L1 writers mostly referred to the processes of including or excluding data, using a particular method, selecting participants, deciding an application, or carrying out the interview.

> (54) **I included** a range of words to allow me to consider spoken word frequency, using data from the COBUILD corpus. **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, which given that **I assumed** most of my informants would be non-rhotic, would not lead to realisation of /r/. **I was careful** in the construction of my reading passage to ensure that these words were not followed by a vowel-initial word. As **I could not control** for its presence, **I decided to put** it aside in this discussion, but note that it may be worth returning to in future. **My selection of words** is shown below. (EL1-12)

Similar research verbs were employed in impersonal constructions, such as passive constructions (55-56) referring to the actions that authors as *Research Conductors* completed, or element-prominent constructions (57) and EL1 writers implicitly referred to their rhetorical role as the Research Conductor:

(55) During the course of the study, **three classroom based lesson observations were carried out** for each of the two cohorts in order to gauge an awareness of the percentage of pupils who make at least one form of contribution during whole-class discussion or interaction. (EL1-8)

(56) However, **a series of open-ended questions were used** to facilitate the discussion where appropriate. (EL1-15)

(57) **The present study has amended** the first method in order to make it suitable for non-students by eliminating the requirement of non-volunteers. (EL2-23)

There were notably fewer explicit references in the EL2 texts, while the writers were talking about methodological issues in their discussion sections. Therefore, there was a marked tendency by EL2 writers to extensively express the steps of the research process or actions taken during the research via implicit references:

(58) In addition, appropriate to the characteristics of explanatory design, follow up interviews **were carried out** with a sub-sample of 16 pre-service science teachers. Data collection **was realized** over 2008-2009 Fall and Spring semesters. Content analysis **was utilized** on the written responses of participants. Following the content analysis, **d**escriptive and statistical analyses **were performed** on the frequencies of each moral reasoning category. (EL2-12)

In the texts by the Turkish writers of English, both person pronouns were reasonably less frequent in recounting methodological issues/considerations. Four typical examples below (59-62) indicate that *Research Conductor* role was realised by '*I/we* + research process verbs' while achieving the discourse function of (re)stating the methodological issues.

(59) Secondly, when administering the interview, **we asked** the question in a forced-choice format (i.e. "Would you show or not show how you felt?"). (EL2-2)

(60) Initially, **I wanted to include** all the teachers working at the DBE in my study to be able to collect data that could safely reflect the attitudes of them all. For this end, **I designed** a questionnaire and collected data from about 82% of the teachers. (EL2-23)

(61) Since it may have important implications for the teaching of English, **I included** the issue of cultural content in teaching materials and adapted Qs 21, 22, 23 from McKay's (2003a) study. (EL2-28)

(62) For that particular reason, **we have used** various visuals, made word associations, practised words in contexts and used personalization such as writing exaggerated or real life sentences using the intended words. (EL2-19)

The TL1 writers did not use any personal pronouns to explain procedures of the research process. The use of implicit authorial references was accordingly dominant in that aspect and signalled the methodological issues. When it came to (re)stating methodological considerations, all TL1 writers followed a similar pattern and employed passive constructions for the use of any particular method/test (63-64), the inclusion of the sample (65), or the focus of the analysis (66.

(63) Erkek ve bayan öğretmenlerin ilk okuma yazma öğretiminde karşılaştıkları güçlüklerin cinsiyet faktörüne göre karşılaştırılmasında bağımsız t testi tekniği **kullanılmıştır.** (TL1-19)
(*The independent t-test **was used** to compare the difficulties male and female teachers came accross during teaching first reading and writing based on the gender factor.)*

(64) Bu araştırmada "Marmara Öğrenme Stilleri Ölçeği" ve "Öğrenme ve Ders Çalışma Envanteri" **kullanılmıştır.** (TL1-5)
(*In this study, "Marmara Learning Styles Scale" and "Learning and Study Inventory" **were used**.)*

(65) Bu araştırma Tunceli İli sınırlarında bulunan Pertek Yatılı ilköğretim bölge okulu ve Aktuluk Yatılı İlköğretim Bölge Okullarının 6.7. ve 8. Sınıf öğrencileri üzerinde **yapılmıştır.** (TL1-10)
(*This research **was carried** out on the students of Pertek Regional Primary Boarding School located in the province of Tunceli and the 6th, 7th and 8th grade students from the Aktuluk Regional Primary Boarding Schools.)*

(66) Araştırmada, ilk olarak, yalnızlık ve mükemmeliyetçilik boyutları cinsiyet açısından **incelenmiştir.** (TL1-24)
(*In this study, first of all, the dimensions of loneliness and perfectionism **were investigated** in terms of gender.)*

Although all groups were found to employ more implicit than explicitreferences, it might be claimed that TL1 writers followed their general tendencies by being more impersonal. In other words, the tendency of Turkish L1 writers in explaining procedures or decisions via implicit or explicit references was in line with the tendency of overall authorial reference in their discussion sections. However, the EL1 writers seemed to be more impersonal when providing methodological details, compared with the other discourse functions they accomplished via explicit references. This might be linked to the way writers preferred to sound more objective when describing methodological issues and choices, by reducing voices arguing for alternative solutions and making them less visible.

5.3.2.3 (Re)Stating results/outcomes and signalling conclusions of the research

One of the major aims of the discussion sections of a dissertation is to bring the main outcomes of the research to the fore and lead towards the conclusions of the study. This function was called the 'head move' in the discussion sections of dissertations by Hopkins & Dudley-Evans (1998, p.117). This is a promotional element of the research process whereby postgraduates should display their contribution supported by a proper discussion to convince the intended audience. It is worth noting that a range of discourse verbs helped the postgraduates here to present the research results that were reached after the analysis of the data, such as *show*, *find*, or *establish*. As the data suggested, it was quite clear that most of the postgraduate students writing in English (both L1 and L2) preferred making their presence visible, via explicit references to take responsibility for the research outcomes highlighted, whereas the others tended not to appear as an authority and as the presenter of the outcomes. It was quite surprising that there were so few explicit references in TL1 texts to indicate their prominent role in the research from that aspect; instead, they presented their research outcomes rather impersonally.

Although it was not so common, there were few occurrences of *we*-based references (like 67) to indicate the ownership of the findings in the EL1 texts. As the use of *I*-based references was much more frequent than *we*-based references, indicating the ownership of findings with '*my'* (68, 69) was also accordingly more frequent in that group, i.e. active verbs combined with nouns: *my data, my study,* or *my investigation*.

(67) 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)

(68) **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)

(69) **My investigation** of the Basic Materials for SQUARE in South Eastern Lancashire **reveals** some variation, but not along the continuum from central to front (EL1-12)

Although the use of implicit authorial references was comparatively less frequent in the texts of English L1 writers than the others; there were a few impersonal constructions (mostly with inanimate subjects) that the English L1 writers employed to highlight what their study/research demonstrated, along with the research design, by making their presence less visible, as in the following examples:

(70) **This research has shown** that there were many similarities between Husthwaite's field system and those studied by Harvey (1984) in the Central Vale of York (from York in the north to Selby in the south) (EL1-24)

(71) **The current study found** that teaching efficacy could not be predicted by whether the participant was an in-service teacher or a student teacher. (EL1-1)

(72) In summary, **this study has shown** that the visual channel of communication exhibits different properties to other added communication channels, such as eye-track and mouse-track. (EL1-17)

The way the Turkish writers of English constructed their authorial presence, while presenting the research outcomes to a wider research community, was quite

similar to the style of the EL1 writers. The use of *I*- and we-based references were apparent, as well as the numerous use of inanimate subjects to convey the message implicitly by hiding the presence of authors, as illustrated in the following examples (73-77) from EL2 sub-corpus. Nevertheless, impersonal constructions were far more commonly employed than the explicit references to mask personal findings and to promote these particular results (not the overall contribution) with the representation of inanimate elements.

(73) **I have shown** that causal wh-phrases in Turkish have a weakening effect on intervention effects. Furthermore**, I have shown** that lexically marked focus phrase with the focus particle sadece 'only' provides evidence for Göksel and Özsoy's (2000) claim. (EL2-6)

(74) 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)

(75) **The result of the present study did not find** a relation between mother daughter relationship and living separately from their mothers. (EL2-17)

(76) **The study showed** that inservice and preservice training of teachers should address the importance of effective planning in the mathematics classroom. (EL2-20)

(77) **The study revealed** that materials provide the basis for language input, and choosing the materials is a vital phase of curriculum planning. (EL2-26)

Another similarity between English L1 and L2 writers seemed to be the way by which the postgraduates reinforced ownership of the research elements, while acknowledging the outcomes reached as a result of particular analyses. However, the use of exclusive *we*-based references (79-80) was much more heavily used in displaying a promotional effect to ensure the reader saw the salient points the author believed to be crucial.

(78) In respect to students' attitudes towards Internet-based reading tasks **my data showed** that students' have positive attitudes towards all of the tasks. (EL2-24)

(79) **Our finding** that high SES children were more willing to express their felt emotion in an anger-eliciting situation makes sense when we consider these changing socialization beliefs, goals and parenting practices in the family model of interdependence compared with the socialization beliefs and practices of more traditional low SES parents. (EL2-2)

(80) Based on **our findings**, this corresponded with Rajaram's (1996) discrimination/fluency theory of recollection and familiarity. (EL1-16)

As previously stated for TL1 texts, the number of explicit references (*we*-based pronouns) was not as frequent as impersonal constructions in linking the authorial presence to the results reached as a result of the writers' own analyses. In other words, they preferred more impersonal resources to state the results of their particular studies, rather than the less frequent instances as in the following examples, indicating that they possessed the finding/result/study.

(81) **Yaptığımız** bu çalışmada elde edilen bulgular ışığında bellek destekleyiciler doğru olarak kullanıldıkları taktirde hem öğrenme hem de öğrenilenlerin kalıcılık 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.)*

(82) **Arastırmamızda**, kadınların ev içi geleneksel rol ve tasarruf sorumluluları olarak, yükümlülükler altında olduğunu **görmekteyiz**. (TL1-21)
(*In our research, we see that women are under obligations by taking the traditional role inside home and responsibilities of domestic saving*.)

Interestingly, while presenting the outcomes of the research in the discussion section, TL1 writers tended very much to report whether the difference was significant or not while comparing the groups they had. This was quite a common practice in the TL1 texts, and a range of implicit authorial references were employed by altering the active verbs that clearly indicated the action was done by the researcher such as *bulmak*

(83), *görmek* , *saptamak* (84), or *gözlemlemek* (85), into passive constructions as follows:

(83) "Kullanılmak istenilen araç-gerecin çalısılan okulda olmaması" ifadesi ile öğretmenlerin mezun oldukları okul türü arasında **anlamlı bir fark bulunmustur.** (TL1-25)
(*A significant difference **was found** between the type of school which the teachers graduated from and the expression of "The lack of desired equipment in the school which they worked in''*.)

(84) Akademik başarı değişkenine göre stresle basa çıkma alt boyutlarından kaçınma ve sosyal destek arama alt boyutlarında anlamlı düzeyde farklılıklar **görülmemiştir**. Diğer taraftan akademik başarı değişkenine göre problem odaklı başa çıkma alt boyutunda anlamlı düzeyde farklılıklar **saptanmıştır**. (TL1-28).
(*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.)*

(85) Sınıf ortamında uygulanan öğrenme günlüklerinin öğrenci-öğretmen iletişimini olumlu yönde etkilediği **gözlemlenmiştir.** Ders esnasında soru sormaktan ve sınıf içi tartışmalara katılmaktan çekinen öğrencilerin anlaşılmayan noktaları öğrenme günlüklerine not ettikleri, derse ilişkin görüş ve önerilerini çok daha rahat bir şekilde dile getirdikleri **görülmüştür**. (TL1-29)
(***It was observed*** *that the learning diaries used in the classroom influenced the student-teacher communication positively. During the class,* ***it was found*** *that the students not comfartable with asking questions and classroom discussions noted the points that were not clear, expressed their views and suggestions related to the class in a more comfortable way.*)

It was relatively less common in the TL1 texts that postgraduates featured research elements (*sonuç*, *bulgu* or with the possessive pronouns (*-mI*z) added *sonucu**muz***, *bulgu**muz***) to demonstrate what they had found. Such a way of presenting research outcomes generally seemed to be used to reprort those considered as crucial findings to state, but TL1 writers tended to stay away from findings that *contradictied* their expectations or those of previous studies. This can also be considered as having a dual discourse function: (1) stating the results and (2) comparing the results with previous research studies. A detailed comparison of such instances will be given in Section 5.3.2.9.

(86) Köse (2006) araştırmasında, ebeveyn tutumlarını ilgisiz olarak algılayan ergenlerin, en yüksek yalnızlık puanına sahip olduğunu belirtmiştir. Bu bulgu**, arastirma sonucumuzu** destekler niteliktedir. (TL1-24)
(*Köse (2006) showed that the adolecents who perceived the attitudes of the parents as unconcerned had the highest loneliness score. This finding confirms* ***the result of our study***.)

(87) **Bu sonuç**, öğretmenlerin portfolyo değerlendirme ile ilgili bilgi eksikliklerin olduğunu dolayısıyla değerlendirme sürecinde sıkıntı yasadıklarını **göstermektedir.** (TL1-12)
(***This finding shows*** *that the teachers are lack of information in portfolio assessment resulting in problems faced during the assessment period.*)

(88) Şiddet içerikli bilgisayar oyunları oynamanın saldırganlık eğiliminde artışa neden olduğu **bulgusu**, Sosyal Öğrenme Kuramı, Uyarılma Aktarımı Kuramı Ve İpucu Kuramının, şiddet içerikli bilgisayar oyunu oynamanın saldırganlığı arttıracağı yönündeki öngörülerini **doğrular niteliktedir**. (TL1-10)
(***The result*** *showing that playing computer games containing violence causes the increase in the aggression tendency* ***confirms*** *the predictions of Social Learning Theory, Excitation Transfer Theory and Hint Theory regarding the aggression increase as a result of playing computer games containing violence*.)

Regarding the use of inanimate subjects to speak, instead of an explicit writer presence, the writers could, as Thompson (2012) highlighted, prefer to direct their readers to a ‘‘more local, restricted level’’ (p.127) by labelling the research elements. Example (84) simply illustrates what a particular result (*Bu sonuç*) might mean, based on the previous proposition (the result itself) and signals the writer’s own interpretation of it. This can be considered as one of the most common practices in postgraduate writing: to express personal points of view and interpretations by bringing the research element to the front and letting it express what the author believes or thinks it shows.

5.3.2.4 Elaborating an argument and making a claim

The expectations by the postgraduate students about what they intended to accomplish in the discussion section of a dissertation included arguments and opinions put forward based on the data analysis, findings and previous literature to convince the intended audience about the salient points conveyed via the propositional content.

One of the ways of presenting an argument or opinion was found to be combining personal pronouns with cognitive opinion verbs such as *think*, or *believe*, or position verb such as *suggest, argue, claim*. It was found to be a very common practice across groups that the writers seemed less reluctant to refer themselves explicitly as the *Opinion Holder* by employing such combinations (i.e. ‘‘I argue that’’, ‘‘we think that’’). Conversely, having a lower number of such occurrences did not necessarily mean that the discussion sections included very rare arguments or that they did not present their opinions. The writers simply seemed to be conservative about employing explicit references when introducing their arguments to the reader. Such a personal intrusion might indicate a reasonably high direct commitment of the author towards the argument/opinion being presented in the discourse. As Hyland (2002) points out, ‘‘the explicitly persuasive use of self-mention is most clearly displayed by the fact that writers choose to announce their presence where they make a knowledge claim’’ (p.1103). Instead of appearing explicitly in the text while presenting arguments, the postgraduates, who were less expert than established researchers, preferred more impersonal references functioning as the arguer within the discourse, and a more detached style in terms of authorial presence, rather than committing the authorial self to the opinion or the argument directly. This can be seen as decreasing the risk of getting criticism and the most favourable way of presenting knowledge claims in a non-face-threatening way, due to a lack of confidence, as novice writers.

There was a neat split between the Turkish L1 writers and the postgraduates writing in English (EL1 and EL2) in the sense of choosing how they wanted to be aligned with the opinions. TL1 writers were found to be purely dependent on impersonal constructions, whereas the English L1 and L2 writers preferred to employ a mixture of explicit and implicit l references.

Despite the non-existence of explicit references in their texts, Turkish L1 writers involved themselves in the discourse as *Opinion Holders* by downplaying their authorial presence via impersonal constructions combined with cognitive verbs (i.e. *düşünmek*) or positioning verb (as *söylemek, iddia etmek*) as in the following examples:

(89) Bu bulguya dayanarak şiddet içerikli bilgisayar oyunu oynamanın öğrencilerin saldırganlık eğilimini arttırabildiği **düşünülebilir.** (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)*

(90) Ergenlik dönemi göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, bu durumun sosyo-ekonomik düzeyi düşük öğrencilerde yalnızlığa neden olabileceği **söylenebilir.** (TL1-24)
(*When the puberty is taken into account,* ***it can/could/would/may/might be said*** *that this would cause loneliness for the students with the low socio-economic level.)*

Compared with TL1 writers, who mainly preferred to be invisible when taking over the role of *Opinion Holder*, EL2 writers projected their authorial presence via personal pronouns (as in 91), even though they did so almost seven times less often. In other words, the majority of the instances where the postgraduates elaborated an argument or presented their opinions involved impersonal constructions with agentless passives or inanimate objects relating to the research elements as in (92) and (93).

(91) 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)

(92) 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)

(93) In addition, **it can be hypothesized** that individuals need to experience and observe different situations and how different styles affect the resolution of that situation. (EL2-27)

Despite the fact that singular and plural authorial references were apparent, Turkish writers of English tended to employ rather more *we*-based pronouns (as in 91)

than *I*-based instances to act as *Opinion Holder*. As Hyland (2002) noted, student writers might find the use of first person plural instances (*we*) more convenient rather than creating a more forceful impact with *I*. This can also be one of the reasons why Turkish writers of English avoided more self-assured intrusions via singular authorial reference. Such a preference apparently resulted in an alternative way to a prominent reference in the text for the Turkish writers of English by signalling an explicit *Opinion Holder* presence in the discourse via the use of *we*.

There were very few examples where Turkish writers of English had transitions between employing impersonal constructions and personal references. An extract below (94) clearly illustrates the rhetorical effect achieved when the writer disguised his authorial presence (*it may be proposed*) for one of the propositions, and it was followed by an explicit projection of the author (*I claim*) to the process of presenting the personal opinion.

> (94) In conclusion, in addition to FTFA and White's explanations, **it may be proposed that**, for Turkish students to acquire the reflexives fully, they need to be exposed to negative evidence. **I claim that** this is the case because even though there is development in the use of reflexives as proficiency level increases, the learner groups tested in this study did not converge fully with English native speaker's use of reflexives. (EL2-1)

English L1 writers seemed to employ a similar style to the Turkish writers of English, in the sense that both personal and impersonal constructions were employed to manifest their opinions with a personal stamp, no matter how invisible the writer was. However, the use of personal authorial references was slightly more (0.5 vs. 0.4 items per 1000 words) than that of implicit references to the presence of the author while putting forward the possible reason (95), expressing an opinion (96), or introducing a novel argument (97).

> (95) **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)

(96) **I suggest** that if these young people had stronger discipline and respect from an early age and learned to value themselves and the environment then there would have been fewer of them on the streets during those summer evening. (EL1-25)

(97) Language, however, is effortless and changes organically over expanses of time. **I believe** that the understanding of intentionality in music and language is one of the primary differences in mentalities between the two fields. (EL1-13)

As can be seen from Section 5.2, the general tendency was that the use of explicit references was the most salient form of establishing the authorial presence by EL1 writers (4.1 per 1000 words). There was almost a balance (with just a slight difference) as stated above in the use of explicit and implicit references in EL1 texts. From a mono-stylistic approach, some EL1 postgraduates preferred to switch between explicit and implicit references when constructing their position towards the idea presented as in the following example (98):

(98) **The research is not suggesting** that equipment is failing that often, more that teachers fear it failing. This is a major area that needs working on. Teachers need to be made to feel more confident with the equipment. **I think** the situation breeds in teachers' minds; if the hardware fails once then to a teacher it could happen at any time. This leads to teachers not trusting the technology and inevitably not using it. (EL1-30)

Here, the writer moves from an impersonal construction to an explicit authorial reference to create a different rhetorical effect. The inanimate subject in the first part of the example (research) proposes something that the author had in his mind based on the research finding so as to clarify and differentiate what teachers believe to be the main disadvantage and what *the research* does not suggest. Then, the author simply attempted to present his personal opinion about why the teachers might fear failure by inserting *I think* in the next part of the argument, in order to hedge the proposition. The combination of personal pronoun with the tentative cognition verb *think* relies on a personal assessment and reasoning other than demonstration as fact. This simply shows

that it might not be the case but a possibility that leads to teacher's fears and promotes the researcher's view with a cautious manner and personal warrant.

It was a common practice among the EL1writers to employ impersonal constructions to frame their knowledge claims by making them less visible within the discourse. Despite the general lower frequency of impersonal constructions in EL1 texts, it was the discourse function of elaborating argument and making claims where English L1 writers commonly employed such constructions. It might be the case that they found it more appropriate to frame their arguments impersonally when taking over *Opinion Holder* role. While employing the impersonal constructions, a hedging effect was also added, where the knowledge claims were introduced to reader, as in the following examples via *it could be argued that, it does seem plausible to suggest,* and *the research would suggest*.

(99) Since every participant experienced both levels of depths for every test item, **it could be argued that** once an item was deeply encoded, the participant would be able to benefit from deep processing in every subsequent trial. (EL1-16)

(100) **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)

(101) **The research would suggest** however that attendance at standardisation meetings does not necessarily improve the marking of examiners and that perhaps the approach taken by PB3 e.g. remote standardisation, would suffice. (EL1-6)

Based on the nature of the discussion sections, it might be expected that the number of instances flagging *Opinion Holder* in elaborating an argument and making a claim would be higher than the other discourse functions in the section. However, this role was found to occurr considerably less than other discourse functions such as guiding the readers, recounting the research process, or (re)stating the findings. It was in fact surprising all postgraduate groups tended to frame their opinions mainly in the form

of impersonal constructions, except for the EL1 writers, who often appeared explicitly as the *Opinion Holder*. Compared with the EL1 writers, the Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) seemed to avoid taking the responsibility in arguing with an explicit presence attached to the proposition. It is plausible to suggest that such rhetorical choices made by the Turkish postgraduates (TL1 and EL2) contributed a more impersonal and detached style to build a more 'objective' presence of the author in presenting opinions (Rundbald, 2007, p.251).

5.3.2.5 Evaluating the contribution to the discipline and stating the focus/aim of the research

The statement of overall contribution to the discipline might be expected to occur in the Conclusion section of the thesis/dissertation genre as a means of closing the research. The authors essentially highlighted their contribution to a wider academic community into which they as individuals attempted to gain entry. This discourse function was classified as the rhetorical role of *Community-self* as mentioned in 3.8.2.3, because it enabled them to mainly remark their overall contribution to the community, apart from particular outcomes or findings. Even though it did not commonly occur across all postgraduate texts, there were some ostensible statements stressing the overall contribution of the research in Discussion sections. Such occurrences could be treated as self-promotional moves, as the contribution is stated so as to persuade the reader about what was added to disciplinary knowledge (102), filling the gap in the literature (103), supporting previous arguments from literature (104) and stating solutions to the problems (105). Unsuprisingly, all examples found across the three groups were mainly element-prominent constructions as illustrated below.

(102) **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)

(103) **Present research made it possible** to explore potential cohort effects on the nature of life scripts. (EL2-4)

(104) **The present study supports** the notion that the socioeconomic level by itself and together with child gender contributes to differences in children's decisions to communicate their certain basic and self-conscious emotions, even in childhood years. (EL2-2)

(105) Bu araştırmada eğitime bütçeden daha fazla pay ayrılmasının yanı sıra alternatif finans kaynaklarını artırmak, özel öğretimin desteklenmesi gibi **çözüm önerileri getirilmektedir** (TL1-8)
(*In this research, a range of solutions **are offered** such as more share of the budget to education along with increasing the alternative financial resources, supporting private education.)*

As is obvious from examples above, the advancement of knowledge was accomplished via the research and its elements, but there was a general tendency across groups to not to explicitly state that it was their contribution. For example, it would have given a quite different rhetorical effect if the postgraduates had employed personal pronouns in the examples of (102) and (104) as in ''I/we contribute to research on volunteer bias…'' or ''I/we support the notion that the socioeconomic level...'' instead of backgrounding their own role in the contribution. The promotional effect of such authorial references might express more unique personal contributions; however, the actual choice of the writers by disguising themselves appeared to make their contribution less open to question, but more acceptable by fronting the research elements (data, findings). This led the authors to produce these knowledge claims in a modest way.

Presenting what the writers attempted to achieve in the particular research was also signalled by postgraduates writing in English (L1 and L2). It seemed to be the complementary statements of the openings, made in the abstracts and in the aims of the research (earlier sections such as introduction), which revealed the overall intention or focus of the research project. The most common practice in the EL2 texts was found to be foregrounding the inanimate research element (such as the 'research', 'study')

followed by the main verb in the past tense form as in (106) and (107). These instances also seemed to be modest, in the sense that the intended audience would evaluate the research and decide whether the aim/focus was accomplished or not.

(106) **The present study aimed to investigate** the problems faced by the preschool teachers during curriculum implementation only in the center of Ankara. (EL2-29)

(107) **This study mainly focused** on the effects of creative drama based instruction compared with traditional instruction on seventh grade students' achievement in ratio and proportion concepts and gain score of attitudes toward mathematics (EL2-10)

There were also very few possessive pronoun+aim/focus combinations (108) in EL1 texts. On the other hand, the EL2 postgraduates tended to employ element-prominent subject+verb in past tense form (+to verb) as in the examples of (109), (110) and (111) to state the focus or attempt impersonally. By employing verbs such as *attempt* or *try*, the effect of a ''rhetoric of modesty'', as labelled by Adel (2006) put it, could be represented in the text to make the writers' contributions sound less bold.

(108) In the work reported in this paper, **my main aim was to discover** whether any added communication channel (in this case, the mouse-track and/or eye-track) between two members of a dyad in a joint construction task would work (EL1-17)

(109) **This study attempted to simulate** very simplistic models of language contact situations in groups of artificial agents. (EL1-7)

(110) **This thesis has tried to address** the question of why language is structured the way it is, and not some other way. (EL1-10)

(111) **This study has focussed primarily on** the evolution of the network structure since the simple model of homophily relies only on a measure of how similar agents are to each other. (EL1-9)

Instances like (108(and (109) could also be regarded as a signal about what was attempted, but whether it was accomplished or not would be confirmed by the intended readers after considering the research elements (i.e. data, results, findings). It was surprising that there was only one instance (112) of rhetoric modesty in the TL1 texts,

where the writer expressed what the aim was in a humble and impersonal way by the use of *çalışmıstır* (passive form of 'attempt' or 'try').

(112) Bu çalışmalar doğrultusunda uzamın dilbilim, psikoloji, antropoloji, coğrafya gibi farklı alanlardaki tanımlarından **söz edilmiş** ve tarihsel süreç içerisindeki yeri betimlenmeye **çalışılmıştır.** (TL1-18)
(*In line with these studies, the desctiptions of the scope in different areas such as Linguistics, Psychology, Anthroplogy, Geography* ***were mentioned*** *and the importance in the historical process* ***was attempted to be describe*****d**.)

5.3.2.6 Announcing the goals and tasks (to be) accomplished

Another discourse function served by the use of personal and impersonal constructions was the announcement of the goals or tasks accomplished (or to be accomplished) in the discussion section. It needs to be stressed that the function accomplished here is not related to the general goal or task of the study that might be used for promotional purposes; instead, this might be regarded as a goal or task that is determined to be completed within the discussion section of the study. Therefore, these announcements were mostly about marking the discourse goals or tasks, and were limited to the current section they were used, such as illustrating a model (113) or examples, discussing different issues (114), presenting observations (115), or summarizing results (116). The predominant rhetorical role that was achieved via such announcement combined with personal and impersonal construction was the role of *Discourse Creator*, as the authors essentially made the discourse more understandable and reader friendly.

(113) **I have illustrated** how this framework may be used to explore and confirm findings based on simulation literature that is fairly well known. (EL1-10)

(114) When curriculum appears to be inaccessible to pupils they feel inferior which can lead to further disengagement for fear of ridicule or humiliation. (Willis 1977; Xin Ma 2003; Osterman 2000). **This will be discussed further** in the next chapter but it is pertinent to touch on it briefly here as it is influenced by inaccessible curriculum. (EL1-5)

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

(116) İlköğretim birinci kademe sınıf öğretmenlerinin portfolyo (ürün seçki dosyası) tekniğine ilişkin görüşlerini belirlemek amacıyla yapılan bu araştırmanın sonuçları su şekilde **özetlenmiştir:**(TL1-12)
(*The results of the study examining the views of the primary school teachers towards the portfolio (product selection file)* ***are summarised*** *as:*)

Such instances mostly appeared at the beginning and/or towards the end of the discussion sections (unless it was followed by the action instantly, as 'summarising' in (116) above). They all included discourse verbs to mention the particular goal(s) or task(s) involved and to highlight whether they had been completed as planned. This was a common practice across the three groups of writers, as they mostly seemed to be aware of the presence of their intended audience and wanted to make sure the goals or tasks were presented clearly. In short, these summary announcements can be considered as a crucial element in the development of the discussion sections, informing the intended audience about what will be or has been achieved within this rhetorical part of the dissertation.

However, there seemed to be a difference in the way the discourse function was achieved, depending on whether references were explicit or implicit. The Turkish L1 writers *only* employed impersonal constructions, mostly with passive references (116 above and 117) to the actions to be accomplished, such as *özetlemek* ('summarize'), *vermek* ('give or present'), *sunmak* ('present'), *tartışmak* ('discuss'), *göstermek* ('illustrate, show') signalling a discourse action.

(117) Araştırmanın bu bölümünde, bulguların analizi ışığında ortaya çıkan sonuçlar tartışılıp, bunlara ilişkin öneriler **verilecektir**. Özelikle ''sıralı değişken-örüntü'' ikilemi ile ilgili sonuçlar **tartışılacaktı**r. (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.*)

Although Turkish writers of English (EL2) also mainly used impersonal constructions and signalled their authorial presence implicitly to seek to inform their readers, there were some rare examples of personal pronoun use to map out the goals or task (to be) achieved within the discussion sections. The writer in (118) mentions the task of presenting an example to the reader to make the previous reasoning more understandable, using a second example following the explicit authorial reference. By giving the extra example, the author instantly completes the task (presenting the example) mentioned and moves on to another argument (this was exculeded from the example (118)). However, the accomplishment of the goal highlighted in (119) and (120) at the beginning of the sections they belonged to could not be instant, as the discourse activities described by *summarized and discussed* (119) were completed throughout the discourse, and the activity signalled by *concludes* (120) is at the end of the section.

(118) This is interesting because we normally expect this structure to be ungrammatical since the NPI to the left of the wh-phrase is given to yield the structure ungrammatical before**. Now let me present** an example with another wh-expression. (EL2-6)

(119) In this chapter, **the purpose, research design, and results of the study were summarized and discussed.** (EL2-17)

(120) **The chapter concludes** with an evaluation of the limitations of the study and a discussion of ideas for future research. (EL2-7)

In contrast, EL1 writers made use of both personal (121) and impersonal references almost equally (with a slightly higher tendency to the latter constructions).

(121) **I have illustrated** how this framework may be used to explore and confirm findings based on simulation literature that is fairly well known. (EL1-10)

Therefore, it is possible to say that the general tendencies of the three groups of postgraduates in guiding the reader as clearly as possible seemed to be the same in terms of implicit references. Nevertheless, the personal references to achieve that

discourse function were again found to be in line with the many other functions in the whole corpus: English L1 writers employed the most personal references; the EL2 texts had fewer, and the TL1 texts had none.

Most of the instances in the EL1 texts served as an acknowledgement or reminder that although the point was not dealt with instantly, there woull be another occasion where the author would go over it in detail. This enabled the author to bring the discussion of what was aimed to be presented as the goal in the following sub-sections. The examples below exemplify such instances, where the authors preferred to refer to their presence impersonally (although the actions *attempt to show, discuss* were to be accomplished by them) and let the reader know that the goals/tasks would be achieved in the ongoing discourse, but not immediately.

(122) **Section 4.3 will attempt to show** how a more sophisticated treatment of dialect geography could suggest such an explanation. Furthermore, the model of an isogloss does not convincingly account for the variation within some cells of the sample. **This will be discussed further** in Sections 6.3 to 6.4. (EL1-12)

(123) One theme which both of our claims agree upon is the concept of leaders improving teachers‟ ability, which subsequently improves the students' learning experience. **This point will be discussed** further in section 5.3. (EL1-14)

5.3.2.7 Including the intended audience (readers) in the discourse

As Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) pointed out, language use can be multifunctional; and writers tend to use different functions throughout their texts. Whatever function the writers aim to achieve; it is the reader that will take the message coded and decide what function has in fact been achieved. From this perspective, attracting readers' attention and including them in the discourse are of great importance to build relationship with them in the academic texts by using different constructions (e.g., inclusive '*we',* rhetorical questions, the reader pronoun 'you', or directives like 'see Table 1'). The

targeted readers were primarily the examiners in the context of the postgraduate dissertations included in the present study; however, after the dissertations became publicly available, the targeted readers could be extended to other people. These can be surprisingly varied, certainly for a doctoral thesis and conceivably for a master's dissertation: examiners, researchers, teachers, economists or policy makers.

Khoutyz (2013) notes that consideraing the readership within the discourse facilitates the dialogic nature of the interaction which, then, enables the authors to create a sense of solidarity with their readership. There are many ways of achieving such an engagement with the intended audience. Hyland (2002b, 2009b) lists a range of engagement features that could be employed by authors to build a relationship, such as reader pronouns (*you, we*), directives, personal asides, appeals to shared knowledge, and questions. As the scope of the present section is limited to explicit and implicit authorial references that are used to refer to authorial presence in the text, I will focus on the inclusive use of the pronoun *we* (not *you* or other features). The inclusive use of *we* was one of the most common ways of bringing readers into the text as the postgraduates essentially combined their presence with that of the intended audience by using that pronoun. Adel (2006) labelled such use of inclusive 'we' cases with the 'bonding' effect they represent in the discourse to combine the discourse participants (p.31). Therefore, the rhetorical role assigned to such occurrences was the *Discourse Creator and Participant*, as the author intentionally signals his/her presence in the text as the discourse participant and includes the audience in the ongoing discourse.

The use of inclusive 'we' authorial references was found to be more frequent in the TL1 and EL2 texts than the EL1 texts. The TL1 texts mostly attracted the attention of readers as participants in the discourse by equalising their presence with the writers at discourse level and referring to actions (e.g., 'examine', 'view', 'look' (124)) that can also be done by the readers, and entities (e.g., 'our country', 'our stories' (125), 'our

universities' (126)) shared between them. This was mostly due to the fact that the TL1 postgraduates knew that their readers would from their local context and that reader and writer would share things in common, as in:

(124) Araştırmanın bu bulgusuna **baktığımızda** yansıtıcı gözlem ile öğrencilerin kullandıkları tüm öğrenme stratejileri arasında negatif yönlü anlamlı bir ilişki vardır. (TL1-17)
(*When **we look at** this evidence of the research, there is a negative significant relation between reflective observation and all the learning strategies that the students used.)*

(125) Birçok **efsanemiz**, **destanımız**, **halk hikâyemiz** kullanılmayı beklerken, Türkçe kitapları **çocuklarımıza** Batı'nın kahramanı Süperman'ı öğretmektedir. (TL1-16)
(*While many of **our legends, epics, folk stories** are to be used, Turkish coursebooks teach the hero of the West, Superman to **our children**.*)

(126) Bu sorunu önlemek amacıyla, **üniversitelerimizde** bilgisayar ders saati sayısı arttırılmalı, ders öğretmen adaylarını gerçek bir bilgisayar kullanıcısı durumuna getirmelidir. (TL1-23)
(*In order to prevent this problem, the number of computer courses should be increased **in our universities** and teacher candidates should be changed into a real computer user.)*

The inclusive 'we' instances in the EL2 texts did not include any entities shared with the reader; rather, they aimed to attract the reader's attention by referring to shared actions. The following extracts (127, 128, and 129) are the typical examples where the EL2 writers engaged with their audiences via use of inclusive 'we'.

(127) 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)

In (127), the author simply reflects his/her understanding from the remark made earlier and presupposes that the readers have reached the same understanding. This can be regarded as increasing the level of acceptability for the forthcoming knowledge claim based on that remark.

(128) **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)

The dialogic construction via inclusive ‘we’ in (128) also reminds the reader that the author had already shown the effects of particular particles. The effect of that authorial reference and why it was employed in such a way becomes much more evident if the inclusive ‘we’ is substituted with the first person singular pronoun ‘I’, which does not really make sense in the way it does with inclusive ‘we’. The reference to the presence of author and the audience is much clearer in (129) with *us* when the writer felt that the inclusion of the audience was needed as a discourse participant so that the findings can make sense to whoever reads that claim:

> (129) However, the findings indicated that being a graduate of ATHSs was a significant predictor for neither efficacy belief composite scores nor the subscales. This may show **us** ATHSs make no contribution at all to the efficacy beliefs of student teachers. (EL2-22)

The way the postgraduate writer switched between singular and plural pronouns to create different rhetorical effects is well illustrated by the following example (130):

> (130) **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 **conclude** that the evidence is inconclusive. (EL2-6)

The author moved on to present his conclusion about the possibility of Turkish interveners being focus phrases by explicitly referring to his/her authorial presence via ‘I’; however, it is evident that s/he was putting forward another idea which arose from an analysis completed earlier, that the intended audience had already read. By doing so, the author indirectly appealed to a presumed common-sense, namely that the reader would, like the writer, question the point about Turkish interveners. Then, the author projected his/her authorial presence into discourse to mark an individual contribution without giving much space for the reader to accept or reject it as s/he believed that the evidence was deficient.

In contrast to the TL1 and EL2 writers, the English L1 writers generally avoided the reader inclusive 'we' in their texts, apart from a few very rare examples, like (131) and (132) below. In other words, the use of 'we' in that sub-corpus (EL1) was mainly exclusive *we*; that is the writer essentially posits his/her own authorial presence without making it explicit with the first person singular pronoun 'I'.

> (131) **As we have seen**, training and professional development has not been as widespread or as deep as many teachers and researchers would like (McEachron and Bhatti, 2005) (EL1-3)

> (132) So far, most of what **we know about** this phenomenon (known as iterated learning) comes from computational simulations (Kirby and Hurford, 2002). 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)

Turning back to the reader-inclusive 'we', however, the first instance of inclusive 'we', in (132) above, seems to be distinct from the others in the sense of persuasiveness. The writer presented an idea about *iterated learning* by supposing that it was also known by the readers (*what we know about*). That might be due to the fact that it was seen as undisputable knowledge and the author was firmly controlling the reader's understanding unless the writer intentionally excluded the reader by implying the experts in the field by the use of *we*..

Although they were not very frequent in the whole corpus, there were some impersonal constructions where the author indicated his/her own presence and that of the reader(s) by the action stated in the expressions (mainly with the verb *see*) as in the following examples. The postgraduates simply reminded the reader of an issue they had mentioned in a previous part of the discourse, which they knew the reader had read. Such instances constitute what Thompson (2001) called 'reader-in-the-text' which signals the presence of the reader as the participant.

(133) **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)

(134) **As seen in Chapter 2**, Hatcher (1998) looks at the links between pupil disengagement, class, curriculum content (and related school cultures). (EL1-5)

This could be considered as a stylistic preference of the writers, whereby they implied what the discourse participants (the writer and the audience) should have seen. This is achieved by an impersonal construction (133, 134), instead of writing 'As *we* saw/ have seen in Section 3/Chapter 2' but it still refers to an action shared by the participants of the ongoing discourse.

The use of such impersonal constructions helped the readers in Turkish L1 texts more often, as the authors asked the discourse participants to look at the information that they were talking about, as can be seen from the examples below (135-137).

(135) **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.*)

(136) Özellikle Bolu iline özgü olan bitkilere **bakıldığında,** kent merkezindeki öğrencilerin bunları tanıma yüzdelerinin, kırsal kesimdeki öğrencilerden daha düşük olduğu tespit edilmiştir (TL1-2)
(*When the plants that are specific to Bolu* ***are looked at****, it is determined that the percentage of the students from centre to recognize them is lower compared with the students from rural areas.)*

(137) Bu açıdan **bakıldığında** ebeveynlerini otoriter olarak algılayan ergenlerin ailesel beklentiler puanlarının yüksek çıkması beklenebilir (TL1-24)
(***When viewed*** *from this point, it can/could/would/may/might be expected that the family expectations scores of the adolescents perceiving their parents as authoritative are high*.)

These instances might seem to be similar to guiding the readership across the text (as *Discourse Creator*); however, as mentioned in 5.3.2.1., I again differentiated

such instances from the *Discourse Participant* role by looking at the actions in the expressions: completed only by the author (such as *described, mentioned, explained*) or shared by the participants in the discourse (such as *see, look*). The second type of action indicates that the author puts forward an idea after looking at/seeing the figures, tables, results, and signals that the reader can infer similar insights by 'seeing' or 'looking at' the elements/parts concerned.

Although there were no impersonal constructions in the TL1 texts signalling the actions completed 'only' by the authors in the previous/other parts of their texts, there was a tendency by the TL1 writers that they implicitly showed the source of the information (such as table (135), previous information (136), perspective (137) above) from which they produced the knowledge claim. This can also be considered as the open invitation to readers to have a look at/see what was pointed out in order that the readers could come to the same conclusion as the writers reached, and accept it.

Having noted that 'we' was used frequently to refer the existence of both the author and the reader as participants in the discourse, it is plausible to state that there seems to be a distinction between the Turkish writers (TL1-EL2) and the EL1 writers. The latter tended to avoid the use of such explicit reference to attract the reader's attention, whereas the TL1 and EL2 writers employed inclusive 'we' more frequently, and built a particular and closer relationship with the intended audience by such instances. Nevertheless, the use of impersonal constructions seemed to be identical to refer to the actions that can be completed by the participants in the discourse (writer and reader) in terms of both frequency and the way (pointing a diagram, a section, or a particular result) they were used across the three different student groups.

5.3.2.8 Stating the research strengths/limitations and suggestions for future work

Apart from presenting the newsworthiness of the results and findings of the study carried out by using a particular methodology and including different samples, the

postgraduates generally commented on the limitations or strengths of their research, to help future researchers in the field fill the gap if necessary, or as general suggestions for the policy makers. These statements could be regarded as evaluations of the whole study and might be expected to occur in the conclusion chapter of the dissertations. However, Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) highlighted that the overall evaluation of the research could optionally be integrated into Discussion sections. In line with that, some postgraduates did indeed prefer to mention the strengths or limitations towards the end of their discussion sections.

The most crucial difference across groups seemed to be the fact that impersonal authorial references were employed more by Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) than EL1 writers when performing this discourse function. In contrast, the use of personal authorial references in stating the strengths or limitations of the research was far more commonly used in EL1 texts. One of the similarities across the discussion sections of the three groups was the fact that it was reasonably rare that the strengths of the study were expressed via either explicit or implicit authorial references.

The fact that some texts had neither explicit nor implicit authorial references to list strengths and limitations did not necessarily mean that these texts did not display that function. However, as the focus here is on the use of explicit (*I, we*) or implicit (passive and element-prominent constructions) authorial references, only such instances were taken into consideration. It was found to be quite common in Turkish L1 and EL2 texts that impersonal constructions were used to signal points missed or not completed. Examples (138) and (139) briefly introduce the issues that were not focused in the studies, using impersonal constructions such as *no attention was paid.., No assessment was made..,* and *no specific hypotheses were put forward*.

(138) For example, in this study, **no attention was paid** to the actual content or argumentative force of the text. **No assessment was made** so as to see the effects of task complexity on these aspects or other

higher-order writing skills such as cohesion or coherence of the produced text. (EL2-9)

(139) In the current study, **no specific hypotheses were put forward** in terms of interactional effects. However, **it is strongly suggested** that future research should take into account the interactional effects of self-control and conformity... (EL2-18)

This could also be expressed, though with a different effect regarding the authorial presence, via the use of explicit authorial references ('I/we did not pay attention/assess/hypothesize…') as in (140) and (141).

(140) Perhaps, **we failed to elicit** children's differential imagination of the context that involves their father, mother or friends just by reading the scenario. Future research may investigate Turkish children's display rules by observational method using coding systems for children's facial, behavioral and verbal responses or a second inventory from the parents of those children about their children's emotional reactions. (EL2-2)

(141) During the data collection and analysis period, **I noticed** that the participants frequently mentioned the DML as a point of comparison. **I touched upon the DML** and referred to job descriptions and the regulations in the discussion of the findings. However, there seems to be a need for a study focusing solely on the DML. (EL2-23)

The choice of *I* or *we* essentially highlights the responsibility of the writer for the limitations and anticipates the reader's potential criticism. However, the use of impersonal constructions limits the author's responsibility and serves to help him/her to save face (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

After assessing and presenting the points not focused on in the overall research, the author, as in (138) above, can also prefer to stay implicit and indicate to the reader the way forward for future studies, without explicitly appearing in the suggestion (as in ''I/we recommend…''). Using personal pronouns might have given a distinctive rhetorical effect to the suggestion with the explicit personal intervention over the future studies. Examples (140) and (141) above via explicit personal pronoun referring to writer while revealing the limitations also illustrate how the shift to impersonal forms for suggesting future research occurred (''there seems to be a need for a study'').

The typical examples below illustrate how similarly the Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) signalled the rhetorical role of *Community Self.* The instances simply served as 'suggestions' to the academic community the writers claimed to be part of, and aimed to guide other researchers in the field based on their experience in the research field.

(142) **It is also recommended** that replication of this study can be conducted with class that has smaller number of students or by separating the experimental group into two groups to provide easiness to control the students. (EL2-10)

(143) **It is recommended** that future studies be carried out with more remedial class students to see whether there will be a change in the results and in the number of individual differences. (EL2-26)

(144) Konu ile ilgili yapılacak yeni araştırmalarda, özellikle küçük yaştaki çocuklarla yapılacak araştırmalarda saldırganlık ölçeği ile beraber deneysel oturumlar sonunda çocuklarda gözlenecek davranış değişikliklerinin kaydedilmesi ve oyunların çocuklar üzerindeki somut etkilerinin bu yolla tespit edilmesi **önerilebilir**. (TL1-10)
(*For the new studies looking at the topic, especially the research with the young children,* ***it can/could/would/may/might be recommended*** *to record the scale of aggression along with the behavioral changes occuring at the end of experimental sessions and to determine the tangible effects of the games over children with this method.)*

In addition to suggestions to future researchers in the TL1 and EL2 texts, there were many instances serving as suggestions for solving problems described previously in their studies. The suggestions/recommendations were aimed at curriculum designers, school management, or language teachers. This rarely occurred in the EL1 texts (though see example 152).

(145) **It is recommended that** programme developers take analysis of students' individual differences such as their foreign language education background, needs and abilities and learning styles into consideration in deciding for the placement of the students to the preparatory classes. (EL2-26)

(146) Arastirma sonuçlarina göre uygulayicilar için asagadaki hususlarin göz önünde tutulmasi **önerilebilir** (TL1-4)
(*According to research results,* ***it can/could/would/may/might be recommended*** *to the practitioners to keep in mind the following points)*

(147) Yasa koyucuların çocukları şiddet içerikli bilgisayar oyunlarının olumsuz etkilerinden korumaya yönelik bir takım tedbirler alması **önerilebilir**. (TL1-10)
(*It **can/could/would/may/might be recommended** that the legislators take a number of measures to protect the children from the negative effects of the violent video game.)*

In terms of the statements about strengths or limitations of the research in EL1 texts, there seemed to be a tendency to use slightly more personal (148 and 149) than impersonal constructions (150), which highlighted their authorial presence within the discourse.

(148) As **I used** semi structured interviews for data gathering I could have biased the answers of the respondents with my tone of voice, my body language and the wording of the questions. (EL1-6)

(149) The use of the five methods **I implemented** was effective as it enabled me to examine the baseline data and the opportunity to correlate the perceived changes. (EL1-15)

(150) **The present study also did not investigate** ethics directly by requesting information on motivation, persuasion, or perceived coercion. **It also did not corroborate** participant evidence through biological means (e.g. monitoring semen levels in urine). (EL1-23)

Despite the common practice of stating strengths or limitations, there were not many instances where the English L1 writers employed explicit or implicit authorial references when suggesting or recommending methodological issues to future researchers or noting people who can make use of the results of study. Example (151) displays a positive evaluation of a methodological decision made during the study. In other words, the postgraduate referred to his authorial presence explicitly while portraying how crucial the decision was and how it contributed to the study. This could be an indirect invitation to future researchers on what to think about in a similar research project.

(151) By using this method **my initial intention was** to ascertain if the postgraduate accreditation impacted on the pupil learning experience however this process extended beyond this area to divulge additional

information pertinent to the study. Therefore **I conclude** that inclusion of this qualitative element made a beneficial and significant contribution towards answering the research question. (EL1-15)

Example (152) below demonstrates one of the rare examples of the personal benefit gained from the research in the EL1 texts. The author ostensibly pointed out how this would help the teachers by reminding reader of another identity the author had (namely a teacher). It might be considered as a positive evaluation of the phenomenon discussed throughout the study (using wikis in L2 academic writing) and the author highlighted the advantages based on the experience gained from the point of view of a teacher, rather than from his/her researcher identity. The implication is that other teachers might benefit too.

(152) **I had never contributed** to a wiki before and this was the first time I set one up. From the practical experience of using the wiki, **I found that** the advantages to a teacher were as follows (EL1-11)

There were some similar examples in the texts of Turkish writers of English, in which they were stressing an identity, other than the researcher, such as a teacher in example (153).

(153) Keeping that feature of the human brain in mind, **we need to design our teaching** to involve students' feelings and imagination and link the intended words with their feelings and imagination This can be achieved by making associations, writing sentences using the target words from real life, creative writing and exaggerating. (EL2-10)

Similar to example (152) from the EL1 texts, the EL2 writer recommends to his/her reader(s) the way that '*our'* teaching could be designed based on the previous discussion. This signals the identity of the researcher as a teacher and draws colleagues' attention to the proposal for how to achieve it in the classroom

5.3.2.9 Comparing or supporting results/findings with the literature

Comparison of particular research results/findings with what is already in the literature was one of the most common practices found in the discussion sections studies. However, employing explicit or implicit references, when linking their own results to available academic sources, or previous studies, seemed to vary across groups. This can also be regarded as a promotional move in the discussion section, when the personal references or impersonal constructions were employed to state the result/finding and link it to previous research in order that the writer's own contribution would be highlighted.

In the discussion sections, there would seem to be two main stylistic preferences in stating results/findings to link back to the literature sources which were already accepted by the academic community. These are the use of explicit or implicit authorial references in (1) showing consistency of results with the published studies, and (2) flagging differences from the cited sources. The comparisons of the previous work with the results/findings of the research to signal the novelty of the current study are common in Discussion sections (Martinez, 2005), and making oneself visible with *I*- or *we*-based references would strengthen the effect by pointing out the ownership of the results. In line with this, the use explicit references were found in the texts of all three groups of writers. The first preference, mentioned above, also seemed to occur in the texts of the three groups where writers signalled their authorial presence either *explicitly* or *implicitly*; however the EL1 and EL2 writers did not seem to prefer highlighting their authorial presence (explicit or implicit) when pointing out the results that *contradicted* their own results.

The examples below with authorial references involve explicit comparisons with previous studies/theories to support their findings. The writers not only signalled consistency, that they found something similar to what previous researchers found (154

and 155), but also made their own findings more reliable and acceptable, as a complementary source to back up what was already known. Interestingly, such instances did not commonly occur in EL1 texts; (154) and (155) are rare examples:

(154) 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)

(155) **Our particular finding** for 'prepare a meal', i.e., declines in other BADLs items prior to IADL, supports the view that dementia and age related cognitive change result form separate aetiologies. (EL1-28)

However, there seemed to be a consistency across the postgraduate texts, in that such instances were constructed with same elements. That included three important elements in the comparison of results with the previous work: (1) reference to the writer via explicit constructions (*I*-, *we*-based instances) as to signal the ownership of the finding or via passive constructions to avoid personal pronouns (e.g., *it was found*), (2) reference to previous research and findings with an explanation, (3) reference to a consistency or difference (disagreement of findings). The order of these elements tended to be based on stylistic preference and what the writers wanted to foreground; for instance, the Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) mostly followed the sequence (2)-(1)-(3) as illustrated below (156-160).

Compared with the EL1 writers, it was much more common in the texts of the Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English to establish the fact that their findings were likely to be scientifically supported via a range of studies (156, 158, 159, and 160) or theories (157) while signalling that the results still belonged to them.

(156) These studies consistently reported that girls exhibit more positive attitudes towards environment than boys (e.g., Alp et al., 2006; 2008; Ozden, 2008; Taskin, 2009; Tuncer et al., 2005; 2009; Yilmaz et al., 2004). **Our findings** are also in line with this trend. (EL2-25)

(157) 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)

(158) Beyazıt (2007), çalışmasında yeni okuma yazma programına ilişkin olarak yaşanan güçlüklerle cinsiyet arasında bir ilişki olmadığı sonucuna varmıştır. Bu sonuç, **bizim ulaştığımız sonuçlarla paraleldir**. (TL1-19)
(*Beyazıt (2007) found that there was no relation between the difficulties faced and the sex regarding new reading-writing curriculum. This result is* ***in line with the results we reache****d.)*

(159) Oran-Pamir (2008), ebeveynlerini otoriter olarak algılayan öğrencilerin ailesel beklentiler alt boyutundan yüksek puanlar aldığını belirtmiştir. Araştırmanın bu bulgusu, **araştırma sonucumuzu desteklemektedir**. (TL1-24)
(*Oran-Pamir stated that the students who perceive their parents as authoritative had high scores from family expectations. This finding supports our research finding.)*

(160) **Çalışmamız** da Yazıcı'nın (2001) araştırma sonuçları ile aynı doğrultudadır. (TL1-23)
(***Our study*** *is also parallel with the results of Yazıcı's (2001) study.)*

However, compared with the EL1 writers, Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) seem to have adopted a very different style when making use of literature sources to construct a solid way of supporting the outcome of their research by highlighting their presence explicitly via *our*, *bizim*. As can be seen from examples (156, 158 and 159) above, firstly, the Turkish writers tended to reveal the findings from previous research before ending the argument with statements confirming that their own results/findings were in line with them using (2)-(1)-(3) sequence.

Apart from referring to their authorial presence while introducing findings from the literature to support their own findings, Turkish L1 writers only occasionally made attempts to appear explicitly ('I' or 'we') within the discourse when presenting an earlier work that *contradicted* the results of their own study. The writers preferred to be implicit and still linked their research with the literature based on the findings (161 and 162); nevertheless, the idea seemed to be showing a result that is different to what was

already accepted in the academic community. This helped them to flag the difference explicitly and highlight the novelty of their own work with a promotional effect added to their empirical insights.

(161) Kazanımlara ilişkin olarak Turan (2007), yaptığı çalışmada ilköğretim 1. sınıf Türkçe dersi ilk okuma yazma programında uygulanan ses temelli cümle yönteminin uygulamadaki etkililiği konusu üzerinde durmuştur. Türkçe I programında yer alan dinleme, konuşma, okuma, yazma ve görsel okuma-sunu kazanımlarının öğrenci seviyesine uygun olduğu belirlenmiştir. Buradan hareketle kazanımlarla ilgili güçlük yaşanmadığı sonucu çıkarılırsa bu sonuçlar **bizim çalışmamızda ulaştığımız** sonuçlarla **çelişmektedir**. (TL1-19)
(*Regarding the acquisitions, Turan (2007) focused the effectiveness of the audio-based sentence method in application that was used in the 1st grade primary school Turkish class first reading-writing programme. It was determined that the acquisitions of listening, speaking, reading, writing and visual reading-presentation that were included in Turkish I curriculum were appropriate to the level of the students. From this perspective, these results* ***contradict with the results we reached in our research.***)

(162) Hon'nun araştırma sonuçları, kadınların aile iliskilerinin onların duygusal ve finansal destek almaları konusunda belirleyici olduklarını ortaya çıkarmıstır (Hon, 2007; 3). **Arastırma bulgularımızın**, sözkonusu kuramı desteklemediğini **görmekteyiz**. (TL1-21)
(*The results of Hon's study revealed that the family relations of the women were decisive in getting emotional and financial support (Hon, 2007;3)* ***We find*** *that* ***our research results*** *do not support the theort in question*.)

One of the typical examples (161) of using such authorial references in the TL1 texts illustrates that the writer firstly highlighted the outcome of the previous study carried out by Turan (2007), and then explained it briefly to prepare the reader for the dissimilar result achieved in a different context. This seemed to restrict the applicability of the previous finding to different contexts, and highlight the fact that the postgraduate had found something dissimilar and made an advance in academic knowledge in the academic community.

The fact that there were not many instances of explicit or implicit authorial references in the comparison of findings with previous research/theories does not

necessarily mean that the rest of the postgraduates did not accomplish that discourse function. Rather, they preferred a different style of doing so, without signalling their authorial presence and ownership via possessive pronouns of *my*/*our*, simply stating how the result was different from, or similar to literature sources.

5.4 The summary of quantitative and qualitative considerations of explicit/implicit devices signalling authorial presence

After the detailed comparative quantitative and qualitative findings, the current section selects some key findings and presents a few of them leading to describe the general practices of postgraduates in the study in displaying their authorial presence.

In the previous sections, I basically looked at the strategies that the three groups of postgraduates employed in their discussion sections in order to establish their authorial presence and make it explicit or implicit. Both of these strategies helped the writers build an impression about how much they wanted to appear in the texts when achieving various discourse functions. This also included how they took a dominant rhetorical role in the immediate context, signalled via a range of verbs contributing to discourse, research, opinion or the relationship with the intended audience, combined with personal (*I*- or *we*-based references), or impersonal constructions (passive or element-prominent structures). I also demonstrated the similarities and differences in terms of the frequency of such rhetorical choices across postgraduates in Section 5.2. The following section (5.3) took a comparative functional and qualitative approach to the authorial references in postgraduate academic writing where the authors established their visibility in the texts in a way that best suited their purpose for tasks such as presenting ideas, and arguments, or structuring the section. Before moving on to the discussion of these quantitative and qualitative findings, I shall summarise the ways how writers built their authorial presence in their texts and highlighted their ‘‘involvement’’ and ‘‘responsibility’’ (Carciu, 2009, p. 72) in order to achieve particular

rhetorical effect and discourse functions. This section will also briefly reveal the crucial results based on the analyses.

In terms of the overall authorial references (both explicit and implicit) across groups, the quantitative results showed that the TL1 writers were significantly more 'present' in their discussion sections (9.7 per 1000 words) than the English-medium writers (both L1 and L2), who employed around 6 instances per 1000 words. However, as Figure 5.1 in Section 5.2 illustrated, more than two third of the instances in the TL1 texts were impersonal constructions achieving some rhetorical roles. Thus, the TL1 writers were observed to have a strong tendency to avoid personal appearance in their discourse (despite an exclusive style of using personal pronouns such as 'we', 'our', 'us'). This leads to the conclusion that the TL1 texts seemed to be constructed more impersonally.

Similar to the style of the TL1 writers, implicit strategies indicating the presence of the author in the EL2 texts were twice as frequent as explicit instances of *I*- and *we*-based personal pronouns (4.0 vs. 2.0 per 1000 words). I accordingly suggest that the Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) had the tendency to build a more impersonalised discourse, as Turkish writers of English followed a much more similar style to their culturally-bound counterparts and preferred to be less visible, by using implicit references (4.0 instances per 1000 words). There were many explicit authorial references (*I*- and *we*-based pronouns) in EL2 texts, and these were mostly connected with taking the roles of *Research Conductor* and *Discourse Creator and Participant*. The explicit references of EL2 texts were found to be significantly less frequent (2.0 per 1000 words) compared with the EL1 texts (4.1 per 1000 words).

In contrast, this research provided some evidence to argue that the EL1 writers preferred a more self-prominent style, based on the quantitative cresults. The mean frequency of the explicit and implicit references demonstrated that the English L1

writers tended to be more actively involved, than the Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2). The way the EL1 writers built their authorial persona was very different from that of the other two groups, in the sense that a greater personal prose was produced via significantly more use of explicit references (4.0 per 1000 words). That does not necessarily mean that EL1 writers did not implicit refer to their presence, but that impersonal constructions were noticeably less frequent (2.0 per 1000 words) than with the other groups. The major discourse function the EL1 writers achieved via impersonal constructions was found to be (re)statements of methodological issues to remind readers of how they carried their research.

The use of *I* is markedly prevalent in the EL1 texts, compared with the non-existence of this type of pronoun in the TL1 discourse and the combination of *I*- and *we*-based pronouns in texts by Turkish writers of English. This is one of the most striking differences across groups regarding explicit references: a heavy use of *we*-based pronouns by TL1 writers vs. a heavy use of *I*-based pronouns by EL1 writers, and a balanced selection of *I* and *we* pronoun by EL2 writers. Another striking difference was the tendency of the TL1 writers to use passive constructions (7.1 instances per 1000 words) in order to accomplish particular discourse functions by hiding/disguising their presences, and this was significantly higher than what the EL1 and/or EL2 texts.

5.5 Discussion of findings in relation to Research Question 2

5.5.1 Introduction

This section highlights the findings and possible explanations regarding the ways in which the postgraduates displayed their authorial presence in the discussion sections of their master's dissertations. It includes possible explanations for the similarities and differences across groups.

> RQ2. How do postgraduate students (L1 writers of Turkish and English & Turkish writers of English) construct their authorial presence in their academic texts?
>
> 2.1. What are the strategies employed to construct their authorial presence in their academic writing?
> 2.2. Are there any similarities or differences across groups in terms of how they display their authorial presence in academic texts?

5.5.2 Responses to Research Question 2

As stated previously, one of the aims of the present study (apart from the ways how postgraduates qualified their assessments towards propositions, as discussed in Chapter 4) was to find out how postgraduates from different contexts built authorial presence in their academic writing and to see whether this varied across groups. To this end, three postgraduate groups were selected, differing in terms of *language* (English L1 and L2 writers) and *culture* (Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English). One of the crucial rhetorical sections of master's dissertations (the Discussion section) was taken as the focus of analysis. The reason was that this section has the communicative purpose of convincing the intended readership with a critical discussion of the particular findings, and writers need to develop arguments based on the results. Therefore, this section is a good context for representing the characteristics of the authors in making knowledge claims and highlighting their authorial presence within the discourse.

The study has provided empirical evidence to describe how the different postgraduate groups displayed their authorial presence in academic texts. The findings of the comparative analysis indicated that there were clear differences across groups. The Section 4.4 pointed to the importance of both variables in explaining the similarities and differences across Turkish L1 writers, Turkish writers of English and English L1 writers regarding commitment-detachment: namely language and culture. The discussion of the findings and responses to the second research question stated above will also be made according to these two identifiers separating the postgraduates in the study.

The higher number of impersonal constructions found in the texts by the Turkish writers of English (EL2) linked the two culturally identical groups (namely, the Turkish L1 writers and the Turkish writers of English). As can also be seen from Table 5.6 below, the most noticeable difference across the academic texts of three groups is that between the L1 writers of English and Turkish. The English L1 writers seemed to create a more individualistic prose, where they mostly employed personal references (both *I*- and *we*-based) with different verb constructions whereas a totally different picture o-btained in the TL1 texts. They created a more distant style, by using impersonal constructions, which made them less visible. This could be regarded as 'impersonal knowledge making' (p.19), to employ Ivanic and Camps' (2001) label, in the sense that fewer personal pronouns were used to stress the authors' presence in the process of accomplishing particular discourse functions, compared with a significantly greater number of impersonal authorial references.

Table 5.6 *Overall summary of the rhetorical roles and discourse functions of the authorial references*

Rhetorical author roles	Functions of the authorial references	Density of different types of authorial references across groups								
		Turkish L1 writers			Turkish writers of English			English L1 writers		
		I	We	Impersonal	I	We	Impersonal	I	We	Impersonal
Research Conductor	(re) stating methodological issues	X	X	✓✓✓✓	✓	✓	✓✓✓	✓	✓	✓✓✓
	(re) stating results/findings	X	✓	✓✓✓	✓	✓	✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓
	comparing and supporting results/findings with literature sources	X	✓✓	✓✓✓	X	✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓	✓
	stating research strength/limitations	X	X	✓✓	✓	✓	✓✓	✓	X	✓
Opinion Holder	elaborating an argument and making claims	X	X	✓✓	✓	✓	✓✓	✓✓	X	✓✓
Discourse Creator and Participant	indicating the structure of the section & guiding readers	X	X	✓✓✓	✓✓	✓	✓✓	✓	✓	✓✓
	announcing the goals/tasks accomplished	X	X	✓✓	✓	X	✓✓	✓	X	✓
	*including the reader and writer in the text	-	✓✓	✓✓	-	✓	✓	-	✓	✓
Community -self	promoting the overall contribution to the academic community	X	X	✓	X	X	✓	X	X	✓
	suggestions for the future work to direct researchers, policy makers, etc.	X	X	✓✓	X	X	✓✓	✓	X	X
	representing another identity in the community (i.e. teacher, historian, etc)	X	X	✓	X	✓	✓	✓	X	✓

Note 1: The symbol (from ✓ to ✓✓✓✓) indicates the density of the number of authorial references and how frequently they were employed by postgraduates for the particular rhetorical role and function they contributed.
Note 2: (*) refers to the information that the first person singular (I-based) cannot be used to include the reader in the discourse, therefore, I-based pronouns combined with particular verbs were out of scope of that particular discourse function.

The quantitative and qualitative results regarding the style of the TL1 writers were consistent with Swetnam's (2000) description of the generic style in academic texts; personal pronouns were generally avoided in academic writing unless the author had a particular reason to use them, which by itself resulted in a more impersonal and detached style. Nevertheless, there was a particularly high incidence by the TL1 writers of employing *we*-based pronouns mainly; surprisingly, there was not a single *I*-based reference in the sub-corpus. The discourse functions which such explicit cases of we signalled were exclusively the ones where writers compared their findings/results with literature sources (exclusive use of *we*), or included the intended audience in the discourse, with the inclusive effect of the we-based pronouns (only for the actions that could be shared and witnessed by the participants of discourse). Other than these two functions, there were no explicit references to the presence of the TL1 writers.

As the use of *we* was the only explicit reference, it could be argued that such instances might include the presence and/or effect of the TL1 writers' supervisors in the process of decision-making of the research, such as the particular data selection, or the method of analysis. That could have been the rationale behind the use of some *we*-based references; however, there were no *we*-based references used by the TL1 writers to (re)state methodological issues with which they might have interacted with their supervisors. In a data driven study, Vladimirou (2014) found a similar tendency in Greek L1 academic discourse, where the authors tended to collocate exclusive 'we' references with particular verbs in their single-authored texts to refer themselves exclusively. Therefore, it is possible to say that the TL1 writers might have preferred an exceptional use of exclusive 'we' in the process of writing single-authored dissertations to give a less powerful effect of personal inclusion than the sytle via *I* would have had. In other words, they seemingly felt more comfortable in stressing/stating their inclusion in the research via exclusive we-based pronouns when the number of I (0 instances) and we-based (2.4 instances per 1000 words) pronouns are evaluated.

5.5.2.1 A closer look at the three postgraduate profiles with regard to authorial presence

By looking at the overall picture of TL1 writers, it would be plausible to argue that the contribution of an impersonal tone of knowledge presentation could be about imposing a particular interpersonal strategy. That is, to build a reasonably different style of academic prose, in comparison to the other two postgraduate groups (except for the higher use of impersonal strategies by the EL2 writers). As the data indicated, TL1 writers revealed a more 'faceless' discourse, by making use of almost three times the of implicit references compared with their use of exclusive or inclusive *we*-based pronouns. This finding is similar to those of Perez-Llantada (2010), who found the Spanish L1 writers frequently opted for more impersonal expressions than personal constructions in their discussion sections, following the impersonal components of Spanish academic writing.

On the other hand, the Turkish writers of English seemed to write similarly to both of the other two postgraduate groups. They were found to make reasonably frequent use of implicit authorial references via passive and element-prominent constructions, which was similar to what their TL1 peers did. The consistent use of impersonal strategies to accomplish the authorial roles by the TL1 and EL2 writers might be a culture-specific intellectual preference by the Turkish postgraduates to create a more objective academic prose. Nevertheless, there were some shared linguistic realisations between the Turkish writers of English and EL1 writers, although 30% of the EL2 writers chose not to employ any *I*- or *we*-based authorial references. In other words, the lack of explicit references was also observed in EL2 texts, and this might help explain why more impersonal features were featured by the EL2 writers in the target language, as they also ''tend[ed] to adhere to the traditional recipe for 'objective' presentation'' (Vassileva, 1998, p. 166). The rest of the EL2 writers preferred using self-mentions (*I* and *we*, or both) to perform some rhetorical roles visibly in their

discussion sections. The use of explicit references (especially *I* as there were no examples in the TL1 texts), no matter how less frequent they were in the EL2 texts, could be indicative that Turkish writers of English adopted Anglophone practices to express their involvement in the discourse. That is to say, most of the EL2 writers also built an authoritative discourse to some extent, with a similar use of personal pronouns to that of the EL1 writers. In general, to put it another way, although the first person singular pronoun (I) was completely avoided by the TL1 writers (either intentionally or due to the expectations of the discourse community), the texts of Turkish writers of English provided some evidence that they adhered to a reasonably personal style, via *I*-based pronouns, as well as by the exclusive use of *we*-based references for the actions accomplished by the text owners.

By using inclusive 'we' to indicate directly the presence of the audience and the author in the text, Turkish L1 writers seemed to achieve a dialogic way of talking to their readers. In line with Vassileva's (2014) comment on the semantic meaning of *we* (nie) in Bulgarian language, it could have been quite hard to distinguish in the analyses, whether it was exclusive or inclusive in Turkish (and probably in English), due to the potential vagueness of the use of *we*. Nevertheless, as stated previously, the interpretation of the exclusive and inclusive *we*-based references in the present research was based on whether the action in the context was signalling a discourse (textual) action or entity that can be shared with the audience (i.e. ''*we see* the example below…'' vs. ''*we found* that students…''). From this point of view, the authorial 'we' references were isolated in the single-authored dissertations easily, and it was found that the Turkish L1 writers preferred signalling their engagement with readers by employing inclusive 'we'.

The findings of my quantitative and qualitative analyses of English L1 texts also indicated that there were different types of role and function achieved via different linguistic strategies. Although it could be hard to explain the differences across groups

by just looking at the instances and the immediate context, it seems very plausible to claim that EL1 writers appeared to be actively involved in their texts, with a remarkably greater number of personal references than impersonal forms. Using Chafe and Danielwicz's (1987) labels, the style of the EL1 postgraduates could be claimed to be *not detached but more personal* despite some occurrences of implicit authorial references establishing a distance and/or reducing the writer's visibility. As stated previously, I expected to see more explicit or implicit references in promoting arguments and claims with the role of *Opinion Holder* in the discussion sections; nevertheless, the explicit and implicit references were more frequently employed by EL1 writers as well, to describe methodological issues, results/findings and guide the readers through the texts.

5.5.2.2 Comparison of the findings with similar previous work.

To the best of my knowledge, this study is the first attempt to explore in detail some components of novice academic writing by Turkish postgraduates at Master's level. Therefore, the findings regarding the authorial presence were only compared with the findings of other cross-cultural (i.e. Native speakers of English vs. Non-native speakers-L2 users of English) and cross-linguistic (i.e. English vs. Italian language) studies in the field. In most of the cross-cultural research, where the use of self-references of non-native writers (L2) and native writers (L1) of English were compared, English L1 writers seemed to employ more explicit references (*I, my, we, our, us*) than non-native speakers in their academic texts (as in Basal, 2006; Dahl, 2009; Heng and Tan, 2010; Martinez, 2005; Vassileva, 1998). Consistent with these previous studies (despite the difference of the disciplines or genres compared) and as the cross-cultural consideration of discussion sections by the EL1 and EL2 writers demonstrated, the frequency of *I*- and *we*-based explicit references was significantly higher in EL1 texts than for the Turkish writers of English. However, this seems to be a contradictory finding to what Adel (2006) found when comparing the texts of British writers (*I*-based: 0.6; *we*-based: 0.3

per 1000 words) and Swedish writers of English (*I*-based: 4.05; *we*-based: 1.11 per 1000 words) for argumentative student writing. However, the difference between two research results could stem from the presentation of propositions in two different genres (university student essays vs. dissertations), the contribution of the author based on the purpose, or just subjective preferences of the authors.

When previous cross-linguistic studies are taken into account to compare whether writers producing in different languages differ from native writers of English regarding the explicit references (*I*- and *we*-based), there are some findings in line with the findings of the present research: Turkish L1 postgraduates employed fewer explicit authorial references than English L1 writers. The Italian writers (Molino, 2010), Korean writers (Kim, 2009), Spanish writers (Mur Dueanas 2007, 2011), and Persian writers (Abdi, 2009; Zarei & Mansoori, 2011a, 2011b) were found to employ reasonably less frequent explicit references ('I' and 'we') in their native texts than did English L1 writers.

5.5.2.3 The similarity of authorial roles

Table 5.6 also highlights one of the clear similarities across groups; all writers made the rhetorical role of *Research Conductor* salient in their discussion sections, via a combination of research activity verbs with explicit or implicit references. The cases mostly involved (re)counting the methodological issues as a reminder to the audience about how data was for example *collected*, *included* or *excluded* during the analysis; how it was *analysed*. This was followed by the (re)statements of the research results or findings that led to the conclusion chapters of the dissertations. Although one might have expected to see more instances where postgraduates clearly took a stand as *Opinion Holder* to reveal their arguments and opinions, this rhetorical role was not adopted to a greater extent. After analysing the texts (abstracts) of experienced researchers, Dahl (2009) argued that presenting the findings of research with argumentation in Social Sciences may require a much more visible author in the text.

The most visible postgraduate profile, with explicit pronouns in acting as an arguer in the discussion sections, was that of the EL1 writers (0.5 instances per 1000 words), despite the fact that TL1 writers and Turkish writers of English portrayed a much more impersonal style in putting arguments and opinions forward (1.3 and 0.7 instances per 1000 words respectively). However, it should be underlined that the writers included in the present study were novice writers and one should perhaps not expect them to be as visible while elaborating their arguments as experienced writers with an established presence in the academic community. This can be interpreted as being cautious and not authoritative in making knowledge claims to protect their face.

The least common rhetorical role across all groups of postgraduates in the discussion sections was the role of *Community-self* (TL1: 0.3, EL2: 0.3, EL1: 0.2 per 1000 words). The instances referred to the authors while they were (1) expressing the overall contribution of the research to the community; (2) recommending things to future researchers, or (3) showing another identity other than that of researcher, such as teacher.

The ways in which the English writers (L1 and L2) constructed their discussion sections for the sake of a better organisation appeared to be different from those of the TL1 writers in the sense that the latter always employed impersonal constructions. Although a range of explicit references were used by the English-medium writers (L1 and L2), there were also slightly fewer implicit references marking the authorial presence of the writer. The discourse function of guiding and informing the reader throughout the discussion sections was appointed to the rhetorical role of *Discourse Creator and Participant,* although the second part of that rhetorical role (Participant) specifically indicated the inclusion of reader and writer, via signalling actions shared by the participants within the ongoing discourse.

To sum up the findings regarding the rhetorical roles the writers adopted in their discussion sections, we saw that all of the groups were overwhelmingly *Research*

Conductors via either explicit or implicit references. This could be due to the fact that the function of presenting the findings of one's research (sometimes in comparison with previous work) seemed to be the most common practice in the corpus as well, as the need to touch briefly upon the methodological issues. Surprisingly, the writers all seemed to be less *Opinion Holders* than *Discourse Creators and Participants*. A lower number of explicit and implicit authorial references was used to display the rhetorical role of *Opinion Holder*, which essentially contributed to authorial presence of postgraduates when the writers presented their opinions or ideas, or made claims and elaborated an argument.

In other words, none of the postgraduate groups differed in terms of the rhetorical roles adopted in their discussion sections (1. Research Conductor, 2. Discourse Creator and Participant, 3. Opinion Holder, 4. Community-self respectively); however, the type of references (explicit or implicit) employed while accomplishing such roles differed. There was a great difference across groups associated with the use of first person pronouns as English-medium writers (L1 and L2) created a distinctive tenor in their texts, with both of *I* and *we* explicit references, and sometimes switched between them, whereas the TL1 writers adhered exclusively to *we*-based pronouns in their single-authored academic prose.

5.5.2.4 The similarities (resemblances) and differences between the groups

The Figures 5.12 and 5.13 demonstrate the parallelism and dissimilarity across writers, in terms of the explicit and implicit linguistic features of Turkish and English as rhetorical options to provide a weaker or powerful tone of author presence in the text. As can be seen from Figure 5.12 below, the corpus evidence shows that there was a greater parallelism between the Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) regarding the use of personal pronouns, and the English L1 writers were the dissimilar group, by being more visible, by the use of *I*- and *we*-based personal pronouns. This gave the EL1 writers the

most explicit postgraduate profile in the whole corpus in promoting their *discoursal identity* (Hyland 2005; Ivanic, 1998) in academic prose.

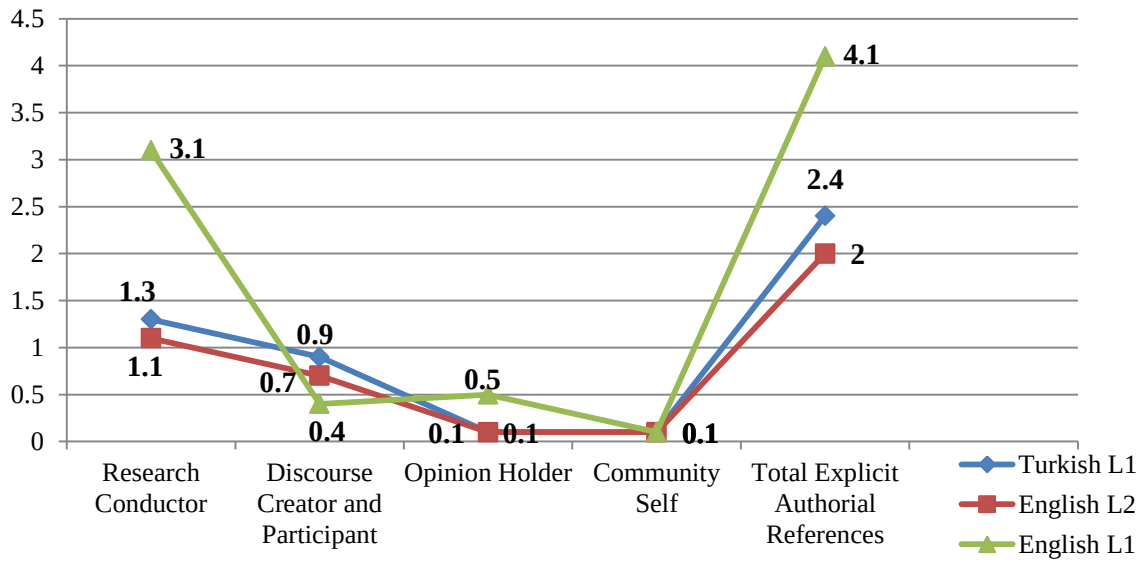


Figure 5.12. Overall instances of explicit authorial references (I- and we-based) across postgraduate texts (parallelism and dissimilarity).

As the number of self-mentions was significantly lower in the texts of the Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2), impersonal references seemed to be more preferred to accomplish particular authorial roles. Although there was a considerable variation between EL1 writers and the two Turkish groups (considering the *culture* variable Turkish vs British), the inter-cultural comparison of the implicit authorial references by TL1 and EL2 writers revealed that Turkish writers of English seemed to create a less impersonal discourse. The variation between the inter-language writers (EL2 and EL1 writers) was also admittedly considerable in line with the variation between inter-cultural (EL1 and TL1) texts. Figure 5.13 below demonstrates all the variations across groups. Despite the fact that Turkish writers of English preferred to underline their rhetorical presence implicitly, there seems to be a much more parallel inclination when English-medium writers' lines are compared, irrelevant of how many instances English L1 writers used.

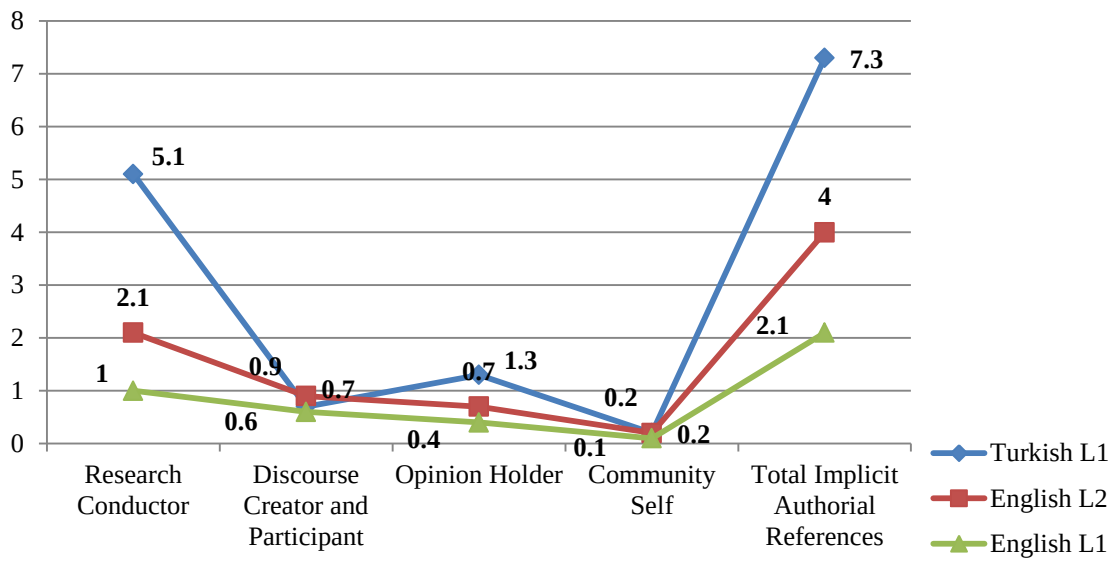


Figure 5.13. Overall instances of implicit authorial references (passive and element-prominent constructions) across postgraduate texts (parallelism and dissimilarity).

In conclusion, based on the in-depth quantitative and qualitative considerations of the authorial references across postgraduates, it is possible to diagnose and describe the various profiles as in the following broad way. However, it should be underlined that one needs to keep the specific preferences in mind, rather than look at the overall tendencies and picture across groups:

- Turkish L1 writers refrained from the use of the first person singular but they referred frequently to their authorial presence via impersonal constructions.
- Turkish writers of English: There is reasonable evidence that they were similar to the TL1 writers, in terms of heavy use of impersonal constructions, but they also seemed to be fairly similar to EL1 writers, in terms of employing explicit references. Nevertheless as Figure 5.12 demonstrates, there was a greater parallelism between Turkish L1 writers.
- English L1 writers had a completely different style in displaying their authorial presence, via a heavier use of personal pronouns and significantly

less use of impersonal instances compared with what Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) did.

In addition to the points made above, I would also claim that the texts written by English L1 writers seemed to be oriented and structured towards achieving a better understanding by readers, by making the agent much more visible; however, both of the Turkish groups tended to focus on the topical development (by hiding the agent) of the arguments presented to the readers, rather than making the agent comparatively more explicit and signalling their presence more concretely. The use of some impersonal constructions can be considered as a stylistic preference, either to vary the types of proposition, or to foreground the topic by backgrounding the author in the text. If that is the case, the number of impersonal strategies used by all postgraduates could be a shared rhetorical component of academic writing at that level and in that genre. However, as the number of such impersonal constructions increased from the English L1 texts to English L2 texts, and from English L2 texts to Turkish L1 texts enormously, the tendency of Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) to use impersonal constructions might not only be explained by the potential characteristics of postgraduate academic writing.

The effect of culture-specific issues or educational practices might also play an important role in explaining the tendency of Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) to create impersonal academic prose. The educational materials or teaching practices might have invited Turkish postgraduates to hold such an attitude towards the presentation of knowledge in their texts (both in English and Turkish). This might also include self-education/development of the postgraduates, via recognizing writing practices from written materials of previous researchers (expert or novice). As Brown (1994) described his own writing experience of dissertation writing as ‘‘learned to do it by omnisis’’ (p.92), the writers might well have taken earlier dissertations/theses as examples and modelled their structure, and writing conventions. That also shows that the

postgraduates could have got some awareness of what type of conventions were expected of them in that particular writing experience, as it might not be something similar to what they produced at the undergraduate level and could be more demanding both scientifically and linguistically.

Based on the findings regarding authorial presence that the Turkish writers appear to have favoured impersonal inclusion in their texts, to create a more objective rhetorical effect, I hypothesise that there could be a reference to rhetorical transfer from L1 writing in Turkish to L2 writing of English by Turkish postgraduates with reference to statistical analyses and results. Although the concept investigated in the present study is different from Oktar's (1991) study, her work also evidenced some linguistic and rhetorical interference of L1 to L2. Oktar (1991) suggested a high possibility of rhetorical interference from Turkish L1 to English L2 in expository writing by Turkish freshman students in respect of patterns of logical relations. This finding strengthens my hypothesis about explaining the higher number of impersonal constructions in the English texts written by Turkish students, and lower number of explicit authorial references (1.0 *I*-based references and 0.3 *we*-based (exclusive use only) references per 1000 words). It seems reasonable to suggest that this finding, along with the higher use of 'inclusive we' references by Turkish writers of English and Turkish L1 writers, also supports the hypothesis, to a great extent, that the native language of the language user had an effect, and the EL2 writers potentially carried to target language writing practices.

5.5.3 Overall considerations of findings and responses to second research question

In the previous section, I attempted to answer the second research question, regarding authorial presence across postgraduate texts and the rhetorical roles taken on via these explicit and implicit authorial references. To recapitulate the main findings and responses:

(1) Various ways were used to express and display authorial presence by the postgraduates in their academic texts, and the strategies linguistically signalling authorial presence varied across the three groups, namely, Turkish L1 writers, Turkish writers of English and English L1 writers.

(2) The strategies used by the postgraduates included two broad strategies: (1) Personal pronouns as explicit authorial references (*I*- and *we*-based pronouns); (2) Impersonal constructions as implicit authorial references, with passive constructions and inanimate subjects (element-prominent constructions) speaking for the author:

- In terms of the first category of authorial references (explicit), there was greater variation in the use of personal pronouns across groups. As regards the *culture* variable, Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English (from Turkish culture) appeared to construct less personal academic prose compared with English L1 writers. There was also a tendency that Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) as cultural-bound counterparts showed towards employing 'we' as an inclusive pronoun to highlight their participation in the discourse and draw the reader's attention to the discourse by treating writer and reader in the text as equals. The *language* variable (Turkish vs English) showed us there was a neat split in the use of first person singular pronouns (*I, my, me, mine*) between Turkish and English texts (L1 and L2) as there was not even a single instance of *I*-based pronouns in the Turkish L1 texts. A line of reasoning about the existence of *I*-based pronouns would be attributing it to the impact of English rhetoric, which seems to be more direct, and the use of *I* is one of the prevalent way of signalling such directness.
- In terms of the second category of authorial references (Implicit), the texts written by Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English revealed a more impersonal prose, in line with the less frequent use of explicit authorial references. If an impersonal way of presentation is considered to be a prominent component of Turkish culture and language, it could be speculated that that rhetorical convention could have been transferred to L2 writing by the Turkish writers while writing in the target language (English).

Nevertheless, this does not seem to have been a very frequent rhetorical practice in the discussion sections of the English L1 writers, and this appears to be a complementary finding to a more subjective style in the EL1 texts based on the reasonably higher number of explicit authorial references. Considering the effect of the language variable in determining the similarities or differences between Turkish and English, the only potential influence of English and rhetoric on the Turkish writers is the variety of inanimate subjects (chapter, research, section, study, thesis, research, data, result and so on) employed to present a range of results, ideas, arguments of the authors as if they were speaking for themselves-as there were only two research/discourse elements used by Turkish L1 writers (‘araştırma’ as *research* and ‘çalışma’ as *study*).

(3) The explicit or implicit authorial references were employed to accomplish four different rhetorical roles, in combination with particular types of verb in the immediate contexts: (1) *Research Conductor* role with research activity verbs; (2) *Opinion H*older role with positioning verbs; (3) *Discourse Creator and Participant* role with discourse verbs; (4) *Community-self* role with verbs signalling overall contribution and recommendation.

(4) There was not a great variation between groups to account for which rhetorical role was taken over via explicit or implicit authorial references, more frequently than other roles across groups, as all groups seemed to be similar in terms of rhetorical roles or ‘author behaviour’ (Dahl, 2009, p. 132).

(5) Nevertheless, the types of authorial reference (explicit or implicit) used to accomplish these rhetorical roles varied across groups. For instance, the Turkish L1 writers and Turkish writers of English performed the roles of *Research Conductor* and *Opinion Holder* by employing implicit authorial references, whereas the English L1 writers employed explicit authorial references far more frequently in achieving these roles.

(6) Last but not least, the quantitative and qualitative results showed that the Turkish L1 writers built a more distant and impersonal academic style in their discussion sections, whereas the English L1 writers were notably more reluctant to use personal authorial references and became more visible in their discussion sections. As interlanguage users, the Turkish writers of English seemed to combine and apply two contrastive rhetorical preferences of their culturally-bound (Turkish L1) and linguistically-bound (English L1) counterparts. However, a comparison of the results of the L2 sub-corpus with those of the other two L1 sub-corpora revealed that there was enough evidence to argue that the influence of Turkish L1 rhetoric was much more apparent in the authorial presence of Turkish writers of English. It is, nevertheless, worth noting that the quantitative and qualitative analyses also indicated there might be a two-way transfer in English L2 texts between Turkish culture and rhetoric, and English language and rhetoric.

The following chapter will review and discuss the overall quantitative and qualitative findings of Commitment-Detachment and Authorial Presence in postgraduate academic writing, by taking a broad perspective on the tendencies, similarities and differences across the three postgraduate profiles. I shall also attempt to present the implications of the present research findings, the limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research in the field.

Chapter 6
Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

This study was an exploratory attempt to describe how differently/similarly postgraduates presented the information in the discussion sections of their masters' dissertations with respect to:

- Qualifying their commitment-detachment towards their knowledge claims, and
- Constructing an authorial presence within their academic prose to accomplish a range of discourse roles.

The analysis of texts from the three postgraduate groups employed two analytical frameworks, to distinguish (1) the role of hedged and boosted propositions in revealing the stance of the writer, and (2) the use of personal and impersonal linguistic resources in achieving specific rhetorical discourse roles to create one's persona in the text. By looking at the quantitative and qualitative results presented in Chapter 4 regarding the qualification of commitment-detachment, I can claim that the most important distinctive factor among the postgraduates, when it came to the employment of higher degrees of commitment or detachment, seemed to be the language factor (Turkish vs English writing). Based on the findings presented in Chapter 5, Turkish writers, whether writing in English or Turkish (TL1 and EL2), seemed to create a more distant and impersonal authorial presence compared with the English L1 writers from a cross-cultural point of view.

6.2 Empirical evidence of the Turkish and British postgraduates' academic writing

The overall distribution of linguistic resources signalling commitment-detachment or authorial presence (explicit or implicit) shows three divergent academic styles in the discussion sections of the texts examined (see Figure 6.1).

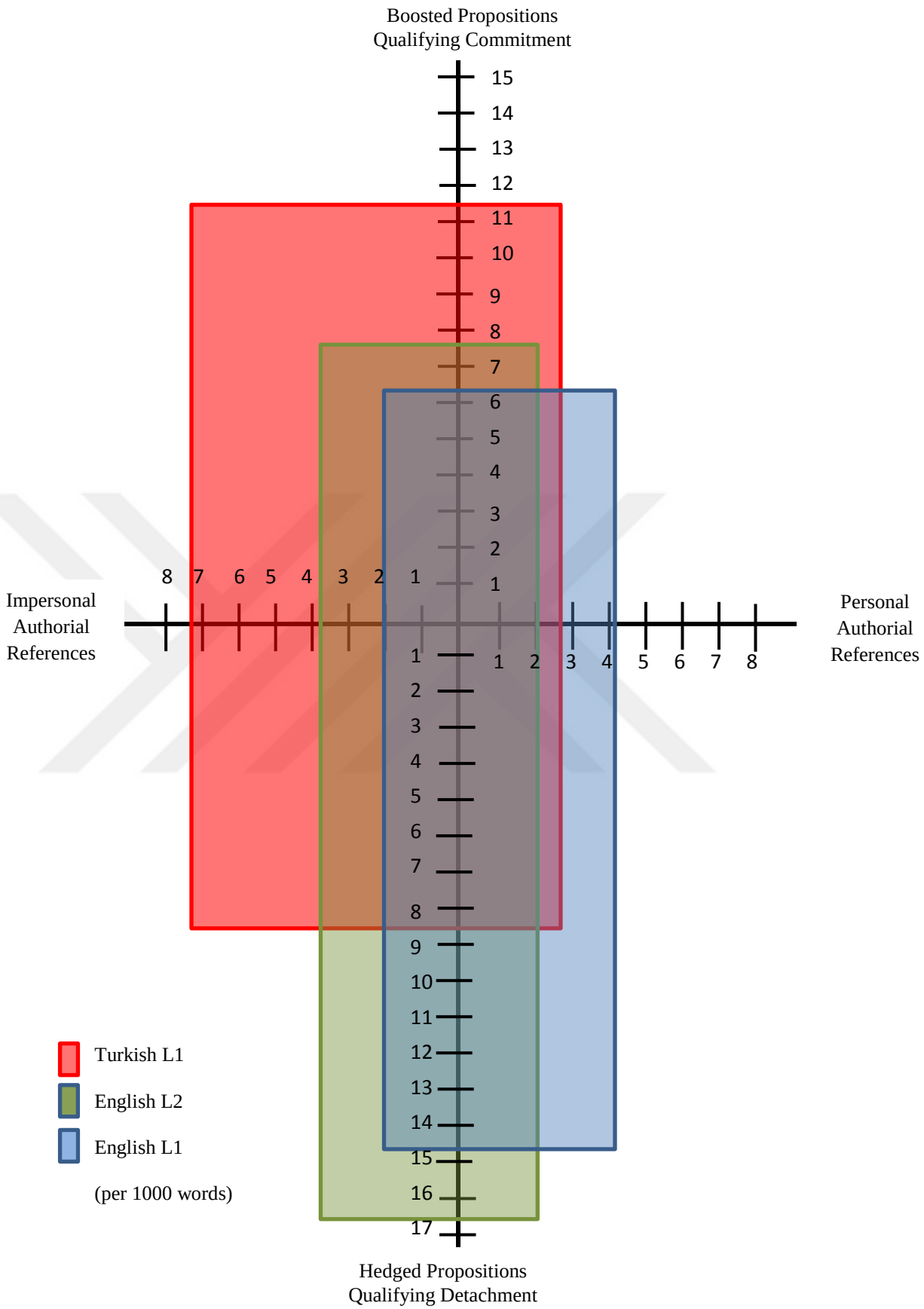


Figure 6.1. The overall distribution of commitment-detachment and authorial presence across postgraduate texts (numbers represent the frequency per 1000 words).

As shown in Figure 6.1 above, there were two different profiles for the Turkish and British postgraduates:

(1) The Turkish L1 writers tended to be more committed to the propositions and rather confident compared with their English L1 and L2 counterparts, who were considerably more tentative towards their propositions and used a more detached style;

(2) The Turkish L1 writers and the Turkish writers of English (EL2) were prone to employing impersonal authorial references, in contrast to the English L1 writers, who employed noticeably more personal authorial references.

As the figure above illustrates the results based on the quantitative analysis, it might initially focus on the shapes: the English L1 and L2 writer profiles looked like identical long narrow rectangles compared with the wide-shorter rectangle of the Turkish L1 postgraduates. There is however enough evidence to claim that Turkish L1 and English L1 postgraduate profiles were completely distinctive, and that the interlanguage writers (EL2) displayed a degree of proximity to the other two groups. This was also confirmed by the results of the qualitative analysis presented in Chapters 4 and 5.

It is possible to talk about the effects of the target language (English) and native culture (Turkish) in the texts of the Turkish writers of English (L2) by looking at the empirical evidence obtained from the quantitative and qualitative analyses. These are the two attributed variables in the present research to separate the groups, to find out how different novice writers build their rhetorical stance towards the information presented and represent their voice and authorial presence. For instance, the tendency of the English L2 writers to use a larger amount of hedging resources to tone down their knowledge claims (even more than the English L1 writers used) does not necessarily point to a potential transfer issue from the native language/culture. In contrast, as the EL1 data suggested, the style of the English texts indicated the use of a standardised

convention followed by the English-medium writers (EL1 and EL2). The Turkish L1 writing conventions evidenced by the present study can be summarised as involving a considerably higher degree of commitment, and this is mostly avoided in the English texts (L1 and L2). Therefore, it is appropriate to infer the effect of the target language (English) and its conventions in the writing of the English L2 texts: signalling a higher degree of deference (highly detached) to the academic community and mostly decreasing the truthful status of the propositions. However, it should be stressed that it could be that the Turkish writers of English (EL2) presented more detachment (even more than the EL1) because they may not have felt comfortable writing in the target language and stayed away from making indisputable knowledge claims. Therefore, they tended to ‘‘make space for alternative positions’’ (Hyland, 2005, p.93) unexpectedly more than the English L1 writers.

The analyses of the linguistic markers signalling authorial presence in the texts (either explicitly or implicitly) showed that different authorial references were employed to accomplish various effects and discourse roles. Nevertheless, as the findings supported, it was felt that Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) were more prone towards using implicit authorial references rather than explicit references conscious rhetorical decisions.

6.2.1 Key findings across languages (Turkish and English)

The present descriptive and exploratory research provided significant evidence about the effect of language (Turkish L1 vs. English L1 & L2) on influencing novice writers to create a more committed/detached style and an explicit or implicit projection of the author’s self into their texts.

6.2.1.1Variation across languages regarding commitment-detachment

As mentioned in Section 6.2., the three groups varied significantly in terms of the occurrences conveying commitment and detachment, based on the Kruskal-Wallis test

results. The groups making these significant differences were found by a Mann-Whitney U test, by grouping the postgraduates in language pairs as Turkish L1 vs. English L1+English L2. When the statistical results regarding commitment are examined, based on the variable of language, the postgraduates writing in English (L1 and L2) appeared to prefer fewer boosting resources in their discussion sections. When the statistical results regarding the items conveying detachment are interpreted, I would suggest that the language variable also had an effect on the use of such items. That is because the Turkish postgraduates writing in their mother tongue (TL1) seemed to make use of fewer hedging resources than the English-medium writers (L1 and L2).

As Hyland (2005) noted, there can be variations across languages when authors express confidence in or caution towards their arguments. The tendency of English medium writers (L1 and L2) in formulating knowledge claims in a more tentative nature is confirmed as far as the data and results are concerned. This is completely a distinctive sustained style different from that of novice Turkish L1 writers, as shown in Figure 6.1 in the previous section. The presence of hedged and boosted sentences across the texts demonstrated that the writers tried to gain acceptance for their knowledge claims by giving some space to readers for their considerations, or to convince readers to accept what was presented by being more direct. Both of these signals contributed to the presentation of how committed or detached the novice writers were towards their knowledge claims, and manoeuvring between linguistic resources enabled them to create different effects in their the academic texts for the sake of persuading their readers to some extent.

Nevertheless, as can be seen from the results presented in Chapter 4, the Turkish writers of English seemed to deviate from the style of the Turkish L1 writers and expressed more caution while making knowledge claims. This could be closely related to the academic style of experienced English-medium writers and what postgraduates in

English could adopt in their academic writing as a result of making themselves aware of such a convention via instruction or self-development. Hyland (2012) highlighted that one of the features of mature academic writing is to create space for academic audience to indicate views other than those presented. In other words, ‘‘to construct a pseudo-dialogue with readers in order to gain their acceptance of the argument’’ (Hyland, 2012, p. 146) could require one to adopt a relatively cautious and detached tone, like that observed in the English L1 and L2 texts in the present study compared with the rather confidently conveyed tone as in the Turkish L1 texts.

6.2.1.2 Variation across languages regarding authorial presence

Although the Kruskal-Wallis test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference across groups (TL1 vs. EL2 vs. EL1) regarding the explicit authorial references, the Mann-Whitney U test did not reveal a statistically significant result when the language factor was taken into account, in comparing explicit authorial references (resulting in a personal projection of the author’s self) between Turkish and English languages (TL1 vs. EL1+EL2). Nevertheless, the use of implicit authorial references (resulting in an impersonal projection of the author’s self) did vary between Turkish and English texts, as the Mann-Whitney U test revealed a statistically significant difference between the two languages.

The results presented in Chapter 5 clearly indicated (1) a reasonably high frequency of impersonal constructions to signal implicit authorial presence in the Turkish L1 texts compared with (2) the higher use of both singular and plural first person pronouns in the English L1 and L2 texts. As can be expected, different discourse communities (experienced or novice) might prefer to employ different traditions and conventions, so as to interact and engage with their intended audiences. By looking at the representation of authorial self from the language point of view (Turkish vs English), it seems quite clear that there is an obvious first-person singular avoidance

and a significant tendency towards impersonal authorial references in the TL1 texts, to accomplish particular discourse acts/roles within the discussion sections, as outlined and described in Chapter 5. Compared with the Turkish L1 writers, who were almost rhetorically absent in their texts, due to significantly greater use of implicit authorial references, the English L1 and L2 writers constructed a more visible authorial self and accomplished a range of discourse acts by employing *I*- and *we*-based authorial references.

6.2.2 Key findings across cultures (Turkish and English)

As argued by Kaplan (1966, 2000) and the best known assumption of Contrastive Rhetoric, there is some evidence that the rhetorical organisations and choices made by the writers of different languages vary, with the native culture/language leading writers to follow native rhetorical patterns, rather than the practices acquired in the target language (via instruction, or from a developing self-awareness in the target language). However, that does not necessarily mean that the language learners reject what they learn as a result of instruction or self-development for the target language as this can be an unconscious rhetorical choice. In this respect, this research study has also contributed to that idea and assumption, as suggested by the data of postgraduate texts to some extent. Nevertheless, it should be noted that interference from native (L1) rhetorical practices might not always be straightforward, as Stalker and Stalker (1986) have noted. And, it would be quite challenging to ‘‘read off culture’’ directly ‘’from texts (Hyland, 2005, p.137). Therefore, as suggested by similar contrastive studies, I agree that contrastive studies contribute to our understanding that culture can be one of the factors affecting the features of different writing groups and provide subtle evidence to support that idea to some extent. That is because there could well be other factors–individual, gender-based, genre-based, disciplinary, institutional and contextual–determining the rhetorical performance and practices of writers from different contexts, and specifically

when writing in a language other than their native language. These factors would be worth exploring in future research studies, and this can provide a more comprehensive way to explore differences and similarities across various writing groups.

6.2.2.1 Variation across cultures regarding commitment-detachment

As previously shown, the statistical test (Kruskal-Wallis) regarding the use of linguistic resources signalling commitment-detachment revealed that there were statistically significant differences across all groups (TL1 vs. EL2 vs. EL1). When the culture variable was taken into account to compare Turkish (Turkish L1 + English L2) vs. British (English L1) groups, the groups creating the significant difference were found. Turkish postgraduates grouped as a cultural-pair (TL1 and EL2) seemed to employ boosters more frequently than British postgraduates (EL1). Similarly, regarding signalling detachment, the Mann-Whitney U test revealed a significant difference between the groups; and it was found that Turkish students (TL1 and EL2) seemed to employ significantly fewer items signalling detachment than British postgraduates.

It could be argued that the Turkish L1 and English L1 writers produced two distinctive academic types of prose regarding commitment-detachment. On the other hand, the Turkish writers of English deviated from the Turkish L1 writers but seemed identical to the native speakers of English with respect to how they qualified their level of certainty or doubt in their discussion sections. Considering the research evidence regarding commitment-detachment, the rhetorical preferences by Turkish writers of English did not seem to match those of their culturally-tied peers (TL1) and were much closer to English L1 conventions. This can be attributed to the adaptation of target language conventions, either via guidance taken from academic writing courses (if attended), or the observation of target language prose written by experienced researchers. As mentioned previously, it could be the case that Turkish writers of English (EL2) made their discourse more tentative and detached due to writing in a

language that they were not fully familiar. A question that could be asked here is whether there is or is not a correlation between the writing practices of the Turkish L1 and Turkish writers of English, in terms of the level of certainty or uncertainty expressed via linguistic resources. A positive correlation would indicate that the practices of the EL2 writers may have stemmed from the overall tone and character of L1 writing; nevertheless there is much evidence that the Turkish writers of English (EL2) adapted a tone of academic writing more similar to that which the British postgraduates (EL1) employed in accordance with Anglo-Saxon academic conventions.

6.2.2.2 Variation across cultures regarding Authorial Presence

As mentioned in Section 5.2, there were statistically significant differences across groups overall in relation to the use of explicit and implicit authorial references. When the culture variable and the Mann-Whitney U tests between groups were taken into account, it was clear that the differences between the Turkish and British postgraduate groups were statistically significant. Regarding the explicit authorial references, British postgraduates (EL1) employed significantly more personal references than Turkish student writers (TL1 and EL2). In contrast, the Turkish postgraduates (TL1 and EL2) were found to be making use of implicit authorial references significantly more than the British postgraduates (EL1). That essentially indicated that the Turkish postgraduates (TL1 and EL2) preferred a more impersonal style, whereas a more personal voice was favoured by British postgraduates.

When Figure 6.1 in Section 6.2 is considered, the rhetorical preferences of the Turkish L1 writers and the Turkish writers of English with regard to authorial presence seemed to be similar, in contrast to the British writers who appeared more explicitly in their discussion sections. Nevertheless, I also claim that the influence of cultural preferences is softened by the adaptation of the target language practices by Turkish writers of English (EL2), as some features only appeared in English L1 texts. For

example, the use of the first person singular pronouns are generally attached to Anglo American academic English by many researchers (Hyland, 2005), and this could imply one of the prevailing universal features of writing in English regarding author visibility. As Tessuto (2008) noted, the use of *I* as an authorial reference ‘‘is clearly the most direct, visible form of authorial identity’’ (p.46) and this was completely missing in Turkish L1 texts, due to an intentional avoidance of such references as far as the data is concerned.

To sum up, by looking at the discourse practices of the postgraduates regarding authorial presence, the Kruskal-Wallis test revealed that there was a statistically significant difference across the three postgraduate profiles. It was also found that although there was a reasonably marked tendency of Turkish writers of English (EL2) to employ explicit authorial references by using both *I* and *we*-based personal pronouns, like the English L1 writers did, the use of impersonal constructions by Turkish writers (TL1 and EL2) was favoured and these became the primary strategy for constructing voice in their discussion sections.

6.2.3 Combining commitment-detachment and authorial presence and representation of the tendencies across the groups

Fløttum (2012) argued that variations between English (L1 and L2) texts might potentially decrease, and second or foreign language writers of English can produce at a level closer to what the academic community calls ‘standard’ as a result of the improvement that non-native writers of English can have. This was attributed to the era of internationalisation across the globe and the power of today’s lingua franca, English, over other local academic communities (e.g., native writers of Turkish, Bulgarian, Norwegian) aiming reasonably smaller number of intended audience. Apart from individual differences in the Turkish and English texts, as far as the data and results of this study are considered, it is possible to comment on ‘‘how much this dominance

affects academic writing in other languages'' (Fløttum, 2012, p. 228). The style of the Turkish L1 writers in conveying their stance towards their propositions and building their academic voice can be claimed to be rather distinctive, with a more committed and impersonal tone, compared with that the English-medium (L1 and L2) writers employed in their discussion sections. This was confirmed and evidenced in the present research by the fact that the items and concepts investigated throughout the study seemed to be quite similar in the English L1 and English L2 texts. Nevertheless, the writing conventions in the Turkish L1 texts appeared to be maintained rather differently than in the English (EL1 and EL2) texts, despite the fact that the Turkish writers of English seemed to transfer a few features from what can be considered as national/local conventions into their target texts.

This study also supported the claim that linguistic resources related to metadiscourse strategies (such as hedges, boosters or self-mentions) have some universal features as regards the involvement of the writers in their texts (Crismore et al., 1993). Writers' rhetorical and linguistic choices can potentially be linked to ''either conscious or unreflective practices'' (Hyland, 2010, p. 141). As argued so far, the choices can depend on the language (mother or target) and/or cultural influences; however, the influences operating may not be limited to language or culture (see 6.4.) For instance, this is confirmed by the practices of the Turkish writers of English (EL2), who represented themselves in their texts by employing first-person singular pronouns; this seemed to be a conscious choice, as the Turkish L1 writers made no attempt to do so. Nevertheless, as mentioned previously, it should be kept in mind that the universal features of any particular genre might be adopted from the academic community that the authors are in, by copying appropriate and accepted writing conventions in that field. This can then result in conscious choices and pre-determined rhetorical decisions.

6.3 Contribution of the study and implications

The findings of the research have implications for novice writers from the selected contexts, as to how they can construct their stance and authorial presence in the discussion sections of their dissertations. In other words, some academic materials can be designed and guidance can be offered to novice academic writers who are about to start writing masters dissertations in the Social Sciences. From this perspective, it could be quite helpful for academic institutions (either in Turkey or in the UK) to know the general tendencies of Turkish and British students in making use of crucial linguistic strategies (like hedges, boosters, or authorial references) to accomplish interpersonal relations in their academic work. This would help academic writing tutors explain what postgraduates from particular contexts might be expected to achieve in their discussion sections and how they represent themselves in their texts. Students' being aware of certain practices and expectations of the academic community would enhance the quality of the product and the way novice writers construct their tone and presence. For instance, as Hyland (2000) concluded in his study regarding linguistic resources helping authors signal commitment-detachment, ''a clear awareness of the pragmatic impact of hedges and boosters, and an ability to recognise them in texts, is crucial to the acquisition of a rhetorical competence in any discipline'' (p.193). However, it should be emphasised that, apart from the ones investigated here, there are other crucial concepts and linguistic resources that lead to interpersonality in the academic texts (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010).

This study also showed that there were clear patterns that Turkish writers of English (EL2) were following, based on Turkish (L1) academic conventions, and they managed to integrate some of the features of English texts that were different from Turkish (L1) postgraduate academic discourse. This enabled them to create a particular type of postgraduate academic prose. However, it should be noted that the present

comparative study was not concerned with differentiating the quality of the writing that the students wrote in their discussion sections. Thus, some problematic areas (especially in the texts of Turkish writers of English, such as inappropriate linguistic choices for reporting) were not taken into consideration. Nevertheless, although some linguistic problems were detected in the EL2 texts, it was thought that the expectations of the markers were met at a general level and such problems were disregarded, without asking for a revision before making the dissertations public on the website the data was collected. Or else, the markers had missed the problems.

6.3.1 The contribution of the analytical framework

The analytic framework developed throughout the study to explore the phenomena under investigation has been considered to provide reliable and valid measurements in comparing the rhetorical features in the writing of the different groups. As explained in Chapter 3 in detail, the linguistic resources signalling a particular degree of commitment or detachment and revealing the presence of the author (either explicitly or implicitly) in the texts of each group were first detected via manual analysis (using Nvivo) in their immediate contexts. This also enabled me to establish the discourse functions or rhetorical roles being performed.

6.3.2 Agreement among coders and the reliability of coding system

The substantial agreement among the raters on the assignment of the linguistic devices to particular categories or functions had an effect on the overall reliability and validity of the categorisations and measurement. Crismore and Abdollehzadeh (2010) pointed out that the use of multiple raters for metadiscourse studies makes the coding and analysis more reliable. Therefore I attempted to make my coding solid and consistent by contacting five independent second coders so that I would be able to see whether they coded the sample data as I did or differently. Although the number of samples they were given was limited (just 300 items in total), I aimed a higher degree of consistency and

reliability by including more independent coders instead of limiting the number of coders to 2 or 3. As the second coders were provided with a detailed codebook (see Appendix 2), I believe this contributed to the process of understanding the way I coded my corpus and increased the reliability of the coding system as well as empirical findings. According to Crismore and Abdollehzadeh (2010):

> The views of different raters need to be solicited and the degree of consistency in their analyses needs to be reported. This is especially important given the multifunctionality and elusiveness of some metadiscourse items having more than one function at a time and different functions in different contexts. (p.213)

Based on their suggestion, I sampled all linguistic choices that were made by the postgraduates and included in the test more than once so that I could test the consistency of the selections made by second coders. As indicated and reported in Section 3.6, the intercoder reliability results showed that the agreement among second coders and the researcher was quite substantial. The agreement (all coders vs. the researcher) on commitment-detachment items was 0.826[32]; similarly, and on explicit or implicit authorial presence items was 0.812[33]. That also indicated the generalizability of the coding system in the way it was carried out during the research. It was felt that if the second coders had been supplied with a more detailed codebook and perhaps trained online, there could have been an even more substantial agreement among the coders-with kappa close to 1. Nevertheless, the substantial kappa results still verified that there was an encouraging level of agreement in distinguishing the certainty markers and authorial presence indicators (kappa>0.70).

[32] The kappa was computed by using the arithmetic mean of all coders versus the researcher as suggested by Light (1971).
[33] The kappa was computed by using the arithmetic mean of all coders versus the researcher as suggested by Light (1971).

6.3.3 Implications for developing a course for postgraduate novice writers

The findings of the study also revealed that the general tendencies of the Turkish writers might be shaped by either potential writing courses (if there are any at the university at which they are studying) or via modelling the target language texts of previous writers (personal awareness and development). And then, level and style might match those of the native English writers (EL1). If the academic work of the Turkish writers of English (EL2) and the English L1 writers are investigated in detail from different perspectives and a course can be developed based on the results, there could be the option for postgraduate students to adopt the relevant target language practices and conventions into their piece of research writing. Nevertheless, as Lafuente-Millan (2008) suggested, based on self-mentions, it should be highlighted that a range of individual components and decisions can result in a distinctive tone of interpersonality in the academic discourse. Therefore, particular instruction programmes can be created for specific groups of novice writers.

As Biber et al (1998) pointed out, one of the major characteristics of a corpus approach to language studies is the fact that a large and principled collection of authentic texts is employed by the researcher in order to analyse all the patterns occurring with different frequencies. Including corpus/corpora in the teaching context would help both the teachers and learners in many ways. Osborne (2001) argues that the learners can become aware of the typical uses of linguistic items or patterns by looking at such principled collections of examples. From this perspective, corpus-informed teaching, the application of general or specialised corpora in classrooms (especially in language teaching, or specific classes such as academic writing), can provide insights to the learners with the help of authentic use of language in particular contexts and genres.

One of the best known applications of a specialised corpus in language teaching is ESP (English for Specific Purposes) classes, supported by suitable tools and

resources, such as teaching Business English or Medical English. The teacher of such classes can easily make use of corpora from specific fields and decide what to teach in the classroom (i.e. appropriate uses of the modal verb 'will', or discourse connectives in abstract writing) or design course materials to help learners. Alternatively, a more direct application of the corpus would be the user/learner-centered approach; and that might allow the learners to discover the rich resources of the authentic texts on their own to apply in their language use. This can also improve learner autonomy in language teaching classes by motivating the learners to search for and find appropriate uses of language items/patterns.

In order to create corpus-designed activities, different steps need to be followed. One of the most effective frameworks for creating such activities has been suggested by Bennett (2010), and includes seven main steps which can help teachers apply corpus to teaching environment. Although she mentioned that some of the steps might not take place or might be skipped, designing corpus-informed teaching activities with her framework in three major steps might be quite useful and helpful to teachers and students: Preparation, Application and Engagement. The preparation part of the framework includes a range of decision-making process:

1. 'Ask a research question' to set the aim of the designed activity;
2. 'Determine the register on which your students are focused' to decide the language used in a particular context with authentic language from real life;
3. 'Select a corpus appropriate for the register' to create or choose a corpus that can meet the outcome of the activity,

The second major step involves important steps for preparing the main activity with corpus resources:

4. 'Utilize a concordancing program for quantitative analysis' to be able to represent the linguistic inquiry within the corpus while answering your question;

5. ‘Engage in qualitative analysis’ to approach the information accessed via the corpus with a qualitative manner for a deeper understanding of the cases,

The last steps in Bennett’s framework focus on the most self-evident part of designing classroom activities that students can engage in and learn the target feature:

6. ‘Create exercises for students’ to present them in the classroom for their engagement with the language element;
7. ‘Engage students in a whole-language activity’ to give chances to students to acquire and practice the target feature.

Therefore, by integrating a corpus into a teaching context as an effective tool for teaching academic vocabulary, grammar, citation practices, an appropriate pedagogy for both L1 and L2 can be produced with the design of new teaching materials on the basis of corpora or corpus study findings, and an effective instructional development can be achieved with corpus-informed resources. Of course, it will be always possible to adjust the activities according to the level of students especially as regards L2 pedagogy and class proficiency level, and this can increase the chance of students accessing authentic materials and acquiring the target feature through the corpus.

Linking the findings of the present research to applications of the corpus in a teaching environment, the corpus used in the present study would be advantageous for novice writers and academic writing instructors from the selected contexts with the immediate accessibility to authentic forms (such as the use of modals, different lexical bundles or metadiscourse signals) in the discussion sections when the corpus is publicly available. Although it was mentioned previously that such an approach was beyond the scope of this study, it is still possible to evaluate the occurrences and uses of the target language to highlight corrections or common mistakes in second language writing by looking at the texts written by the interlanguage users (Turkish writers of English).

Alternatively, it is possible to make use of learner and experienced writer corpora in teaching academic writing classes to exemplify authentic uses of linguistic choices and strategies that are anticipated from the novice writers. As the technology develops and the facilities improve, it becomes much easier to access electronic sample texts for a particular genre. In order to make the novice writers more aware of the writing conventions in their disciplines, it is important to provide them with the standards of the style(s) they can employ in their dissertations by modelling from previous successful dissertations completed in the department of that university, or in their field. This will essentially raise their awareness on the appropriate linguistic resources they can make use of and are derived from real-life examples produced with the same aim (writing a dissertation). Hyland (2010) suggests that such metadiscoursal analysis will help student writers to achieve ‘‘disciplinary-sensitive writing practices’’ (p. 141). By doing so, the institutions can create their own writing conventions and those expected of postgraduate writers would become more explicit, rather than leaving novice writers to produce writing that is often not at the desired level. Providing postgraduate writers with actual examples from successfully completed dissertations can contribute to their developmental writing process, especially non-native writers of English. Therefore, the academic writing centers or institutions can usefully implement small corpus studies to let their students benefit from what is expected from them, by looking at the previous dissertations.

6.4 Limitations of the study and suggestions for future studies

6.4.1 The need for more research in the Turkish context

To the best of my knowledge, not much research has been done on Turkish academic discourse, especially on postgraduate writers of Turkish (TL1 and Turkish writers of English). This study can be seen as an initial attempt to light on how Turkish L1 postgraduates and Turkish writers of English postgraduates create academic stance and

voice as far as commitment-detachment and authorial presence are concerned. Nevertheless, it should be emphasised that the larger the size of the analysed texts, the more significant and consistent patterns of use are likely to be. That would enable researchers or teachers to decide which choices are being made consistently in postgraduate writing. Therefore, the number of dissertations could easily be increased in future studies if the aim is to focus on discussion sections of this genre. Alternatively, other parts of the dissertations could also contribute to the identification of patterns/linguistic choices by postgraduates, and a cross-sectional analysis could be carried out with a comparative examination, across different writer groups. Based on the fact that the analyses throughout the present study were restricted to the writing of postgraduate writers completing their masters in the Social Sciences, a modest level of caution in interpreting the results is needed, as other disciplines and doctoratal students as postgraduates have not been addressed here.

6.4.2 Including different variables and linguistic resources

It should be stressed that there are other variables and linguistic resources contributing to the presentation of propositions in written academic discourse, as the literature suggests (see Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010). Nevertheless, the present study attempted to investigate two crucial interpersonal concepts: signalling the degree of certainty/doubt and representing the authorial self within written discourse. It is recommended that other types of interpersonal phenomenon be investigated, in order that the negotiation of meaning and academic norms relating to different academic writing conventions is explored comparatively. Hence, it is worth carrying out more research in modelling postgraduate academic writing and finding possible influences on the negotiation of knowledge by postgraduate writers. This can definitely help the novice writers in the specific disciplines such future research could focus on.

For future research, it would be crucial to include Turkish writers of English (L2) who studied their masters in the UK or any other English speaking country and produced a dissertation, in order to investigate whether the educational contexts have any effect on the use of linguistic resources that contribute to the interpersonal relations signalled by Turkish postgraduates (EL2). This would introduce another variable into the research, the educational context, to identify different or similar uses of such resources, as suggested by Li and Wharton (2012). However, based on my personal experience in the UK, it should be underlined that non-native speakers of English (EL2) are encouraged to get help from a proof-reader to check the language, grammar, and style used in their texts, and it is common to have academic work proofread before submitting it to the examiners. As the submitted work will retain traces of the proof-reader, the texts will not fully represent the writing of the postgraduates. That was the reason why the texts from Turkish writers of English (L2) who studied in the UK were not collected. Nevertheless, had the possibility existed (due to lack of Turkish contacts in the UK, whose texts would be collected), the postgraduates might have been asked for the previous versions of their dissertations, or just the discussion sections to be included in the research, which could have reduced the potential influence of the proof readers on their academic work.

6.4.3 Compiling the list of linguistic items under investigation

I would argue that the linguistic resources that are being investigated in any corpus study should be compiled from the samples of that particular corpus instead of using a list of items already in the literature. There is always a need to go through all the cases while carrying out a concordance analysis, so that the researcher can decide whether the linguistic resource in a specific case functions as hoped/looked for, even if the list is compiled from other studies. Using a list compiled from other corpus studies, to look at a particular phenomenon in another context or genre, might not work. That is because

the linguistic resources can be very dependent on the context and profiles of the participants, as well as the genre. As the present study compiled linguistic resources during the pilot study, via Nvivo, and that list was used in the main analyses of the whole corpus, I would suggest future researchers carry out a small (pilot) study of the linguistic realisations in randomly selected samples from the main corpus.

I would also admit that it could have been better if I had had a chance to explore some patterns of uses as bundles across all texts (e.g., *it is clear that, it might be claimed that*); however, the software would not show all the cases if the bundles listed for search were not exactly the same across texts (e.g., *it is clear that* vs. *it is crystal clear that,* the extra word in the latter one would have been missed if I had used *it is clear that* in the search list). Therefore, I aimed at single resources in my pilot study and looked at some of the prevalent bundles in the corpus when possible.

6.4.4 Investigating the texts written by the same postgraduates

The analysi would have been much more effective if the Turkish L1 discussion sections and English L2 discussion sections had been produced by the same individuals. However, this is an unrealistic expectation. This could have enabled the attributions of the differences and similarities to be more evident. Nevertheless, it is strongly recommended that in order to establish the effect of language and/or culture on the Turkish postgraduate writers in the way described above, it would have been better to have included only the abstracts of the dissertations as a distinctive genre, as each individual dissertation submitted to the National Thesis Centre in Turkey includes both Turkish and English abstracts written by the same postgraduates. The Turkish L1 and English L2 data could then have consisted of more individual writers (i.e. more than the 30 writers per group in the present study) as the abstracts were shorter (between 85-825 words as indicated by Akbas, 2012b) than other parts of the dissertations, and a larger sample size would have helped the researcher to generalise better.

6.4.5 Comparing different levels of postgraduate academic writing with the current focus of the research

There are several other suggestions which can be taken from this study to explore further the presentation of scientific knowledge in Turkish academic discourse. The method and aim adopted in the present study could be used to extend our understanding and knowledge of how such linguistic signals are achieved in doctorate academic writing, as it can be assumed that the level of expertise of doctorate postgraduates in writing is higher than that of masters' postgraduates. It would also be practical to include and examine professional academic texts to see how expertise (at least compared with postgraduate academic writing) affects the tone of academic researchers in accomplishing commitment-detachment and authorial visibility (or other rhetorical features) in a different genre (such as research articles, book reviews, book or book sections,) and whether this might vary across groups (L1 Turkish, L1 English and L2 of English) as it did in the present study. The results of such comparative studies can always be compared and contrasted with the findings of present research to hypothesise about Turkish academic discourse and the tendencies of Turkish authors. Nevertheless, it must be emphasised that no matter how complementary or contradictory results are found, research essentially needs attention to be paid to a range of variables (e.g., the aim and length of the texts, the status of the writers, and the genre) to further explore the characteristics of any particular writer groups. To this end, as mentioned in Section 3.3 and suggested by some researchers (e.g., Chesterman, 1998; Crismore & Abdollehzadeh, 2010; Moreno, 2008), the data used in the analysis should be comparable in terms of as many features as possible. This was accomplished in the present research and the comparability of the corpus was thereby increased.

It would be interesting to set up a similar study to explore the effect of language and culture to see how important they are in determining and identifying the use of

interactional metadiscourse resources in the academic writing of PhD students. If the differences or similarities across postgraduate writers at PhD level from the same contexts as the present study were then compared and contrasted with the findings of the present study, the parameter of experience (Master's vs PhD) might gain more importance in explaining how the postgraduates build their stance and voice across dissertation and thesis writing. A further cross-disciplinary study would also shed light on the distinctive conventions across different disciplines. This could also have significant pedagogical implications in dissertation/thesis writing for specific postgraduate academic communities, to show what is acceptable and anticipated in a particular discipline.

6.4.6 Inclusion of interviews in corpus studies

A series of structured or semi-structured interviews would be quite crucial to determine the personal views of the randomly selected postgraduate academic writers from the selected contexts on how they build their stance and voice in their dissertations. This might help establish the real motives and influences behind the rhetorical choices postgraduate writers make, apart from those relating to pre-determined variables such as culture, language, genre, gender, and educational context. More specifically, by carrying out such interviews, one could draw attention to the perceptions of postgraduates towards signalling certainty/doubt to influence the inferences of the readers, or representing the authorial self in their texts to accomplish various/different authorial roles.

Vladimirou (2014) suggests that ethnographically-oriented approaches, supported with interviews to explore the writing practices of different author groups, can help researchers gain a better understanding of the choices made. This can be of a great importance in building a more comprehensive characterisation of Turkish postgraduate and experienced writers.

Unfortunately, as it was beyond the scope of the present study, such interviews were not carried out; in addition, it was not possible to contact most of the postgraduate writers whose dissertations were included in the study, as no contact details were present anywhere in the texts. It was also felt that it could be quite hard to carry out an interview with writers who had completed their dissertations a few years back as remembering the decisions and/or choices made would be hard. Keeping that in mind, for future research, it could be suggested that only postgraduates who have recently completed their dissertations, or are at the last stage of completing them, would be invited to take part in such a qualitative research design.

6.5 Concluding remarks

The quantitative findings of the research regarding commitment-detachment and authorial presence were greatly enhanced by the qualitative focus on postgraduate academic discourse enabling me to see variation or similarities across the groups from another perspective. In other words, a corpus-informed discourse analysis perspective assisted me to extract enriched data representing the conscious choices of the postgraduates in their discussion sections. In line with Hyland (2009), the discoursal features of linguistic items and their functions in particular contexts were revealed with the help of a corpus linguistic approach; for example, the authorial roles that the postgraduates took in their discussion sections were solely based on the in-depth qualitative discourse analysis, to see what personal and impersonal constructions were achieved in the discourse.

Despite the very rare inclusion of texts from inexperienced writers in similar studies, most of the studies looking at academic writing include experienced writers' texts to reveal the features found and accepted in that particular academic discourse community. The main reason for this would seem to be to guide novice researchers

entering a field, who need to write research articles, books or academic book reviews. However, I felt that the features of novice texts are also of great importance, due to the fact that these novice writers are likely to become the experienced writers of the future, and how they start 'stepping into' the academic community may well affect how they write when they become more experienced. Therefore, the findings of the study can best contribute to academic writing classes/centres (either existing ones, or the ones that will be founded in the future) mostly in Turkey or at institutions in other countries which accept Turkish postgraduates.

In the light of the present research findings, there is enough evidence to conclude that the rhetorical positioning regarding stance and voice tended to differ across the different postgraduate profiles as reported in Chapters 4 and 5. The rhetorical similarities across and differences between Turkish L1 (TL1) writers, Turkish writers of English (EL2) and English L1 (EL1) writers were evaluated based on two pre-determined variables to differentiate postgraduate profiles from one another: language and culture. A range of potentially relevant variables such as gender, institution, or level of proficiency were left out of the scope. The two statistical tests (across all groups and between groups of language/culture pairs) performed during the data analysis enabled me to rely on more robust evidence than that obtainable looking at the raw frequencies. When the research evidence is reviewed broadly, the hypotheses that can be drawn from the present exploratory and empirical research are:

- Turkish L1 postgraduate writers build a much more impersonal academic prose, with a highly commited tone, and sound less tentative in making knowledge claims. To put it another way, the TL1 texts included significantly more impersonal style, supported with some author visibility (via we-based pronouns) and propositions asserted confidently, which seemed to limit alternative views.

- Turkish writers of English (EL2) adapt target language conventions to some extent by employing more hedges than boosters, to sound less certain, and utilising personal authorial references to signal their presence in their texts. Nevertheless the impersonal style of accomplishing authorial roles is still apparent and can potentially be one of the most obvious transferred academic structures from the L1, thereby confirming a weaker version of Kaplan's contrastive rhetoric claim.
- English L1 postgraduate writers provide a more personal voice on their academic writing and become visible more frequently. Regarding building their stance towards knowledge claims, native writers of English tend to reduce their level of commitment and create a more tentative interactive tenor in their texts.

However, it should be stressed that all of the groups employed harmonious combinations of the relevant phenomena. In other words, all the strategies or linguistic resources (hedges, boosters, personal or impersonal authorial references) occurred in every sample representing a broader novice academic community (e.g., Turkish L1 postgraduates in the Social Sciences in Turkey) but differed as regards the proportions of such resources. The differing patterns could be interpreted as indicating the tendencies and preferences of the three postgraduate groups concerning commitment-detachment and authorial presence.

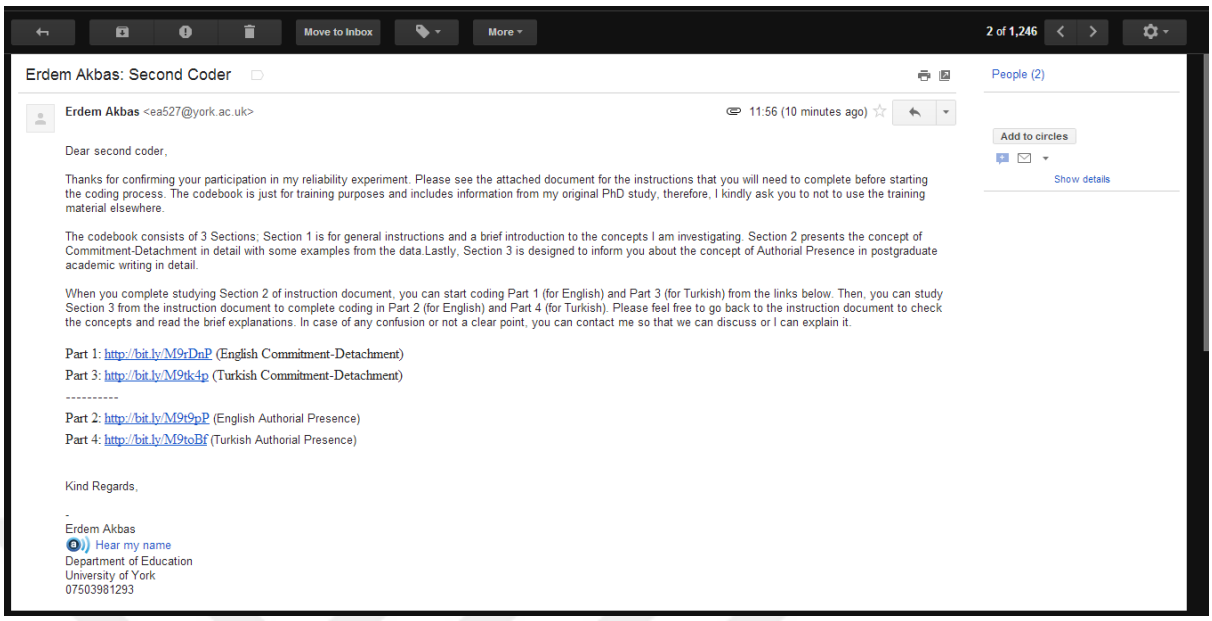
The categorisation model of commitment-detachment, which involved looking at linguistic resources such as boosters and hedges, could also be used in identifying different levels of certainty and doubt in experienced researchers' academic writing and different academic genres. The discourse roles identified and defined by analysing the contexts of personal and impersonal constructions could be also extended to look at the other parts of master's dissertations. It should be noted that a special focus is needed on what coexist with the explicit or implicit authorial reference as indications of actions (e.g., *I analyse, we claim, it is suggested*), to differentiate the authorial roles in

postgraduate or experienced academic writing. That is because ‘‘the notion of identity, [however], may also directly invoke specific author roles, when an *I* or *we*-pronoun co-occurs with the meaning of verbs and co-text’’ (Tessuto, 2008, p.49).

In conclusion, the postgraduates from the three different contexts differed in terms of signalling their certainty/doubt towards their propositions and building their authorial voice, via different frequencies. The potential effects of culture and language over such rhetorical decisions were found to be highly relevant in postgraduate academic writing. The preferences of Turkish writers of English for qualifying their commitment and creating a impersonal positioning, like their culturally-identical peers (TL1), could be an indication of a tendency to create a more culture-specific discourse. Nevertheless, there was enough evidence to indicate that the interlanguage users had mixed local rhetorical tendencies with Anglophone rhetorical practices, based on what was observed in the EL2 and EL1 texts. It is hoped that the differences and similarities obtained from the current analyses can ultimately be used to help future postgraduate writers improve their style of arguing. A clear awareness of such interpersonal strategies will help novice academic writers develop and adapt an academic stance and voice at their early academic career.

Appendices

Appendix 1 Invitation to the second coders



Move to Inbox | More | 2 of 1,246

Erdem Akbas: Second Coder

Erdem Akbas <ea527@york.ac.uk> 11:56 (10 minutes ago)

Dear second coder,

Thanks for confirming your participation in my reliability experiment. Please see the attached document for the instructions that you will need to complete before starting the coding process. The codebook is just for training purposes and includes information from my original PhD study, therefore, I kindly ask you to not to use the training material elsewhere.

The codebook consists of 3 Sections; Section 1 is for general instructions and a brief introduction to the concepts I am investigating. Section 2 presents the concept of Commitment-Detachment in detail with some examples from the data.Lastly, Section 3 is designed to inform you about the concept of Authorial Presence in postgraduate academic writing in detail.

When you complete studying Section 2 of instruction document, you can start coding Part 1 (for English) and Part 3 (for Turkish) from the links below. Then, you can study Section 3 from the instruction document to complete coding in Part 2 (for English) and Part 4 (for Turkish). Please feel free to go back to the instruction document to check the concepts and read the brief explanations. In case of any confusion or not a clear point, you can contact me so that we can discuss or I can explain it.

Part 1: http://bit.ly/M9rDnP (English Commitment-Detachment)
Part 3: http://bit.ly/M9tk4p (Turkish Commitment-Detachment)

Part 2: http://bit.ly/M9t9pP (English Authorial Presence)
Part 4: http://bit.ly/M9toBf (Turkish Authorial Presence)

Kind Regards,

-
Erdem Akbas
Hear my name
Department of Education
University of York
07503981293

People (2)
Add to circles
Show details

Appendix 2 The codebook for the intercoder reliabilty test

1. Instructions

Dear second coder,

Thanks for accepting to participate in the intercoder reliability experiment for my PhD research. I designed an exploratory research study in which I had been looking at two important phenomena of academic writing in the postgraduate academic writing: (a) Commitment-Detachment and (b) Authorial Presence. Your identity will remain anonymous within my study. My main aim is to compare your coding answers with other second coders along with my own coding so that I can see how relevant and consistent my coding system in my PhD study to explore the phenomena mentioned above across different postgraduate groups. The extracts presented to you from the corpus of my actual research will not be too long for your consideration; therefore you can expect to spend approximately 45-60 minutes to complete all the parts (1-4). However, you need to study the instruction document for a better understanding of how I differentiated the concepts and coding experience.

The postgraduate writers included in the study are Turkish L1 writers (TL1), Turkish writers of English (EL2), and English L1 writers (EL1). You will be provided authentic extracts below from the corpus of the study. The corpus of the study consists of only the discussion sections of the masters' dissertations of these postgraduate groups. I kindly ask you to identify any linguistic resource/strategy that you think it possibly displays:

(a) certainty or doubt towards their propositions contributing Commitment-Detachment in postgraduate writing . Such expressions mostly result in a highly assertive (1) or tentative (2) tone of academic writing to knowledge claims presented as in the following examples:

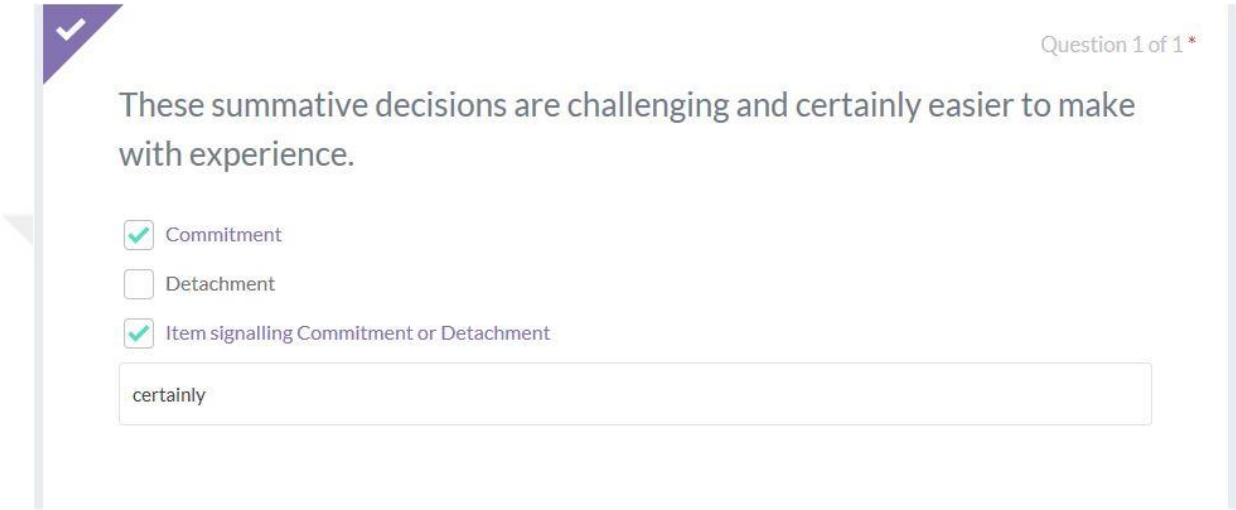
(1) The study results **demonstrated** that international students who have low acculturative stress, low perceived cultural distance and high use of positive coping skills.
(2) This model **may also provide** a platform on which existing theories and computational models of language evolution can be evaluated

(b) the authorial presence of postgraduate writers either explicitly or implicitly. The use of personal (3) and impersonal (4) constructions help postgraduate writers display/downgrade their authorial presence as in the following examples:

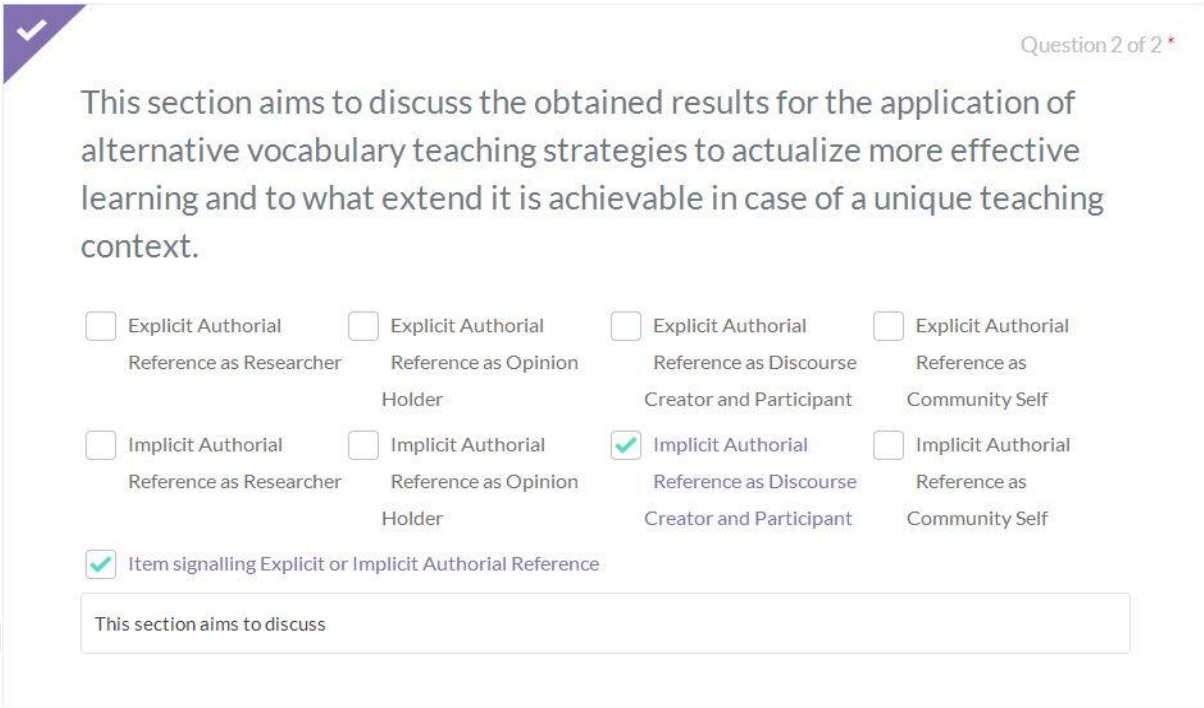
(3) Therefore **I conclude** that inclusion of this qualitative element made a beneficial and significant contribution towards answering the research question.
(4) **This study attempted to simulate** very simplistic models of language contact situations in groups of artificial agents

If you are speaking both languages (Turkish and English), please complete 4 parts. Otherwise, please complete only 1-2 for English extracts or only 3-4 for Turkish extracts..

During your coding, for Part 1 and 3 (Commitment-Detachment), please select either Commitment or Detachment based on the effect that the linguistic resources (boosters for commitment and hedges for detachment effect) signal. This requires your judgement about the indicators of certainty or doubt, confidence or tentativeness and so on within the sample extracts (The concepts will be introduced in detail in Section2 of this document). And then, you are supposed to be selecting the last option for every answer to write down the expression(s) whichever you feel appropriate in indicating either Commitment or Detachment towards the proposition as in the following example:



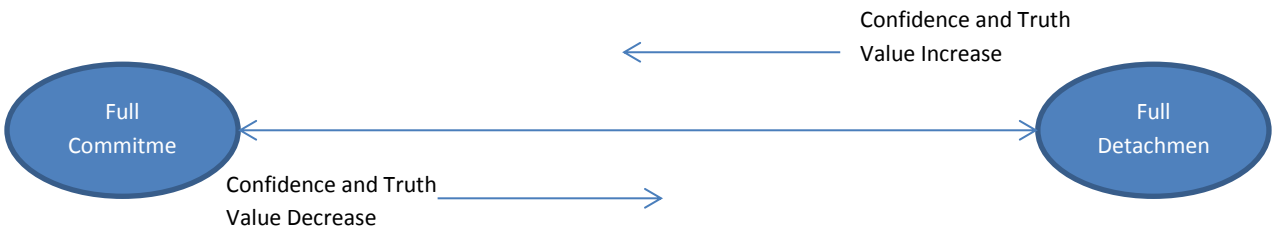
For Part 2 and 4 (Authorial Presence), please select either Explicit Authorial Reference (I and we-based pronouns in combination with particular verbs) or Implicit Authorial Reference (passive voice or inanimate objects in combination with particular verbs) that indicate the action (to be) completed by the postgraduate writer within the dissertation. However, it should be noted that during my analysis, I assigned different roles to the personal or impersonal occurrences signalling authorial presence: Research Conductor, Opinion Holder, Discourse Creator and Participant, Community Self (These roles will be explained in Section 3 of this document). After you decide whether it is explicit or implicit authorial reference with an assigned role to them, you are supposed to be selecting the last option for every answer to write down the expression(s) (i.e. personal pronoun) whichever you feel appropriate in indicating either Explicit or Implicit Authorial Reference as in the following example:



You can now complete studying Section 2 and Section 3 of this document to have a deeper understanding of Commitment-Detachment and Authorial Presence in postgraduate academic writing. In addition, you will be provided some linguistic items to illustrate the phenomena under investigation.

2. Closer look to the linguistic items signalling Commitment and Detachment in postgraduate academic writing

It should be noted that all the interpretations over how certain or doubtful the writer might be are based on the explicit markers the propositions, otherwise it would not have been possible to find out the signalled truth assessment of the writer towards what is asserted. It could be argued that the propositions with a degree of detachment would still have the commitment level of the writer however the main aim of the writer has been considered to be decreasing and withholding the commitment level rather than fully committing him/herself to the proposition. Therefore, the categorisation simply attempted to distinguish whether writer commits towards or detaches from the propositions. The figure below illustrates the cline between Full Commitment and Full Detachment:



Regarding the commitment-detachment in academic texts of postgraduate writers, please consider the following brief explanation:

The propositional meaning can be formulated with different degrees of strength, ranging from very weak, tentative statements to very strong, assertive statements. Hedge is generally associated with avoidance of personal commitment. Di Marco and Mercer (2004) define hedging as ‘‘the process whereby the author reduces the strength of what he is writing’’. The examples to hedging resources contributing to detachment could be *may, might, possibly, suggest, tend to*, and so on. According to Hyland (2009b), *boosters* (e.g., *definitely, I am sure that, we firmly believe…*) create an impression of certainty, conviction and assurance, and they can be used to instill trust and confidence in academic texts. Such linguistic items help the writer increase his level of commitment over the propositions or decrease it towards detachment level.

2.1 Classification of items signalling Commitment

The linguistic resources are considered and classified to be signalling a *committed* tone of writing (Commitment) in the cases when

- The author presents ‘‘assured and reinforced’’ information for the sake of ‘‘confident voice of authority’’;
- The author underlines ‘‘his level of certainty as high as close to absolute’’ resulting in ‘‘authoritative nature over his claims, findings, study and so on’’;
- The author wants to make his/her perspective prominent within the discourse to appeal reader’s attention;
- The author wants the intended audience to accept what is asserted as ‘‘taken for granted’’ based on the assessment of the producer as the responsibility of the knowledge has been taken over by him/her;
- The author expresses and reinforces ‘‘the truth value of a proposition’’ in order to close down all the possible consideration for reader’s sake;
- The author barely express ‘‘assertions and definite propositions’’ without any signal of doubt or hesitancy.

Some of the linguistic resources indicating the certainty and confidence of the writers and resulting in commitment in the academic of postgraduates could be illustrated as *definitely, in fact, certainly, of course, it is clear that, will, must, show, find, reveal,* and similar boosters or boosted constructions.

2.2 Classification of items signalling Detachment

The linguistic items are considered and classified to be signalling a *detached* tone of writing (Detachment) in the cases when

- The author presents ‘‘his opinions rather than factual information’’ by informing the reader that the knowledge claim includes a further explicit invitation to evaluate before accepted or rejected due to lack of certainty;
- The author simply signals complete or little doubt and hesitancy over the content in order to let the reader judge what is presented;
- The author wants to produce vague claims about the outcome of the study to avoid rigid descriptions or committing themselves to precise figures;

- The author is unable to generalise the claims for all contexts as the outcomes or reasons are based on a specific context but allows reader to get familiarised with the probable/possible truth nature of the claim;
- The author opens up other possibilities and voices for the reader's consideration in terms of a dialogical expansion by softening the actual propositions;
- The author avoids definitive knowledge claims in order to reduce the risk of getting criticised;
- The author wants to be inconclusive to let reader consider what is given.

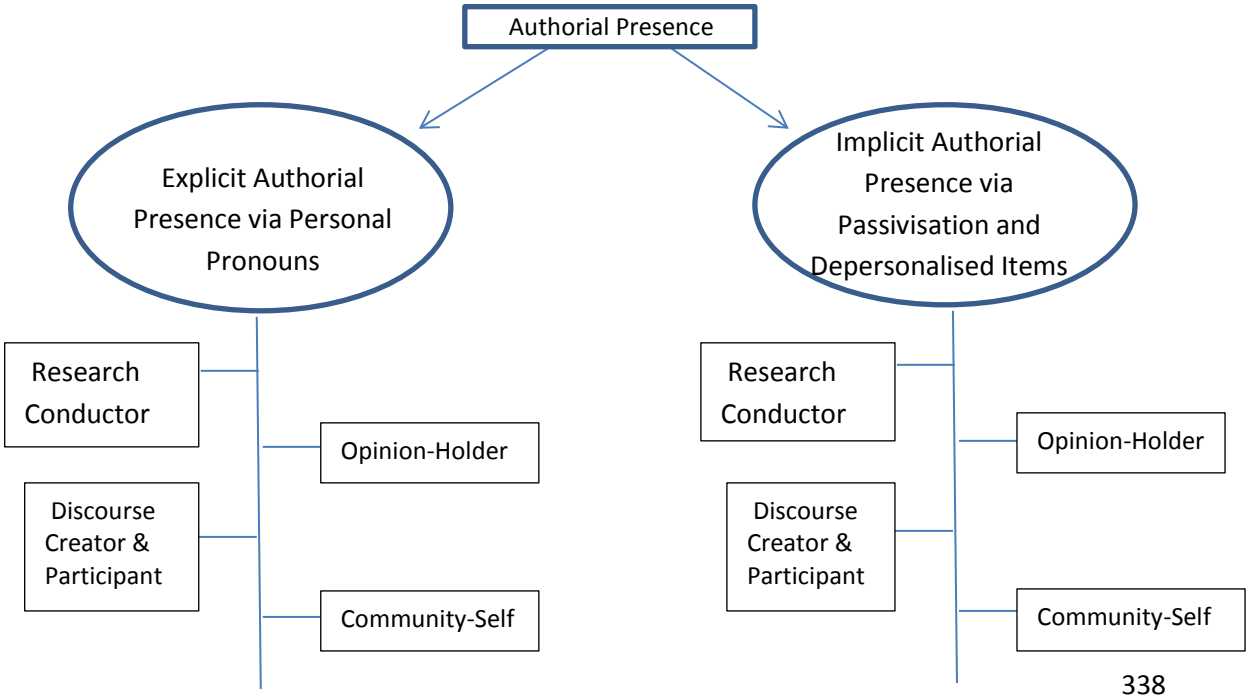
Some of the linguistic resources indicating the doubt, vagueness, tentativeness or uncertainty of the writers and resulting in detachment in the academic of postgraduates could be illustrated as *may, might, can, possibly, perhaps, it is possible that, suggest, imply*, and similar hedges or hedged constructions.

You are kindly asked to complete Part 1 for items signalling Commitment-Detachment in English L1 and L2 texts and Part 3 for items signalling Commitment-Detachment in Turkish L1 texts.

3. Closer look to the linguistic items signalling Authorial Presence in postgraduate academic writing

Regarding the authorial presence in academic texts of postgraduate writers, please consider the following explanation.

Emphasising or deemphasising authorial presence on the text is of a great importance in terms of how the writers align themselves to be seen while presenting the encoded information (ideas, arguments, facts and so on) to the intended audience. This could be represented in academic texts via personal or impersonal constructions to appeal reader's attention for promotional purposes such as novelty of the opinion, research or the methodological consideration.



As the figure above represents, the authorial presence in postgraduate academic writing is considered to be two-folded. As Hyland (2002) points out, the use of self-mentions is not only helping writers to construct the text but also rhetorical self. Not only does the use of personal pronouns such as *I* or *we*-based pronouns (see example 5) but also the use of impersonal constructions (see example 6) help authors build their authorial presence across their texts. In other words, apart from the explicit effect of personal pronouns, constructing a rhetorical self is also possible by employing impersonal features disguising the voice of the author into element-prominent (such as data, results, study, actual idea or argument) and foregrounded academic communication.

(5) **I** designed this case study and explored teachers' attitudes and behaviours towards research at the DBE at (METU)
(6) The first questionnaire **was designed** to get information about the students' reading skills and Internet use.

The presence of the author is explicitly signalled via the use I in (5) whereas the author intentionally disguised his/her authorial presence in (6) and employed a passive structure that still implied the action was accomplished by the author. In other words, although the authorial presence in (5) was considered as an explicit authorial reference, the other one seemed to be an implicit authorial reference without making it as clear as in the first one. Additionally, both of the postgraduate writers took over the role of Research Conductor in the examples above as the action (design) was a research process verb compared to the combination of authorial reference and discourse verb (discuss) below (Discourse Creator):

(7) **We have discussed** the importance of neuropsychological research in our understanding of schizophrenia by relating neural dysfunction and abnormal behaviour

This made the researcher explore and differentiate the occurrences of authorial references across postgraduate texts by looking at the type of action and roles accomplished by the text owner: (a) Research Conductor; (b) Opinion-Holder; (c) Discourse Creator & Participant; (d) Community-Self. The brief introduction of these roles below will make it easier to separate the occurrences.

3.1.Research Conductor

The occurrences were treated as signalling the role of *Research Conductor* with personal pronouns where the author is prominent or with impersonal constructions via passivisation or depersonalised (element-prominent constructions where the subject of the sentence is replaced by entities that are non-human such as *findings, chapter, results, data* and so on) forms and when:

- The author mentions ''research process and procedures'' such as how the data is collected, analysed and so on
- The author mentions ''research aim, focus, expectations; identification of new items''

- The author mentions ‘‘comparisons of data and results; predicting cases to lead a conclusion; outcome of the study’’
- The author mentions ‘‘research-based struggles and limitations; data exclusion or inclusion’’

As previously mentioned, the examples (5) and (6) could be considered as explicit and implicit authorial references to accomplish the role of Research Conductor by the postgraduates.

3.2.Opinion-Holder

The role of Opinion-Holder has been assigned to occurrences with personal and impersonal constructions when:

- The author presents ‘‘an explanation for a consequence’’
- The author presents ‘‘his belief and thoughts; inference; claim and suggestions, assumption, disagreement or approval of the idea’’
- The author presents ‘‘proposes or hypothesise an idea or theory based on the research’’
- The author ‘‘implies or indicates opinions from/based on data, findings or analysis and elaborates an argument’’.

The examples below illustrate how postgraduate writers rhetorically appeared as Opinion-Holder with personal pronouns followed by a position/opinion verb (8) or impersonal constructions hiding the explicit presence of the writer but indicating the role with verbs included (9):

(8) **I suggest** that the reasons for this are that these dyads had established a successful method of constructing tangrams without the need for dialogue.

(9) When the internal reasons which have been dealt with so far are taken into consideration, **it can be argued** that intrinsic motivation plays an important role in success.

3.3.Discourse Creator and Participant

Some of the personal and impersonal constructions were grouped and assigned to the role of Discourse Creator and Participant within the discourse of postgraduates when:

- The author ‘‘announces what is included in the present discourse section or directs readers to other parts of the section to remind what has been/will be achieved’’
- The author ‘‘shifts the topic to move on another argument or illustration’’ in order to attract reader’s attention for the forthcoming shift.
- The author simply ‘‘illustrates examples of the mentioned phenomenon; lists items or categorises; defines terms’’ for better organisation of the discourse and links between what is known and not known.

- The author mentions ‘‘his/her presence and the intended audience’’ in the text by pointing the on-going discourse or the things that they might share (see example 11 below)

The combination of explicit linguistic resources (i.e. I, we) and the discourse verbs (as in (7) and (11)) as well as impersonalised constructions (10) with such discourse verbs below illustrates the rhetorical role of Discourse Creator and Participant taken over by the postgraduate writers:

(10) **These arguments and findings can be summarized** in two points which are intrinsically related to each other.
(11) As **we have seen**, training and professional development has not been as widespread or as deep as many teachers and researchers would like.

3.4.Community-Self

The role of Community-Self has been appointed to the instances of personal inclusion or exclusion combined with verbs stating the overall contribution to the literature/discourse community or recommending for other people interested in the research. In other words, the rhetorical role was taken over when:

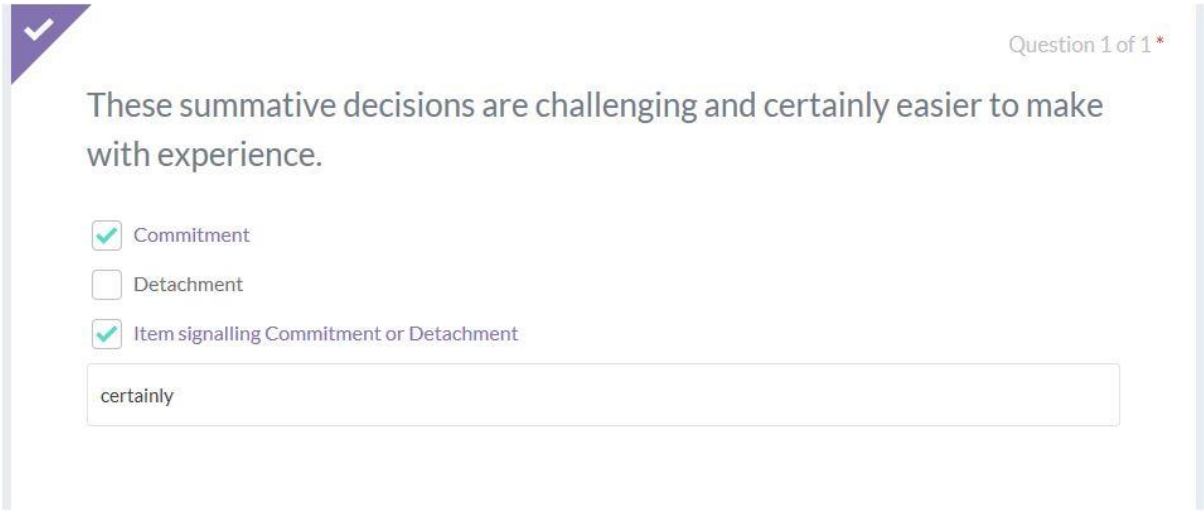
- The author explicitly ‘‘remarks his contribution to the discourse community with the research aim/focus attempted and its outcomes’’
- The author ‘‘recommends suggestions for further prospective studies that can be carried out by providing the potential gaps and drawbacks of his/her own study’’
- The author remarks ‘his/her presence in the discourse community as an individual such as a teacher, researcher, sociologist, historian and so on.

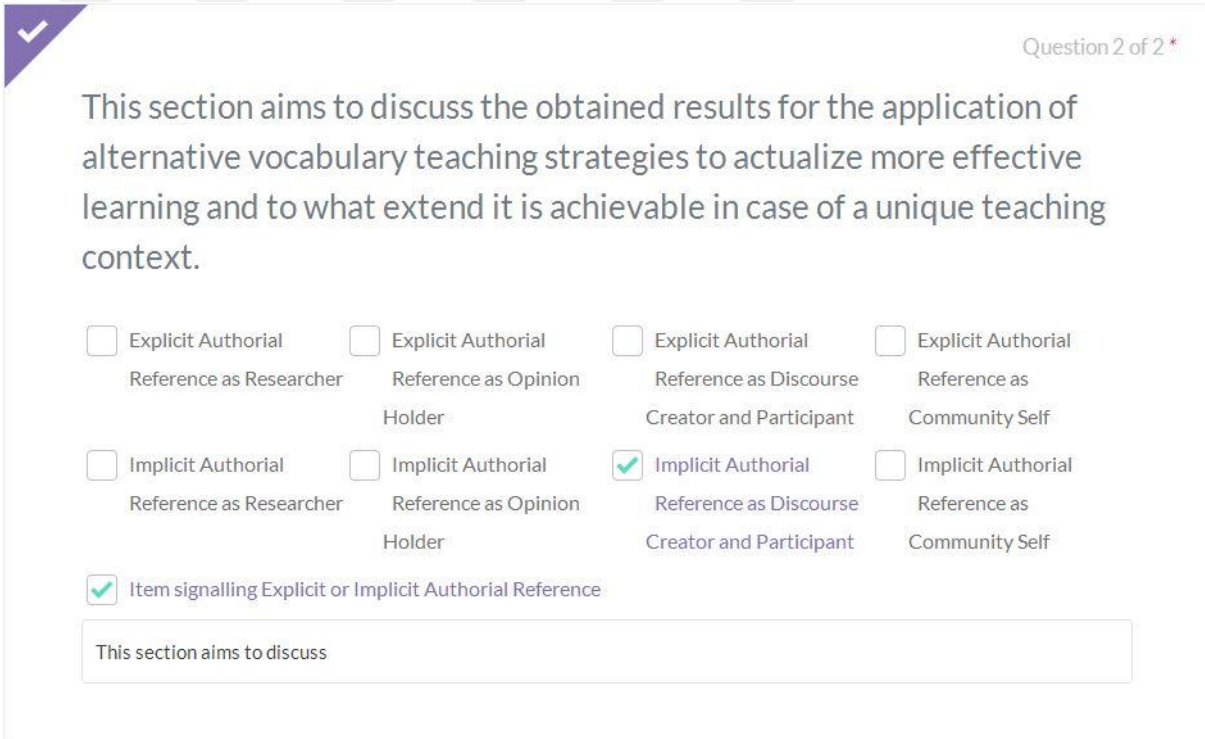
(12) For future studies, **it is recommended** that the father daughter relationship, mother daughter relationship and the concert of the family is examined together to analyse the well-being of daughters with more determinants.
(13) **The present study contributes** to research on volunteer bias across different measures, all of which are non-invasive and do not involve very sensitive information.

You are now kindly asked to complete Part 2 for items signalling Explicit or Implicit Authorial Presence in English L1 and L2 texts and Part 4 for items signalling Explicit or Implicit Authorial Presence in Turkish L1 texts.

This is the end of the instruction for the identification of linguistic resources signalling Commitment-Detachment and Authorial Presence in postgraduate academic writing. Please feel free to go back and check the instructions again when it is necessary and while you are analysing the samples from the corpus of the study. You are welcome to get back to the researcher when there is confusion or something that is not clear. It should be noted that there is no right or wrong options as I aim to find out how consistent my coding system and analytical framework are.

Appendix 3 The online coding regarding commitment-detachment and authorial presence completed by the second coders





Appendix 4 Interreliability test between Coder 1 and the researcher regarding commitment-detachment

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder1 * Researcher	100	100.0%	0	0.0%	100	100.0%

Coder1 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher		Total
		Commitment	Detachment	
Coder1	Commitment	37	8	45
	Detachment	5	50	55
Total		42	58	100

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.736	.068	7.371	.000
N of Valid Cases		100			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 5 Interreliability test between Coder 2 and the researcher regarding commitment-detachment

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder2 * Researcher	150	100.0%	0	0.0%	150	100.0%

Coder2 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher		Total
		Commitment	Detachment	
Coder2	Commitment	59	4	63
	Detachment	11	76	87
Total		70	80	150

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.798	.049	9.815	.000
N of Valid Cases		150			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 6 Interreliability test between Coder 3 and the researcher regarding commitment-detachment

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder3 * Researcher	150	100.0%	0	0.0%	150	100.0%

Coder3 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher		Total
		Commitment	Detachment	
Coder3	Commitment	67	4	71
	Detachment	3	76	79
Total		70	80	150

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.906	.035	11.101	.000
N of Valid Cases		150			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 7 Interreliability test between Coder 4 and the researcher regarding commitment-detachment

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder4 * Researcher	150	100.0%	0	0.0%	150	100.0%

Coder4 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher		Total
		Commitment	Detachment	
Coder4	Commitment	66	10	76
	Detachment	4	70	74
Total		70	80	150

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.813	.047	9.995	.000
N of Valid Cases		150			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 8 Interreliability test between Coder 5 and the researcher regarding commitment-detachment

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder5 * Researcher	150	100.0%	0	0.0%	150	100.0%

Coder5 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher		Total
		Commitment	Detachment	
Coder5	Commitment	65	4	69
	Detachment	5	76	81
Total		70	80	150

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.879	.039	10.771	.000
N of Valid Cases		150			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 9 Interreliability test between Coder 1 and the researcher regarding authorial presence

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder1 * Researcher	100	100.0%	0	0.0%	100	100.0%

Coder1 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher								Total
		ExplicitResearchConductor	ExplicitOpinionHolder	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ExplicitCommunitySelf	ImplicitResearchConductor	ImplicitOpinionHolder	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ImplicitCommunitySelf	
Coder1	ExplicitResearchConductor	17	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	19
	ExplicitOpinionHolder	2	9	1	0	0	0	0	0	12
	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	0	0	13	0	0	0	0	0	13
	ExplicitCommunitySelf	0	0	1	4	0	0	0	0	5
	ImplicitResearchConductor	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
	ImplicitOpinionHolder	0	0	1	0	1	15	1	1	19
	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	0	0	0	0	1	1	17	0	19
	ImplicitCommunitySelf	0	0	0	0	1	2	0	8	11
Total		19	9	17	5	5	18	18	9	100

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.823	.042	19.911	.000
N of Valid Cases		100			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 10 Interreliability test between Coder 2 and the researcher regarding authorial presence

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder2 * Researcher	150	100.0%	0	0.0%	150	100.0%

Coder2 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher								Total
		ExplicitResearchConductor	ExplicitOpinionHolder	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ExplicitCommunitySelf	ImplicitResearchConductor	ImplicitOpinionHolder	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ImplicitCommunitySelf	
Coder2	ExplicitResearchConductor	21	0	4	1	0	0	0	0	26
	ExplicitOpinionHolder	0	10	1	0	0	0	0	0	11
	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	3	1	17	1	0	0	0	0	22
	ExplicitCommunitySelf	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3
	ImplicitResearchConductor	0	0	0	0	20	0	1	1	22
	ImplicitOpinionHolder	0	0	0	0	1	21	3	0	25
	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	0	0	0	0	3	2	24	0	29
	ImplicitCommunitySelf	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	9	12
Total		25	11	22	5	24	25	28	10	150

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.804	.036	23.852	.000
N of Valid Cases		150			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 11 Interreliability test between Coder 3 and the researcher regarding authorial presence

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder3 * Researcher	150	100.0%	0	0.0%	150	100.0%

Coder3 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher								Total
		ExplicitResearchConductor	ExplicitOpinionHolder	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ExplicitCommunitySelf	ImplicitResearchConductor	ImplicitOpinionHolder	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ImplicitCommunitySelf	
Coder3	ExplicitResearchConductor	20	0	1	2	1	1	0	0	25
	ExplicitOpinionHolder	1	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	12
	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	2	0	19	0	0	0	0	0	21
	ExplicitCommunitySelf	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	3
	ImplicitResearchConductor	1	0	2	0	22	5	2	2	34
	ImplicitOpinionHolder	0	0	0	0	1	18	0	0	19
	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	0	0	0	0	0	1	26	0	27
	ImplicitCommunitySelf	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	9
Total		25	11	22	5	24	25	28	10	150

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.820	.035	24.320	.000
N of Valid Cases		150			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 12 Interreliability test between Coder 4 and the researcher regarding authorial presence

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder4 * Researcher	150	100.0%	0	0.0%	150	100.0%

Coder4 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher								Total
		ExplicitResearchConductor	ExplicitOpinionHolder	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ExplicitCommunitySelf	ImplicitResearchConductor	ImplicitOpinionHolder	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ImplicitCommunitySelf	
Coder4	ExplicitResearchConductor	18	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	20
	ExplicitOpinionHolder	1	10	2	2	0	0	0	0	15
	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	3	1	19	1	0	0	0	0	24
	ExplicitCommunitySelf	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	4
	ImplicitResearchConductor	0	0	0	0	21	1	1	0	23
	ImplicitOpinionHolder	0	0	0	0	3	22	3	2	30
	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	0	0	0	0	0	2	24	0	26
	ImplicitCommunitySelf	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	8
Total		25	11	22	5	24	25	28	10	150

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.789	.037	23.542	.000
N of Valid Cases		150			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 13 Interreliability test between Coder 5 and the researcher regarding authorial presence

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Coder5 * Researcher	150	100.0%	0	0.0%	150	100.0%

Coder5 * Researcher Crosstabulation

Count

		Researcher								Total
		ExplicitResearchConductor	ExplicitOpinionHolder	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ExplicitCommunitySelf	ImplicitResearchConductor	ImplicitOpinionHolder	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	ImplicitCommunitySelf	
Coder5	ExplicitResearchConductor	19	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	22
	ExplicitOpinionHolder	1	11	0	1	0	0	0	0	13
	ExplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	4	0	22	0	0	0	0	0	26
	ExplicitCommunitySelf	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	2
	ImplicitResearchConductor	0	0	0	0	22	6	0	2	30
	ImplicitOpinionHolder	0	0	0	0	0	17	0	0	17
	ImplicitDiscourseCreatorandParticipant	0	0	0	0	2	1	28	0	31
	ImplicitCommunitySelf	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	8	9
Total		25	11	22	5	24	25	28	10	150

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement	Kappa	.827	.034	24.522	.000
N of Valid Cases		150			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Appendix 14 The list of dissertations written by the Turkish L1 writers (TL1)

Gültekin, B. (2009). *İlköğretim 5. ve 6. sınıf beden eğitimi derslerindeki bazı basketbol temel becerilerinin öğretiminde görsel materyallerin psikomotor öğrenmeye etkisinin incelenmesi / The impact of methods with visual materials on the learning of psychomotor during the education of basic basketball skills in the physical education classes at 5th and 6th grades.* Master of Arts in Physical Education and Sports Education, Marmara University, Istanbul.

Bastı, K. (2010). *İlköğretim 4., 5. ve 6. sınıf öğrencilerinin biyoçeşitlilik konusundaki farkındalık düzeylerinin çeşitli değişkenlere göre incelenmesi: Bolu ili örneği/ Primary 4th, 5th and 6th grade students several variables by the level of awareness about biodiversity: The case of provınce of Bolu.* Master of Arts in Science Teacher Education, Abant İzzet Baysal University, Bolu.

Kıroğlu, Ş. (2010). *Fen ve teknoloji öğretiminde bellek destekleyici stratejilerin öğrencilerin başarıları üzerine etkileri / The effects of mnemonic strategies on students? Success in science and tecnology teaching.* Master of Arts in Science Teacher Education, Selcuk University, Konya.

Bozkulak, P. B. (2010). *Okul yöneticilerinin problem çözme becerileri ve kaygı düzeyleri arasındaki ilişki/ The relationship between problem solving abilities and anxiety levels of school managers.* Master of Arts in Education Management and Governance, Maltepe University, Istanbul.

Gül, B. (2011). *Ortaöğretim öğrencilerinin öğrenme stilleri ile ders çalışma stratejileri arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi / The relation analysis between learning styles and studying strategies of secondary education students.* Master of Arts in Education Management and Governance, Yeditepe University, Istanbul.

Tekeli, A. (2010). *Sınıf öğretmenlerinin kullandıkları sınıf yönetimi yaklaşımlarıyla öğrencilerin sınıfta gösterdikleri şiddet (bullying) davranışları arasındaki ilişki/ The relationship between the approaches of elementary teachers used class management and students showed violent behavior.* Master of Arts in Primary School Education, Abant İzzet Baysal University, Bolu.

Kaşık, D. Z. (2009). *Ergenlerde karar verme stilleri ve algılanan sosyal destek düzeylerinin sosyal yetkinlik beklentisi ve bazı değişkenler açısından incelenmesi / Adolesent self-esteem and decision-making style of the decision with the perceived level of social support, social competence and level of expectation in terms of some variable treated as a comparative analysis.* Master of Arts in Psychology, Selcuk University, Konya.

Alpay, A. G. (2011). *İlköğretim okullarında finansman ile ilgili okul müdürlerinin görüşleri üzerine nitel bir araştırma / A qualitative research on principals' opinions about financial resources in primary schools.* Master of Arts in Education Management and Governance, Yeditepe University, Istanbul.

Baysal, F. K. (2010). *İlköğretim öğrencilerinin (4-8. sınıf) cebir öğrenme alanında oluşturdukları kavram yanılgıları / Misconceptions of primary school students (4th-8th grades) in learning of algebra.* Master of Arts in Mathematics Teacher Education Abant İzzet Baysal University, Bolu.

Evcin, S. (2010). *Bilgisayar oyunlarının ilköğretim ikinci kademe öğrencilerinin saldırganlık eğilimine etkisinin incelenmesi / Reviewing the effects of computer games on tendency to aggression at the second stage students in primary school.* Master of Arts in Developmental Psychology, Maltepe University, Istanbul.

Evran, A. (2011). *Devlet ve özel ilköğretim okullarında çalışan 4. ve 5. sınıf öğretmenlerinin iş memnuniyeti ve benlik algısı düzeylerinin karşılaştırılması / The comparison of work satisfaction and self perception level between the fourth and fifth grade teachers working at state and private primary schools.* Master of Arts in Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Maltepe University, Istanbul.

Ayva, F. G. (2010). *İlköğretim sınıf öğretmenlerinin ''portfolyo (ürün seçki dosyası)'' tekniği hakkındaki görüşleri / Primary school class teachers views regarding portfolio (the products file) technique.* Master of Arts in Educational Measurement and Evaluation, Abant İzzet Baysal University, Bolu.

Bodur, H. (2010). *İlköğretim ikinci sınıf hayat bilgisi dersinde içerik temelli eleştirel düşünme öğretiminin öğrencilerin eleştirel düşünme becerilerine etkisi / Effect of content based critical thinking education on critical thinking skills of students in second grade social studies.* Master of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, Selcuk University, Konya.

Yamaç, Ö. (2009). *Üniversite öğrencilerinin algıladıkları sosyal destek ile stresle başa çıkma stilleri arasındaki ilişki / The relationship the styles of the defeating the stress with the social support which the university students percepted.* Master of Arts in Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Selçuk University, Konya.

Akdağ, N. (2010). *İlköğretim 4. sınıf İngilizce öğretiminde drama yönteminin erişiye etkisi / The effect of drama method on success level of 4th class students in English teaching.* Master of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, Niğde University, Niğde.

Bozkırlı, K. Ç. (2010). *İlköğretim ikinci kademe Türkçe ders kitaplarındaki edebî metinlerin çocuk eğitimi açısından incelenmesi / Examining literary texts in Turkish language textbooks of second level elementary education.* Master of Arts in Modern Turkish Literature, Kars University, Kars.

Yılmaz, D. (2011). *Öğrenme stratejilerinin öğrenme stilleri ve bazı değişkenler açısından incelenmesi / Analysis of learning strategies and learning styles with regard to several variables.* Master of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, Selcuk University, Konya.

Atak, A. (2010). *Fransızca ve Türkçedeki yer belirticilerinin karşılaştırmalı olarak incelenmesi ve yabancı dil olarak Türkçede yer belirticilerinin öğretimi / Comparative analysis of place markers in French and Turkish and teaching place markers in Turkish as a foreign language.* Master of Arts in Teaching Turkish as a Foreign Language, Dokuz Eylül University, Izmir.

Yener, Z. (2008). *Yapılandırmacı öğretim yaklaşımına göre 1. sınıf ilkokuma yazma becerilerinin kazandırılmasında karşılaşılan güçlükler / The difficulties that experienced during the literacy abilities at 1st class according to the constructivist teaching approach.* Master of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, Selcuk University, Konya.

Koç, I. (2008). *Çoklu zekâ kuramına dayalı olarak gerçekleştirilen proje tabanlı öğrenmenin öğrencilerin 7. sınıf sosyal bilgiler dersindeki tutum ve erişilerine etkisi / Based on the theory of multiple intelligences, the effects of project based learning on attitudes and achievement of students 7th grade in social studies lesson.* Master of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, Selcuk University, Konya.

Korkut, S. E. (2010). *Japonya'nın resmi yardım kurumu (ODA)'nın Türkiye'de uyguladığı kalkınma yardımlarının kadın yoksulluğu ile mücadelede bir strateji olarak değerlendirilmesi / Evaluating Japan's Official Development Assistance program in Turkey as a strategy on fighting against feminization of poverty.* Master of Arts in Sociology, Hacettepe University, Ankara.

Akyol, S. (2011). *Sosyal yapılandırmacı öğrenme ortamı tasarımının öğrenenlerin akademik başarılarına ve öğrenmenin kalıcılığına etkisi (İlköğretim 5. sınıf fen ve teknoloji dersi) / The effects of social constructivist learning environment design on academic achievement and learning retention of learners (Science and technology course at the 5th grade of primary school).* Master of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, Yıldız Teknik University, Istanbul.

Alataş, F. (2008). *İlköğretim programında 4. ve 5. sınıf sosyal bilgiler öğretiminde karşılaşılan sorunlar / The soft sciences course of 4th and 5th grades in primary school.* Master of Arts in Primary School Education, Dokuz Eylül University, Izmir.

Karayel, G. K. (2011). *Ergenlerde yalnızlığın yordayıcısı olarak mükemmeliyetçilik / Perfectionism as predictor of loneliness among adolescents.* Master of Arts in Guidance and Psychological Counseling Muğla University, Muğla.

Çekirdekçi, S. (2010). *İlköğretim 4. ve 5. sınıf matematik dersinde sınıf öğretmenlerinin programda belirtilen öğretim materyallerini kullanma düzeylerinin incelenmesi / The primary 4 and 5 grade teachers' to examine the level of the teaching materials usage in mathematic lessons specified in the program.* Master of Arts in Primary School Education, Marmara University, Istanbul.

Öztürk, D. (2010). *Yaratıcı düşünme becerisinin ilköğretim 6. sınıf Sosyal Bilgiler dersinde öğrenci başarısı üzerindeki etkililiği / The effectiveness of thecreative thinking*

skills on 6th grade student achievement in social studies class. Master of Arts in Social Studies Teacher Education, Marmara University, Istanbul.

Demirer, V. (2009). *Eğitim materyali geliştirilmesinde karma öğrenme yaklaşımının akademik başarı, bilgi transferi, tutum ve öz-yeterlik algısına etkisi / Effect of blended learning approach on academic success, knowledge transfer, attitude, and self-efficacy perception in educational material development.* Master of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, Selcuk University, Konya.

Topal, M. (2011). *Üniversite öğrencilerinin stres ile başa çıkma stilleri ile pozitif ve negatif duygu arasındaki ilişki / Coping styles with stress of the university students and the relation between positive and negative emotion.* Master of Arts in Psychological Counseling and Guidance, Selcuk University, Konya.

Ayyıldız, N. (2010). *6. sınıf matematik dersi geometriye merhaba ünitesine ilişkin kavram yanılgılarının giderilmesinde öğrenme günlüklerinin etkisinin incelenmesi/ The investigation of effect of learning logs on remedying students' misconceptions concerning `hello to geometry? topic in 6th grade mathematics lesson.* Master of Arts in Curriculum and Instruction, Yıldız Teknik University, Istanbul.

Filiz, N. (2010). *Sosyal bilgiler öğretiminde müze kullanımı / Use of museum in social studies teaching.* Master of Arts in Social Studies Teacher Education, Marmara University, Istanbul.

Appendix 15 The list of dissertations written by the Turkish writers of English (EL2)

Köylü, Y. (2010). *Acquisition of English reflexives by Turkish l2 learners of English.* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Okur, Z. E. (2010). *Expression and display rules of basic and self-conscious emotions among Turkish children: Role of age, gender, socio-economic status and context.* Master of Arts in Psychology, Boğaziçi University, Istanbul.

Kahriman, N. (2010). *Adult educators' views on their occupation and professionalization of adult education.* Master of Arts in Educational Studies, Boğaziçi University, Istanbul.

Usta, B. E. (2010). *The interplay between cultural life scripts and life stories across three different age groups.* Master of Arts in Psychology, Boğaziçi University, Istanbul.

Özdemir, E. (2009). *An investigation on the relationship between empathy-related constructs of English instructors at Atilim University Preparatory School within the framework of peace education.* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Kesen, Y. (2010). *Intervention effects in simple wh-questions in Turkish.* Master of Arts in Linguistics, Boğaziçi Üniversity, Istanbul.

Evirgen, N. (2010). *The prevalence of emotional eating and its relation to affect regulation in a Turkish sample of obese, overweight and normal weighted women.* Master of Arts in Clinical Psychology, Boğaziçi Üniversity, Istanbul.

Baykul, B. (2010). *Memory strategies in second language vocabulary learning.* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Uludağ University, Bursa.

Sülükçü, D. (2010). *A study of cognitive task complexity and written output at upper-intermediate learners of English.* Master of Arts in Teaching English, Hacettepe University, Ankara.

Debreli, E. (2011). *The effect of creative drama based instruction on seventh grade students' achievement in ratio and proportion concepts and attitude towards mathematics* Master of Arts in Elementary Science and Mathematics Education, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Güçlü, M. (2010). *The place of the native culture in the English language classroom: A case study of ENG 101 classrooms at METU.* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Middle East Techinal University, Ankara.

Tuncay, B. (2010). *Moral reasoning of pre-service science teachers toward local and non-local environmental problems.* Master of Arts in Primary Education, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Adal, E. E. (2011). *Science teachers' perceptions of the elementary science and technology curriculum.* Master of Science in Elementary Science and Mathematics, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Altunbaşak, İ. (2010). *Turkish English teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching and their grammar teaching practices.* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Marmara University, Istanbul.

Koçak, Ö. (2010). *Risk taking behaviors among Turkish university students: Perceived risk, perceived benefit, and impulsivity.* Master of Science in Clinical Psychology, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Yılmaz, E. Ö. (2010). *The comparison of PISA and TIMSS for framework and achievement.* Master of Science in Elementary Science and Mathematics, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Onaylı, S. (2010). *The relation between mother-daughter relationship and daughter's well-being.* Master of Science in Educational Science, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Coşkan, C. (2010). *The effects of self-control and social influence on academic dishonesty: An experimental and correlational investigation.* Master of Science in Psychology, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Bilgin, Z. (2010). *Long-term potentiation in teaching vocabulary in foreign language: A case study.* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Tortop, T. (2011). *7th-grade students' typical errors and possible misconceptions in graphs concept before and after the regular mathematics instruction.* Master of Arts in Primary Education, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Otlu, N. F. (2010). *College adjustment of international students: The role of gender, acculturative stress, coping skills, cultural distance, and perceived social support.* Master of Science in Psychology, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Er, E. (2009). *Self-efficacy levels of pre-service teachers and its predictors.* Master of Science in Curriculum and Instruction, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Akşit, Z. (2010). *Teachers and research: A case study of attitudes and behaviors in an efl context* Master of Arts in English Languguage Teaching, Bilkent University, Ankara.

Koçak, A. (2010). *The attitudes of one teacher and her students towards using internet sources to develop students' reading skills.* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Bilkent University, Ankara.

Eryiğit, A. (2010). *A cross-age study on elementary students' value orientations, environmental optimism and environmental concern.* Master of Science in Elementary Science and Mathematics, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Yeşilyurt, A. B. (2010). *Evaluation of the effectiveness of remedial class application: A sample study at a foundation university.* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Maltepe University, Istanbul.

Gürel, N. A. (2009). *Effects of thinking styles and gender on psychological well-being.* Master of Arts in Psychology, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Evci, H. A. (2010). *International english teachers' perceptions of English as an international language* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Bilkent Univeristy, Ankara.

Erden, E. (2010). *Problems that preschool teachers face in the curriculum implementation.* Master of Science in Curriculum and Instruction, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Türker, S. (2010). *The effectiveness of audio books on the reading comprehension of selected texts by university EFL students at different proficiency levels* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, Bilkent University, Ankara.

Appendix 16 The list of dissertations written by the English L1 writers (EL1)

Burns, V. (2008). *An investigation of student and in-service teachers' beliefs about achievement and the predictors of these beliefs.* Masters of Research, University of Strathclyde, Glasgow.

Brown, D. A. (2011). *The influence of professional discourse on beginner teachers within the English further education sector.* Master of Arts in Education, University of York, York.

Wardman, C. (2009). *Withdrawal from the mainstream: comparing approaches taken by specialist teachers and teaching assistants in supporting small groups and individual English language learners in UK primary schools.* Master of Arts in English Language Teaching, York St John University, York.

Hanan, R. (2011). *Explicit knowledge about language in primary school children: Exploring the potential effectiveness of grammar instruction in primary school level foreign language learning.* Master of Arts in Language Learning and Education, University of York, York.

Hawkins, B. (2011). *A study of pupils at risk of exclusion and their attitudes to school.* Master of Arts in Education, University of York, York.

Powell-Howard, M. J. (2009). *What affects the reliability of 'vocational' examiners' marking?* Master of Arts in in Education, University of York, York.

Dowell, S. (2006). *Investigating the vowel systems of contact languages using a population of artificial agents.* Master of Arts in Linguistics and English Language, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Rouke, J. (2010). *Online discourse in a primary school setting.* Master of Arts in Education, University of York, York.

Quillinan, J. (2006). *Social networks and cultural transmission.* Master of Arts in Linguistics and English Language, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Cornish, H. (2006). *Iterated learning with human subjects: An empirical framework for the emergence and cultural transmission of language.* Master of Arts in Language Teaching, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Chetty, G. (2006). *An investigation into the use of wikis for collaborative writing in L2 academic writing workshops. A pilot study.* Master of Arts in Language Teaching, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Barras, W. (2006). *The SQUARE-NURSE merger in Greater Manchester: The impact of social and spatial identity on phonological variation.* Master of Science by Research in English Language, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Houston, D. A. S. (2006). *Music and language: The case for music in linguistic Curricula and Research.* Master of Arts in DevelopmentalLinguistics, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Charles, T. J. (2010). *Does leadership affect language learning in ESOL schools?* Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics and TESOL, University of Newcastle, Newcastle.

Preston, S. J. A. (2009). *Professional development of teachers in England: The impact of specialist postgraduate accreditation in well-being, social and emotional literacy.* Master of Arts in Education, University of York, York.

O'Connell, G. (2009). *Associative context encoding in individuals with Schizophrenia: Contributions of strategic and automatic process.* Master of Science in Psychology, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Robson, H. (2008). *Accommodation to speech production in task-related dialogue.* Master of Science in Speech and Language Processing, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Roberts, G. V. (2006). *Why not to speak like the neighbours: Linguistic variation as social marker.* Master of Science in Evolution of Language and Cognition, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Eddy, J. C. (2005). *Iterated learning: The exemplar-based learning approach.* Master of Science in Evolution of Language and Cognition, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Beckett, M. A. (2011). *What are the perceptions of teachers in the military about empathy.* Master of Arts in Education, University of York, York.

Thomas, S. (2005). *The foundation phase: Perceptions, attitudes and expectations: An overview of the ethos and an analysis of the implications of the implementation.* Master of Arts in Early Years Education, University of Wales Trinity Saint David, Carmarthen.

Sands, R. M. (2011). *How do attitudes to careers and employment aspirations differ across generations?* Master of Arts in Education, University of York, York.

Hope, D. (2008). *Volunteer bias in sex research: The effect of recruitment material on demographics, personality, impression management, sociosexuality, sexual desire and preoccupation.* Master of Arts in Psychological Research Methods, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Richardson, A. B. (2011). *Agriculture and settlement in medieval Husthwaite and Baxby, North Yorkshire.* Master of Science in Archaeology, University of York, York.

Pickering, A. D. (2012). *Investigating the relationship between gaining arboricultural knowledge and understanding from sustainable development learning for year 3 / 4*

children. Master of Arts in Education for Sustainable Development, University of York, York.

Spencer, N. (2005). *A study of approaches to venepuncture training in nurse education.* Master of Arts in Education, University of York, York.

Wheat, K. (2008). *Early Broca's activity during visual word recognition relates to rapid articulatory processing: MEG evidence.* Masters of Research in Psychology University of York, York.

Fieo, R. (2007). *Understanding the determinants of functional decline: Incorporating multiple domains.* Master of Science in Individual Differences in Psychology, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

East, S. (2007). *Re-examining the SLIP task: Completely lexical vs. completely non-Lexical.* Master of Science in Psycholinguistics, University of Edinburgh, Edinburgh.

Cooke, C. J. (2005). *The use of interactive witeboards in the teaching of secondary Mathematics: What are the benefits of and opinions towards the implementation of IWBs.* Master of Arts in Education, University of York, York.

Appendix 17 The list of linguistic items signalling commitment-detachment and authorial presence [34]

Linguistic items treated as Hedges in the English texts	Linguistic items treated as Boosters in the English texts
* perspective	* considered
almost	absolutely
almost	actually
anticipate*	always
apparent*	apparent*
appear*	assuredly
approximate*	believe*
argue*	beyond doubt
around	by far
assum*	by no means
assumption	can not
at least	cannot
at this point	central
attempt*	certain*
can	clear*
claim*	conclude*
considerable	confidently
could	confirm*
doubt*	considerabl*
estimate*	convincingly
expect*	definite*
fairly	definitely
feel*	demonstrate*
felt	did
frequently	do
from * perspective	does
from this	doubtless
generally	establish*
guess*	evident*
hypothetical*	exactly
hypothi^e*	explicitly
implie*	find*
imply	for sure
in * opinion	found
in * view	greatly
in general	highlight*
in most *	highly
in some degree	in fact
indicate*	incontestabl*
indication	indeed

[34] The symbols represent different functions in WordSmith Tools search. For example, '*' disregards the end of the word or disregards a whole word in the search, and finds evident, evidently with the search of evident*; '^' is used for any single letter of the alphabet that will match and finds hypothise or hypothize with the search of hypothi^e. For detailed explanation, see the WordSmith Tools manual from http://www.lexically.net/downloads/version6/HTML/index.html?getting_started.htm

indicator infer* inten* it * * to * it is difficult to conclude likely little * mainly may maybe might moderately most of mostly nearly often partial* partly perhaps plausibl* possible possibly postulate* potential* predict* presumabl* probable probably prone to propose* relativel* roughly seem* slightly some * sometimes somewhat suggest* suppose* suspect* tend to tend* tendency tentative* the great majority to * extent to * knowledge to some extent trie^ try	indicate* indisputabl* infer* it is known know* largely major* most likely must necessar* never no * no doubt nobody none not only not until obvious* of course often only * probably prove* quite rather reali^e* really remarkably require* reveal* show showed shown shows significantly stress* strongly substantial* sure* technically the *st the fact that the great majority the most * think think* thinks truly verif* without doubt thought

typical* typically uncertain* unclear* unlikely usually when possible whether would	totally true undoubtly well known well-known will

Linguistic items treated as Hedges in the Turkish texts	**Linguistic items treated as Boosters in the Turkish texts**
* öl^üde * yönündedir *abil* *ebil* *m^^ olmal^d^r *rsa *rse *sayd^ *seydi ^al^^^d^ ^al^^^l* ^al^^^lacakt^r ^al^^^lm^^t^r ^al^^^lmaktad^r ^al^^^m^^lard^r ^al^s^l* ^al^st^k ^nd^^^nda ^ne s^r* ^ne s^r^l* a^^rl^kl^ olarak a^a^i yukar^ adeta akla getir* anla^^lan ara s^ra arada bir az çok ba^l^d^r* bazen belki belli belirsiz bildi^imiz kadar^yla bir dereceye kadar bu a^^dan b^y^k ihtimalle	*aca^^ *acak* *amaz* *ece^i *ecek* *emez* *maz* *mez* ^^phe edilemez* ^^phe g^t^rmez* ^^phesiz* a^^k a^^k a^^k^a a^^kt^r a^ik^r* adeta anla^^l^r biçimde apa^^k* asl^nda asla aynen belirgin* belirle* belli et* belli* besbelli* bilinen bilinir bilinmektedir bulunmu* cidden daim* do^rusu elbet elbette emin olarak

civarinda*	eninde sonunda
ço^u kez	er ge*
ço^unlu^u*	fiilen
ço^unlukla	g^r^lmektedir ki
d^^^n^l*	g^zle g^r^l^r *
deneme olarak	g^zler ^n^ne *
deneysel olarak	gayet
denil*	ger^ekten
durumunda	ger^ektir
dü^ünül*	görülm*
e^er	gösterm*
e^ilim*	hakikat*
en az^ndan	hatta
farz e*	her hal^karda
g^receli olarak	her halde
g^sterm*	herkes taraf^ndan *
galiba	herkes^e bilinen*
genel olarak	herkesin bildi^i*
genel*	hi^
getir*	hi^ ku^ku*
gibi g^r^n*	hi^bir suretle
gibi görün*	ikna edici* *
gibi görünse de	imk^ns^z
gibidir	ink^r edilemez*
görün*	ispat e*
görünen o ki	ispat*
görünmektedir	ispat^d^r
görünü^e göre	itiraz kabul etmez
görünür*	kan^tl*
halded*	kati*
hayli	katiyen
hemen hemen	katiyen
herhalde	kesin bir bi^imde
hipotez*	kesin olarak
i^aret e*	kesin*
iddia e*	ku^kusuz
iddia*	m^mk^n de^il*
ifade et*	m^mk^n olmayan
ihtimal*	malum*
ileri sür*	meydana ^^kar*
ima et*	muhakkak*
indi^inde	mutl^ka
k^smen	net * *
mahiyettedir*	netle*
mümkün*	nitekim
nadiren*	olanaks^z
neredeyse	olduk^a
olarak *^b^l^r	ortada*
olas^*	ortaya ç^k*
olas^l^k*	ortaya koy*
olsa da	özellikle

ortaya at* öner* öngör* potansiyel potansiyel olarak s^k s^k s^kça san* san^lm* san^yoruz savun* seyrek* sik sik sorgula* söyle* tahmin * tahmin e* takt^rde tart^^ tereddütlü tipik* varsay* varsay^l^rsa varsay^mda * yakla^^k yar^dan fazlas^ yatk^n ol* yorumlan* zannedil* zannediyoruz	peki^* sahi* sapta* sonuca ula* sonucuna ula* sonucuna var* su g^t^rmez* tabii tabii ki tam olarak tam^ tam^na tamam^yl^ tamamen tart^^mas^z* tekrar tekrar tespit e* ula^^lm* ula^m* y^zde y^z

Linguistic items treated as explicit authorial references in the English texts	**Linguistic items treated as explicit authorial references in the Turkish texts**
I me mine my our us we the author the researcher the writer	*^r^z *^riz *^ruz *aca^^m *aca^^z *d^^^m* *d^^^m^z* *d^k *d^m *ece^im *ece^iz *m^m* *m^m^n

Linguistic items treated as implicit authorial references in the English texts is *ed are *ed were *ed was *ed can be * might be * may be * must be * will be * could be * would be * been *ed is *wn are *wn were *wn was *wn have been *wn has been *wn be *wn been *wn study paper chapter section dissertation thesis research part	*m^m^z* *m^m^z^n *m^z* *t^^^m* *t^^^m^z* *t^m *yiz bana ben benim Biz* biz* ara^t^rmac^ **Linguistic items treated as implicit authorial references in the Turkish texts** *^l^bilir *^l^bilmektedir *^l^bilmi^tir *^l^c^kt^r *^l^n^bilir *^l^n^c^kt^r *^lm^^t^r *^lm^kt^d^r *^n^c^kt^r *^nm^^t^r *^nm^kt^d^r *l^n^c^kt^r *l^nd^ *l^nm^kt^d^r *^ld^ ^al^^ma* tez* ara^t^rma* b^l^m*

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