

ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT

**USE OF FIRST PERSON PRONOUNS: A CORPUS BASED
STUDY OF JOURNAL ARTICLES**

Ahmet BAŞAL

MASTER OF ARTS

ADANA , 2006

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Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA

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We certify that this thesis is satisfactory for the award of the degree of Master of Arts in the Department of English Language Teaching.

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ABSTRACT**USE OF FIRST PERSON PRONOUNS: A CORPUS BASED
STUDY OF JOURNAL ARTICLES****Ahmet BAŞAL****Master of Arts, English Language Teaching****Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA****September ,2006, 57 pages**

Scientific writing is traditionally thought to be impersonal. Therefore, it is not surprising for academicians to see the encouragement of the use of impersonal constructions in scientific articles by most of style manuals. This study is based on an investigation of the use of first person pronouns in journal articles. In many of such scientific articles, personal pronouns *I* and *we* can both be seen as a choice for authors to stand their involvement in their writings. In this study, I have made a comparison of 16 articles published between 2000-2005 in the Social Sciences Journal of Çukurova University (SSJÇ) and English Language Teaching Journal (ELTJ) to determine the frequency of occurrence of first person pronouns *I* and *we*. I have also investigated the semantic references of these pronouns as *inclusive* and *exclusive* according to the way they are used in these articles. In the light of the results, it is clear that writers of ELTJ used first person pronouns more than those of writers of SSJÇ. Among the first person pronouns, *I* was used more than *we* by writers of ELTJ whereas *we* was used more than *I* by scientific writers of SSJÇ. Scientific writers of ELTJ mostly preferred using exclusive *we* whereas scientific writers of SSJÇ preferred using inclusive *we*. It is concluded that pronoun use is an important aspect of scientific writing and should be included in the curriculum to raise awareness of learners to use them effectively in their scientific texts.

Key Words: Scientific Writing, First Person Pronouns, Scientific Journal Articles

ÖZET

BİRİNCİ ŞAHIS ZAMİRLERİNİN KULLANIMI: BİLİMSEL DERGİ MAKALELERİNDE DERLEM TABANLI ÇALIŞMA

Ahmet BAŞAL

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Akademik yazım geleneksel olarak nesnel düşünülür. Dolayısıyla, akademik yazımla ilgili kitaplarda nesnel yapıların kullanımının teşvik edilmesi akademisyenler için şaşırtıcı değildir. Bu çalışma bilimsel dergilerde yer alan makalelerde birinci tekil ve birinci çoğul şahıs zamirlerinin kullanımının araştırılmasıyla ilgilidir. Böyle pek çok bilimsel makalede, birinci şahıs zamirleri *ben* ve *biz* yazarlar tarafından yazılarına dahil olma amacıyla bir tercih olarak görülür. Bu çalışmada, birinci şahıs zamirleri *ben* ve *biz*'in görülme sıklıklarını belirlemek için 2000-2005 yılları arasında Çukurova Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi (SSJÇ) ve ELT dergisinden (ELTJ) 16 makalenin karşılaştırılması yapılmıştır. Çalışmada yine bu şahıs zamirlerinin makalelerde kullanımına bakılarak anlamsal olarak eksklusif ve inklusif kullanımları da araştırılmıştır. Çalışma sonuçlarının ışığında, ELTJ yazarlarının birinci şahıs zamirlerini SSJÇ yazarlarından daha fazla kullandığı açıkça görülmüştür. Birinci şahıs zamirlerine ayrı ayrı bakıldığında, *ben* ELTJ yazarları tarafından daha fazla kullanılırken; *biz* SSJÇ yazarları tarafından daha fazla kullanılmıştır. ELTJ yazarları daha çok eksklusif *biz* kullanırken; SSJÇ yazarları daha çok inklusif *biz* kullanmışlardır. Çalışmadan, zamir kullanımının bilimsel yazının önemli bir yönü olduğu ve öğrencilerin onları kendi bilimsel yazılarında etkili bir şekilde kullanmadaki farkındalıklarını artırmak için müfredata eklenebileceği sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Akademik Yazı, Birinci Şahıs Zamirleri, Bilimsel Dergi Makaleleri, İngiliz Dil Eğitimi

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

As a general outline of the study, this chapter consists of background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions and importance of the study, the limitations and the definition of key terms.

1.1. Background to the Study

Scientific writing is traditionally thought to be impersonal. In line with this, as Hyland (2002) states, most of the style manuals and textbooks have suggested the use of impersonality for scholarly persuasion and allowance to the academics to interact with their readers in a direct way. This can easily be seen in many style guides, texts books and in the articles of many scholars;

The use of personal pronouns is unnecessary, and can lead to biases or unsupported assumptions. In scientific papers, therefore, personal pronouns should not be used. (Smith, 1996: 2–3)

Use the first person ('I' or 'we') for describing what you did- but don't overuse it, and don't use it if the journal or your supervisor has banned it. (O'Connor, 1991 :96)

Write your paper with third person voice that avoids 'I believe' or 'It is my opinion'. (Lester, 1993: 144)

Traditional formal writing does not use I or we in the body of the paper. (Spencer and Arbon, 1996: 26)

However, a great deal of recent research (e.g. Ivanic, 1998; Tang & John, 1999; Kuo, 1999; Hyland, 2001) has shown a growing tendency away from the traditional view of scientific writing stated in most of the style manuals. Therefore, traditional view of scientific writing simply neglects the authorial presence proved by many corpus based studies. This incompatibility between the traditional view and the recent growing

tendency may lead to instability in the choice of academics to show themselves in scientific articles. In his empirical study of personal pronouns in scientific journal articles, Kuo (1999) investigates ‘how the use of personal pronouns may reveal writers’ perceptions of their own role in research and their relationship with expected readers as well as the scientific academic community’ (p.121). He points out the importance of strategic use of personal pronouns which is reinforced by Hyland’s (2001) study of personal attribution in research articles in eight different disciplines ranging from hard to soft sciences.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to investigate the tendency of the Turkish academics in the use of first person pronouns in scientific journal articles. In other words, it is aimed to investigate:

- Whether Turkish academics prefer using first person pronouns in their scientific articles to show their presence in their articles.
- Whether there is a semantic difference in the preference of using first person pronouns as inclusive or exclusive between Turkish and other academicians whose native language is other than Turkish.

The reason for selecting the investigation of the use of first person pronouns in scientific articles is to determine the preferences of Turkish academics in writing in English considering and exploring differences and similarities in terms of first person pronoun use of writers writing for SSJÇ and writers writing for ELT.

1.3. Research Questions

This study seeks answers to the following questions:

1. Do Turkish writers choose first person pronouns in their scientific articles to show their presence?
2. Is there a difference in the preference of using first person pronouns as exclusive or inclusive between Turkish and other academicians whose native language is other than Turkish?

1.4. The Importance of the Study

Traditional scientific writing has considered that researchers should be objective and have an impersonal style when reporting their studies. This thought mainly depends on preferences and general tendencies in scientific writing. In other words, there is not a strict rule for academicians whether to use pronouns in their texts; but tendencies, preferences and personal opinions of academicians usually supported avoidance of pronouns in academic writing. However, a great deal of recent research (e.g. Ivanic, 1998; Tang & John, 1999; Kuo, 1999; Hyland, 2001) has shown a tendency towards the use of personal pronouns in scientific writing differing from traditional view suggesting an impersonal style. Kuo (1999) explores some functions of personal pronoun use in scientific journal articles. Viewing written text as an interaction, the study investigated how the use of personal pronouns might reveal writers perception of their role and their relationship with their readers and academic community. No such studies on the use of personal pronouns by Turkish academicians have been met in Turkey. I, therefore, believe that it is important to determine the choice of Turkish academics in terms of the use of first person pronouns in scientific journal articles as the use of them has a growing tendency among the members of the academic community. Believing a comparison between the Turkish academicians and others with different native language background might be better to see the differences and similarities in the use of first person pronouns. I chose to analyse scientific articles written by both groups. Seeing that the choice of using personal pronouns in academic writing is an unresolved matter, I believe that corpus based studies such as ours will shed light onto further research concerning the investigation of author presence in this field.

1.5. Limitations

This study is only limited to scientific articles in the English Language Teaching setting published in the Journal of Social Sciences of Çukurova University and in the English Language Teaching Journal in order to determine the tendency towards the use of first person pronouns by Turkish academicians and the similarities and differences with other academicians whose native language is different from Turkish. The study is

also only limited to the use of first person pronouns, one way of showing author presence in scientific articles.

1.6. Definition of Terms

Below are the definitions of certain terms in this study:

1. SSJÇ: Research articles published in the journal of Social Sciences of Çukurova University in Adana on English Language Teaching.
2. ELTJ: Research articles published in the Journal of English Language Teaching.
3. INCL: Pronouns referring to both writers and their readers.
4. EXCL: Pronouns referring only to writers themselves.
5. WTs: Scientific writers whose native language is Turkish.
6. WOTs: Scientific writers whose native language is other than Turkish.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

Science requires that researchers disseminate the findings of their studies to the rest of the scientific community as they form sources of scientific knowledge. Therefore, it is important that researchers publish their studies. Scientific articles are among the main sources by which research findings are disseminated. When writing scientific articles, researchers may have to use a different style, a style which requires conventions and jargon specific to the field., and this field being considerably different from other genres. In academic writing, researchers should be objective that can, as most style guides and textbooks suggest, be provided by impersonality. However, the use of personal pronouns is of an important issue since successful scientific writing shelters them as suggested by Hyland (2005b):

...academic writers do not simply produce texts that plausibly represent an external reality, but use language to offer a credible representation of themselves and their work, and to acknowledge and negotiate social relations with readers. The ability of writers to control the level of personality in their texts, claiming solidarity with readers, evaluating their material, and acknowledging alternative views, is now recognised as a key feature of successful academic writing (p.133)

A number of studies (e.g. Ivanic, 1998; Tang & John, 1999; Kuo, 1999; Hyland, 2001, 2002; Harwood, 2005a, 2005b) has been conducted on the use of pronouns in academic writing showing that this type of writing is not entirely devoid of writer's presence which may certainly build by the use of pronouns.

In scientific writing, there is not a gold standard for the use of personal pronouns. In other words, the use of personal pronouns in scientific writing is not strictly determined by a set of rules but advice about the use of them. Therefore, the use of personal pronouns is differently perceived and evaluated by researchers; and the use of them, if any, may vary among scientific writers and disciplines that they belong to.

2.2. The Traditional View of Scientific Writing

Traditionally, scientific writing is seen to have an impersonal style as in Geertz's (1983) words "author –evacuated" which is reinforced by Kuo (1999) stating 'impersonality was seen as distinctive feature of scientific reporting' and Elbow (1991) pointing out most academic prose as detached and impersonal. Although it is not possible to put strict rules for written English in scientific writing in terms of pronoun usage, as Hyland (2002) states 'style guides and textbooks commonly portray scholarly writing as a kind of impersonal faceless discourse ...'(p.351). Swetnam's (2000) advice on the style of academic writing on the use of pronouns reinforces Hyland's statement:

The general academic style used all over the world is detached and passive. Unless there is a special reason personal pronouns are to be avoided. Never 'I showed by my research that ...' but 'The research showed that...'. Other expressions used include: 'The author found...', 'The writer...'. 'It was discovered that...' (p.184).

Therefore, it is probably true that academic texts are mostly expected to have an impersonal style when considering the advice of most style guides and textbooks explaining the mostly acceptable way of showing author presence in scientific texts. Moreover, many scholars state their opinions on the use of pronouns in scientific texts in a more concrete way as in the following advice from a text written for psychology students:

Good scientific writing is characterized by objectivity. The use of personal pronouns is unnecessary, and can lead to biased or unsupported assumptions. In scientific papers, therefore, personal pronouns should not be used. When you write a paper, unless you attribute an opinion to someone else, it is understood to be your own. For same reasons, the plural pronouns *we* and *our* are not used. (Smith, 1996: 2-3)

Lack of personal pronouns can provide the writers with some kind of advantages. In other words, impersonality, the traditional style in academic writing, has been evaluated as a protection policy:

Everybody wants to put things in the third person. So they just say, 'it was found that'. If it is later shown that it was wrong, don't accept any responsibility. 'It was found. I didn't say I believed it. It was found.' So you sort of get away from yourself that way and make it sound like these things just fall down into your notebook and you report them like a historian. ...' (Gilbert and Mulkay, 1984: 58).

Such quotes stated above show that choosing an impersonal style is not a standard strictly expected in scientific writing but personal choices of the authors serving them as a shield for probable objection against their studies.

The choice of impersonality, traditional style of scientific writing, has shown to be weakened gradually by numerous studies exploring the interaction in academic texts (e.g. Ivanic, 1998; Tang & John, 1999; Kuo, 1999; Hyland, 2001; Harwood, 2005a, 2005b). These studies suggest that scientific writing do not totally exclude the authors' presence. In fact, showing the authors' presence in their scientific texts is a growing trend among members of the academic community. Therefore, as Hyland (2002) suggests 'academic writing is not uniformly faceless prose as it is often thought to be, but displays considerable differences between disciplines' (p.352).

2.3. The Need for the Use of First Person Pronouns in Scientific Writing

In scientific writing, although numerous style manuals and textbooks advise the avoidance of first person pronouns in academic texts, a number of studies have stated the importance of using them in academic texts (e.g. Vassileva, 1998; Kuo, 1999; Tang & John, 1999, Hyland, 2001; Harwood, 2003, 2005a, 2005b) . They can play important roles in terms of revealing the writers relationship with the reader and their discourse community (Kuo, 1999). Kuo also points out that knowing how to use personal pronouns effectively is of great importance as giving them the opportunity to highlight their own contributions to their field and strengthen the unity with their readers. Therefore, the use of personal pronouns is '...a powerful way of strong writer identity' (Hyland, 2002, p.354) and 'central to face-to-face interaction' (Kuo, 1999, p.123) as we are not 'humble servants of the discipline' (Myers, 1989) and 'we are not the instruments of our disciplines...' (Hyland, 2005a, p.191).

First-person plural person pronouns were found to appear far more frequently than other types of personal pronouns according to the research conducted on the use of them in scientific journal articles by Kuo (1999). Findings of his study include:

...first-person plural pronouns are used far more frequently than other types of personal pronouns. A further analysis of first-person plural pronouns suggests that they can have a number of semantic references and perform multiple functions in the journal article. Examples from sampled texts show how writers use strategically exclusive we to refer to writers themselves or inclusive we to refer to either writers and readers or the discipline as a whole for different communicative purposes. The use of second-person, third-person and indefinite pronouns also reflects a writer's intention to secure cooperation from, and stress solidarity with, readers (p.121).

In addition to their higher number of use compared to other types of personal pronouns, first person plural pronoun is used by scientific writers with a purpose in mind such as bringing the readers and themselves together.

In scientific writing, writers do not write aimlessly when presenting their research. They have a problem in hand and they seek to find answers to this problem by using the scientific method of strategic exploring. When doing this, they do not simply project facts but also seek to find a place in their academic community as stated by Hyland (2005a):

[Writers] seek to offer a credible representation of themselves and their work by claiming solidarity with readers, evaluating material and acknowledging alternative views, so that controlling the level of personality in a text becomes central to building a convincing argument (p.173).

Precisely, scientific texts form a bridge between scientific writers and their potential readers. Hyland (2002) also notes that “first person pronouns are a powerful way of projecting a strong writer identity...” (p.354). Therefore, the use of first person pronouns to present writers’ presence in their own work is of great value. In his article, criticising the great emphasis given by many scholars (e.g. Hinkel, 1999; Hyland, 2001; Ivanic, 1998; Ivanic and Camps, 2001; Tang & John, 1999, Wu and Rubin, 2000) to the use of first person pronouns in scientific writing as the voice of the writers, Stapleton, (2002) accepts the importance of voice in scientific writing by stating ‘Voice, in my

opinion, is an important part of writing and communicating, and aspects of it are essential at the higher levels of academic writing where authors are aiming to publish' (p.189). Therefore, it is important to take the use of personal pronouns as an important rhetorical option for writers of academic texts as also was stated by Harwood (2005a):

Such promotional devices [I and we] can market the research from the start, underscoring novelty and newsworthiness in the introduction as they help create a research space. They also help repeat claims and findings at the close, to show that the work deserves to be taken seriously, and that, by extension, the author deserves to be seen as a player in the discourse community. ... I and we can also help writers to make a name for themselves by disputing others' claims, by marking out the difference between the writers' stance and that of their peers. (p.1226)

As stated in the introduction section, writers' choice of using personal pronouns in their texts does not depend on a set of rules. However, writers' engagement in their texts with the use of personal pronouns is a strategy for writers to interact with their readers and their discourse community. The reasons why they make use of such devices, one of which being the use of personal pronouns, depend on various aspects as Hyland (2005a) states '... an authorial persona is an act of personal choice, and the influence of individual personality, confidence, experience, and ideological preference...' (p.191). Whatever the reasons for scientific writers in choosing the use of personal pronouns, the disciplines they belong to is of importance since pronoun usage shows differences within disciplines.

2.4. Use of First Person Pronouns in Scientific Texts

In scientific writing, first person pronouns *I* and *we* can be used for various functions. A number of corpus-based studies have attempted to identify these functions that *I* and *we* can play (e.g. Bernhardt, 1985; Vassileva, 1998; Kuo, 1999; Tang & John, 1999; Hyland, 2001; Harwood, 2003). Harwood (2005a) gives examples on the use of pronouns and their functions as follows:

Pronouns and possessive adjectives are said to help the writer organize the text and guide the reader through the argument (e.g. First I will discuss x and then y), state personal opinions and knowledge claims (On the basis of my data I would claim), recount experimental procedure and methodology (We interviewed 60 subjects over the space of several months), and acknowledge funding bodies, institutions, and individuals that contributed to the study in some way (I thank Professor X for his help in calculations) (p.1210).

In addition to these functions, the use of personal pronouns by scientific writers in scientific texts can help to reveal how they construct a relationship between their readers and their discourse community (Kuo, 1999). Therefore, personal pronouns can be said to set a bridge between scientific writers, their readers and their scientific community.

Use of first person pronouns by academic writers in scientific texts varies as they may carry different functions. According to the taxonomy of Tang and John (1999) who examined 27 first year undergraduate essays, the use of first person pronouns have functions as:

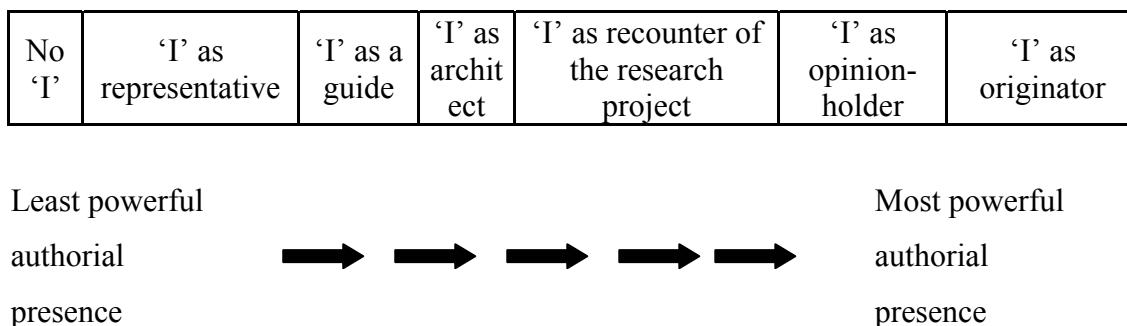


Figure 1: Tang and John's First Person Taxonomy (1999, p.29)

As clearly shown in Figure 1, the most powerful authorial presence is the use of first person as opinion- holder and originator. Two extracts from my data can be examples of the most powerful authorial presence according to Tang and John's first person taxonomy:

(1) *I* believe that the technique outlined above can usefully be added to a teacher's repertoire of feedback methods and that in addition to the benefits of other kinds of feedback, it can go further in helping learners to gain a feeling of autonomy in their writing, and in producing longer term improvements in their writing ability (ELTJ 6)

(2) The Most teachers, *I* believe, would find themselves in agreement with Wright's assertion, and would probably not surprised to hear that storytelling in one from or another was a particularly prominent feature in Eggins and Slade's (1997) study of co.ee-time conversations among workfriends. (ELTJ 3)

In both of the extracts stated above (examples 1-2), the writers are expressing what their own way of thinking on a particular subject area is and therefore they hold responsibility for their views. In other words, they are face to face with the members of their scientific community; have to support what they are thinking, and are open to all potential opposition to their statements. In other words, in support of their ideas, they state, in a most direct way, by asserting their presence with the first person singular *I* in their scientific texts.

What Tang and John say of originator function of their taxonomy is that it 'involves the writer's conception of the ideas and knowledge claims which are advanced' (p.29). Therefore, using *I* in scientific articles as what John and Tang call originator carries a high-risk for the owner of them while the use of *I* as representative carries low-risk. Although the uses of *I* carrying functions of authorial presence ranging from the least powerful to most powerful according to John and Tang's taxonomy, all the uses of *I* put the academic writers alone in front of their scientific community. Therefore, it can be concluded that *I* has *exclusive* semantic reference. In other words, use of *I* by academic writers in scientific texts excludes the readers from such texts and reinforces the ownership of writers in their texts. Hyland's researcher informants may well be an indicative of researchers putting emphasis on ownership:

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.

(Interview with Sociology researcher)

The personal pronoun 'I' is very important in philosophy. It not only tells people that it is your own unique point of view, but that you have believed what you are

saying. It shows your colleagues where you stand in relation to the issues and in relation to where they stand on them. It marks out the differences. (Interview with Philosophy researcher)

(2005a, p. 181)

Although the above researcher informants of Hyland put emphasis on the use of *I* and supports its use, some other researcher informants make statements the other way around:

I don't think the use of "I" is appropriate as it gives personal opinions.

(Interview with an MA student)

Though I'm not sure if "I" is acceptable, I'd avoid using it because it gives some kind of self opinion while most of the content in a thesis needs to be objective I think, my supervisor would also cross out instances of 'I' (Interview with a PhD student)

(2005b, p. 143)

In scientific texts, although scientific writers use first person plural *we* rather than first person singular *I*, they may also exclude potential readers from their texts. Therefore, a first person plural pronoun *we* has either inclusive or exclusive semantic reference. To put it succinctly, exclusive *we* refers to writers only, whereas inclusive *we* refers to both readers and writers. Extracts from my data can be useful to make the use of exclusive and inclusive *we* much clearer:

(3) *We*, however, could not have included all the techniques found in the literature, so our list is far from being complete due to deliberate negligence of some minor techniques.

(Ex1 - SSJC 2)

(4) *We* decided on a set of informal guidelines to structure the implementation of the project; these included ideas about how to organize the notebooks.

(Ex1 - ELTJ 1)

(5) According to Dewey, reflection helps our personal growth because it is the means how *we* free ourselves from a single point of view and the possible negative effects of one point of view.

(Incl – SSJC 3)

(6) Secondly, we need to become aware of what conventions in English are, and look at how these may or may not ‘feel right’ to speakers of other languages.

(Incl – SSJC 8)

In the examples of the exclusive *we* above (Examples 3-4), although researchers use the first person plural pronoun, it is clear that *we* refers to only the writers themselves. However, in the examples of inclusive *we* (Examples 5-6), the researchers speak not only for themselves but also for their readers and peers by including them in their texts as owners of their statements.

Inclusive *we* ‘personalizes the text’ (Harwood, 2005b: 346) and constructs involvement of readers by cooperative endeavor of writers and readers (Wales, 1980). Therefore, inclusive *we* constructs a unity between the writer and the reader and puts them together. As in Hyland’s words ‘Readers are most explicitly brought into the text as discourse participants by the use of personal pronouns, most commonly the inclusive *we*’ (2001: 557). Hyland’s researcher informants show how inclusive *we* achieves this:

I often use ‘we’ to include readers. I suppose it brings readers out something of the collective endeavor, what we all know and want to accomplish. (Interview with a Marketing researcher) (p. 560)

In other words, it can be said that writers construct collectivism by the use of inclusive *we* including their readers within their texts.

Part of what you are doing in writing a paper is getting your readers onside, not just getting down a list of facts, but showing that you have similar interests and concerns. That you are looking at issues in much the same way they would, not spelling everything out, but following the same procedures and asking the questions they might have. (Interview with Biology researcher)

I often use ‘we’ to include readers. I suppose it brings out something of the collective endeavor, what we all know and want to accomplish. I’ve never thought of it as a strategy, but I suppose I am trying to lead readers along with me. (Interview with Medicine researcher)

(Hyland 2005a, 182-183)

The above researcher informants of Hyland are good examples of how academicians considered inclusive *we* in terms of collectivism that it brings into their writings. However, it is striking in the second informant that the researcher uses inclusive *we* in academic texts with a purpose in mind despite not having thought the use of inclusive *we* as a strategy. Therefore, while using inclusive *we* the writers have some kind of purpose in mind, however some of the writers preferring to choose it in their texts do not take it as a strategy at least before thinking on it.

Inclusive *we* can also be used with the aim of reducing the writers' responsibility in their knowledge claims being imperfect (Harwood, 2005b). Therefore, researchers need to be cautious while choosing to use inclusive *we* as it comprises both collectivism and escape from the responsibility of their knowledge claims. In other words, scientific writers do not only use *we* as to bring collectivism to their texts but also to avoid potential criticism to their texts.

Use of exclusive *we* despite its representing a plural meaning keeps out the reader from the writers' texts even in single authored ones and it is used with an aim to reduce personal involvement. However, it does not always achieve to reduce personal involvement as expected (Hyland, 2001). Therefore, it is sometimes 'tricky' to determine the use of *we* as exclusive or inclusive. In other words, determining whether the first person pronoun *we* has an inclusive or exclusive semantic reference is sometimes hard to decide.

In his study on exclusive and inclusive pronouns Harwood (2005b) suggests that:

... the writers in the hard fields use exclusive *we* to refer to themselves because their disciplines frown upon *I* usage. However the occurrence of exclusive *we* in any field, whether hard or soft, could be a case of what Quirk et. al. (1985) call the 'editorial *we*', chosen by a single author because of 'a desire to avoid *I*, which may be felt to be somewhat egotistical'

(p. 373)

Quirk's comment on exclusive *we* as 'somewhat egotistical' is clearly stating that, writers use of exclusive *we* can not be clearly understood and it does not go any further of a prediction.

(7) Below, we would like to cite some authentic examples from both speaking and writing situations where in each there is a cultural element or elements that may attract reaction leading to a communication breakdown between interlocutors. (SSJC 1)

In the extract above (Example 7), even in a single authored text, the writer uses exclusive *we*. However, it is clear that writers' choice of exclusive *we* in this extract is whether 'a desire to avoid' or any other purpose in the mind of the researcher.

2.5. Disciplinary Differences in the Use of Pronouns

In the world of science, there are various disciplines. In his taxonomy of disciplines Becher (1989) divides them into soft and hard fields. As Harwood (2005a) states:

...when we speak of the hard fields we are referring to the sciences, and when we speak of the soft fields we are referring to the humanities social sciences. The soft and hard fields are then further divided into pure and applied groupings. Very broadly, pure fields can be said to be more 'reflective' and theoretical, while the applied fields are 'active' and practical (p. 1214-1215).

This categorization does not mean a total distinction among the disciplines having both similarities and differences but as Harwood (2005a) states 'can foreground important disciplinary similarities and differences that might have otherwise gone undetected' (p.1215). Therefore, it is considered that the use of first person pronouns in academic writing consists of disciplinary variations even in the same discipline as Hyland (2002) states '... academic writing is not uniformly faceless prose as it is often thought to be, but displays considerable differences between disciplines' (p.352). In the light of his study conducted on 240 published journal articles from eight different disciplines he adds that '...writers in the hard sciences and engineering prefer to downplay their personal role to highlight the issue under study, while a stronger identity is claimed in humanities and social sciences papers (p. 352).

In hard sciences where research includes a more defined actions, it is not common to use pronouns to present writers' presence as Hyland (2005a) states:

In the sciences it is common for writers do downplay their personal role to highlight the phenomena under the study, the replicability of research activities, and the generality of the findings, subordinating their own voice to that of unmediated nature (p.181).

Therefore, it can be concluded that in hard sciences, researchers try to diminish their individual contribution in terms of their visibility with the use of personal pronouns in their texts. However, according to Harwood's (2005a) study conducted on the use of first person pronouns (I and we) in 40 journal research articles in four different disciplines (Business & Management, Computing Science, Economics, and Physics), it is found that '... even supposedly 'author evacuated' articles in the hard sciences can be seen to carry a self promotional flavour with the help of personal pronouns (p.1207).

When it comes to soft sciences (e.g. humanities and social sciences) personal pronouns appear to be employed more than in hard sciences. In the light of the results of his study of personal attribution in 240 research articles in eight disciplines ranging from hard to soft sciences, Hyland (2001) reports a higher frequency of personal pronouns in social sciences and humanities. The underlying reason why writers use personal pronouns in humanities and social sciences is as Hyland states that 'connections are generally more particular, less precisely measurable and less clear-cut than hard sciences...successful communication depends to a larger extent on the author's ability to invoke a real writer in the text (p.216).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

3.1. Introduction

This study focuses on Turkish academicians' preferences regarding the use of first person pronouns in articles published in SSJÇ, and on similarities and differences of the use of these pronouns by scholars published in ELTJ.

In this chapter, I will provide information about the research design, selection of discipline, journals and articles, building the corpus, and data analysis.

3.2. Research Design

This study was conducted with a descriptive research design aiming to determine the tendencies of scientific writers whose native language is Turkish and scientific writers whose native language is other than Turkish, both groups employing first person pronouns in journal articles. Both quantitative and qualitative data was elicited and analysed in this study.

3.3. Selection of the Discipline and Journal Articles

As stated in the previous chapter, Becher (1989) divides disciplines into two main groups: hard and soft sciences. The discipline chosen here was English Language teaching which is subsumed under soft sciences. Two journals were chosen for the corpus of the study: the Social Sciences Periodical of Çukurova University (SSJÇ) and English Language Teaching journal (ELTJ). Eight articles from each journal (16 in total) were selected considering similarities in terms of research design in a period of five years (2000-2005) to determine the preferences of academicians on the use of first person pronouns in their scientific articles. For the benefit of the study, all scientific articles included in the study were single authored. This gives the opportunity to all writers to be able to use the first singular pronoun *I* when and if desired to.

3.4. Building the Corpus

Having selected the articles to be included in the corpus of the study, I converted all the articles to text format. All the abstracts, footnotes, end notes, reference lists, titles were deleted. The extracts including first person pronouns *I* and *we* which did not belong to the writers of the articles were also deleted as I only focused on the use of first person pronouns used by the writers. Examples of such extracts are as follows:

One of the ST states that “I could not show my supervisor that I had improved my teaching as a result of his feedback on my previous teaching.” (SSJÇ 6)

Willis and Willis (1996) are among the many researchers who have drawn attention to the limitations of discrete item approaches to language teaching, such as the traditional PPP (presentation, practice, production) approach, noting that language is ‘so vast and varied that we can never provide learners with a viable and comprehensive description of the language as a whole’ (ibid:63). (ELTJ 3)

The corpus consists of 44, 237 running words in total after the deletion of the parts which were irrelevant to the aim of our study. (see Table 1-2)

Table 1. Number of Words in each Article before the Deletion

	SSJÇ	ELTJ
1 st	4007 words	3688 words
2 nd	3945 words	2793 words
3 rd	3715 words	3997 words
4 th	2688 words	3521 words
5 th	5826 words	3674 words
6 th	3133 words	3314 words
7 th	5424 words	3925 words
8 th	3733 words	4440 words
Total	32,471 words	29,052 words

Table 2. Number of Words in each Article after the Deletion

	SSJÇ	ELTJ
1 st	3051 words	2798 words
2 nd	3204 words	2427 words
3 rd	2382 words	2607 words
4 th	1782 words	2546 words
5 th	3778 words	3277 words
6 th	2616 words	2776 words
7 th	3175 words	2394 words
8 th	2776 words	2612 words
Total	22,764 words	21,473 words

The mean article length is 2764 words. As the length of the articles varies among the selected ones, I tallied the numbers to the occurrences per 1000 words in the frequency analysis.

3.5. Data Analysis

Data in the corpus were scanned with WordPilot 2002 concorder (<http://www.compulang.com>) to find the occurrences of *I* and *we*. Frequency analysis was conducted to provide quantitative data for the analysis of the first person pronouns in scientific journal articles. In addition, first person pronouns used in these articles were analyzed qualitatively. All the occurrences were studied in context to ensure that they belong to the writers.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, it is aimed to present the analysis of data obtained from the corpus of the study. In addition to quantitative analysis of the data, this chapter also deals with qualitative analysis by including extracts taken from the corpus of the study to reinforce interpretation of the results.

4.2. Frequency of First Person Pronouns

The results of the analysis of the corpus including 16 scientific articles from two scientific journals (SSJÇ and ELTJ) showed that the scientific writers of both journals use first person pronouns in their texts. The number of first person pronouns in ELTJ is 83 and 58 in SSJÇ. Differences in frequency of first person pronouns (25) show that researchers whose native language is different from Turkish use first person pronouns much more frequently than ($1.5 \text{ per } 10^3$) than those researchers whose native language is Turkish (see Tables 3 and 4).

Table 3. Frequency of First Person Pronouns in Total

	N. of words	N. of first person pronouns
SSJÇ	22764	58
ELTJ	21473	83
Total	44237	141

Table 4. Frequency of First Person Pronouns (Tallied to the Occurrences Per 10³ words)

	n. of words	n. of first person pronouns	Occurrences of first person pronouns per 1000 words
SSJÇ	22764	58	2.5
ELTJ	21473	83	3.8

4.3. Frequency of First Person Pronouns in Between

Among the number of occurrence of first person pronouns (58), scientific writers of SSJÇ chose to use *I* 9 times (15.5 %) and *we* 49 times (84.4 %). The difference between the use of first person pronouns *I* and *we* (40 times, 68.9 %) shows that scientific writers of SSJÇ preferred to use first person pronoun *we* substantially more than first person pronoun *I*. This might suggest that general tendency in the use of first person pronouns by scientific writers of SSJÇ is towards *we* (see Table 5).

Table 5. Use of First Person Pronouns in SSJÇ

	Total n. of first person pronouns	n of I	Percentage of I	n. of we	Percentage of we
SSJÇ	58	9	15.5 (%)	49	84.4 (%)

Among the number of occurrences of first person pronouns (83), scientific writers of ELTJ chose to use *I* 44 times (53 %) and *we* 49 times (46.9%). The small difference between the use of first person pronouns *I* and *we* (5 times, 6.1 %) shows that scientific writers of ELTJ preferred to use first person pronoun *I* and *we* equally. This might suggest that scientific writers of ELTJ prefer to use both first person pronouns in their articles without favouring one pronoun precisely (see Table 6).

Table 6. Use of First Person Pronouns in ELTJ

	Total n. of first person pronouns	n of <i>I</i>	Percentage of <i>I</i>	n of <i>we</i>	Percentage of <i>we</i>
ELTJ	83	44	53 (%)	39	46.9(%)

When SSJÇ compared with ELTJ in terms of frequency of the first person pronoun *I*, the former had smaller frequency of occurrence of *I* (9 times, 0.3 per 10³ words) than the latter (44 times, 2.0 per 10³ words). The following are excerpts from these journals:

(8) As a conclusion *I* would like to add that in our age of high technology we can experience the power of change more profoundly than past generations. (SSJÇ 3)

(9) Only when *I* started to search for windows into the teachers' thinking, did I realise that, thanks to Constructivist Approach, *I* was able to locate my personal learning theories of language teacher education in a theoretical framework. (SSJÇ 4)

(10) The point *I* want to make here is that in its overwhelming concern to develop reading fluency and aesthetic appreciation, the typical extensive reading scheme fails to pay sufficient attention to the development of learners' target language systems.

(ELTJ 2)

(11) *I* believe that the technique outlined above can usefully be added to a teacher's repertoire of feedback methods, and that in addition to the benefits of other kinds of feedback, it can go further in helping learners to gain a feeling of autonomy in their writing, and in producing longerterm improvements in their writing ability.

(ELTJ 6)

The difference between the frequency of *I* is 35 (1.7 per 10³ words). This shows that the use of *I* is significantly higher in ELTJ compared to SSJÇ. The difference might suggest that the use of *I* among scientific writers whose native language is Turkish is not a predominant feature of their articles despite the fact that these articles are not

totally devoid of this pronoun. On the other hand, in the articles of scientific writers whose native language is other than Turkish, the use of *I* is a predominant feature. The difference between SSJÇ and ELTJ articles in terms of frequency of first person plural *we* (10 times, 0.8 per 10³ words) does not seem to be clear. This result shows that both the scientific writers of SSJÇ and ELTJ used the first person plural *I* at a similar quantity. Therefore, this result might suggest that the preference of scientific writers whose native language is Turkish and those whose native language is other than Turkish is similar (see Table 7).

Table 7. The Comparison of Frequency of *I* and *we* in SSJÇ and ELTJ articles

	Total n. of words	Frequency of I	Frequency of I per 1000 words	Frequency of we	Frequency of we per 1000 words
SSJÇ	22764	9	0.3	49	2.1
ELTJ	21473	44	2	39	1.8

4.4. Frequency of Inclusive *we* and Exclusive *we*

Out of the total 49 occurrences of first person plural *we* in SSJÇ, 39 were used as inclusive (79.5 %), and 10 (20.4) as exclusive. The following are excerpts from articles of this journal regarding usages of this pronoun:

(12) Piaget's theory has centred upon the claim that *we* internalise knowledge and perceive the world through mental representation or construction (Roth 1990 in Roberts 1998). (Incl. SSJÇ 4)

(13) According to Dewey, reflection helps our personal growth because it is the means how *we* free ourselves from a single point of view and the possible negative effects of one point of view. (Incl. SSJÇ 3)

(14) Below, *we* would like to cite some authentic examples from both speaking and writing situations where in each there is a cultural element or elements that may attract reaction leading to a communication breakdown between interlocutors. (Excl. SSJÇ 1)

(15) In this and the following sections, having surveyed a large literature on teaching and learning vocabulary we have tried to exhibit major methods and techniques. (Excl. SSJÇ 2)

The difference in the number of occurrences of *we*(29) as inclusive or exclusive (59.1 %) shows that scientific writers whose native language is Turkish preferred using inclusive *we* with greater frequency than exclusive *we*. Despite the articles having only one writer, the use of *we* instead of *I* was striking. This may arise from reasons such as ‘personal choice, and the influence of individual personality, confidence, experience, and ideological preference...’ (Hyland, 2005a: p.191). Therefore, it is somewhat hard to determine which specific reason or reasons scientific writers were affected by while choosing to use *we* instead of *I* in such one-authored articles (see Table 8).

Table 8. Frequency of Inclusive *we* and Exclusive *we* in SSJÇ

	Total n. of <i>we</i>	Frequency of incl. <i>we</i>	Percentage of incl. <i>we</i>	Frequency of excl. <i>we</i>	Percentage of excl. <i>we</i>
SSJÇ	49	39	79.50%	10	20.40%

Out of 39 of occurrences of first person plural *we* in ELTJ, 15 were used as inclusive (38.4%), and 24 (51.5) as exclusive. The following are excerpts from articles of this journal regarding usages of this pronoun:

(16) We discussed the benefits of various modes of defining and explaining vocabulary, including translation, parts of speech, pronunciation information, English definitions, example sentences, collocations, antonyms and synonyms, and pictures, as well as ideas about organizing the back section of the notebook with word families, mind maps, grammatical groupings, etc.

(Excl. ELTJ 1)

(17) We listened to the tapes, pausing them to identify where turnovers should have been made, what nomination signals the students were using unconsciously, and how to pick up on them.

(Excl. ELTJ 8)

(18) This, however, is to deprive students' academic vocabulary of a useful phrase; it is also avoiding an issue which needs to be addressed if we are to hold out any hope of taking learners to the full limit of their potential as academic writers.

(Incl. ELTJ 4)

(19) It was hoped that by providing the learners with a positive model of independent learning we would help to equip them with strategies that would empower them to become more autonomous in other areas of their learning.

(Incl. ELTJ 1)

The difference between the number of occurrences of *we* (9) as inclusive or exclusive (13.1 %) shows that scientific writers whose native language is other than Turkish preferred using exclusive *we* much more than inclusive *we*. This result might suggest that scientific writers had a tendency to use exclusive *we* which may be interpreted as an indication of a desire to state their authorial presence in their articles in ELTJ despite the fact that *we* was used with a higher frequency than *I*. (see Table 9).

Table 9. Frequency of Inclusive *we* and Exclusive *we* in ELTJ

	Total n. of <i>we</i>	Frequency of incl. <i>we</i>	Percentage of incl. <i>we</i>	Frequency of excl. <i>we</i>	Percentage of excl. <i>we</i>
ELTJ	39	15	38.40%	24	51.50%

The difference in the number of inclusive *we* (24 times, 1.1 per 1000 words) between SSJÇ and ELTJ clearly shows that WTs used inclusive *we* with a higher frequency than those of scientific writers whose native language is other than Turkish. This result may show that scientific writers of SSJÇ have a tendency of using first person plural *we* mostly as inclusive rather than exclusive. The following two excerpts are from articles of SSJÇ regarding usages of this pronoun:

(20) We know less about how newly qualified second or foreign language teachers manage to cope with the complexities of real classrooms and to what extent they make use of the preparation they receive from teacher education programmes. (Incl. SSJÇ 5)

(21) Otherwise, we will spend years of class time for exercises based on structure instead of enriching learners' literacy experiences. Hence, this will kill learners' creation of meaning for functional communicative purposes. (Incl. SSJÇ 8)

On the other hand, use of exclusive we by the scientific writers of ELTJ was higher (14 times, 0.7) than those of scientific writers of SSJÇ. The following two excerpts are from articles of ELTJ regarding usages of this pronoun:

(22) We decided on a set of informal guidelines to structure the implementation of the project; these included ideas about how to organize the notebooks.

(Excl. ELTJ 1)

(23) In A, as we have noted, the phrase is positioned between contrasting qualities of the subjects under discussion: 'various [methods]' on one side, 'only one way' on the other.

(Excl. ELTJ 4)

This difference shows that scientific writers of ELTJ had a tendency of using first person plural we as exclusive. This may suggest that scientific writers of ELTJ may be reinforcing their authorial presence in their articles by using exclusive we more often. This choice may give them an opportunity to state their authorial ownership for their own articles by maintaining a distance between themselves and their readers. (see Table 10)

Table 10. Frequency of Inclusive we and Exclusive we in SSJÇ and ELTJ

	n. of words	Total n. of we	Incl. we	Incl. we per 1000 words	Excl. we	Excl. we per 1000 words
SSJÇ	22,764	49	39	1.7	10	0.4
ELTJ	21,473	39	15	0.6	24	1.1

As the above mentioned tables suggest, WOTs use first person pronouns with a greater frequency than WT in their scientific articles and in terms of the use of we having a semantic reference preferred using inclusive we with greater frequency than exclusive we.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Conclusions

This thesis focuses on the use of first person pronouns in scientific journal articles by scientific writers whose native language is Turkish and those other than Turkish.

As the purpose of this study was to investigate whether scientific writers whose native language is Turkish use first person pronouns in their scientific journal articles, a corpus was constituted including scientific journal articles written by them. In addition to this, in order to make a comparison between these scientific writers and the others whose native language is other than Turkish, scientific journal articles were also added to the corpus of the study. The data obtained from the corpus helps us to determine whether WOTs use first person pronouns and whether there is a difference between these writers and WOTs. The data obtained from the corpus of the study was also used to determine whether there is a difference between the use of first person pronouns as inclusive or exclusive.

Regarding the research questions of this study, for (1) do Turkish writers choose first person pronouns in their scientific articles to show their presence? we found that this group of writers use first person pronouns in their articles to show their presence. Among first person pronouns used, first person plural pronoun *we* is used much more when compared to first person singular *I*. Therefore, it can be said that when choosing to use first person pronouns in scientific articles, the use of first person plural *we* is mostly preferred by WTs. Only in two of the articles in SSJÇ, (SSJÇ 3-4) we could observe *I* being used only 9 times. This preference may stem from various reasons such as cultural and educational background, self-esteem and beliefs on the use of first person pronouns in scientific articles.

The results of the study also reveal that there is a slight difference between the use of first person singular *I* and first person plural *we* by WOTs. This shows that these writers choose to use first person pronouns *I* and *we* to a great extent equally.

Regarding the second research question, whether there is a difference in the preference of using first person pronouns as exclusive or inclusive between Turkish and other academicians whose native language is different from Turkish, this study yielded results suggesting that both WT_s and WOT_s chose to use inclusive and exclusive *we*. However, when the two groups of writers are compared with each other, we can see that WT_s used inclusive *we* much more than WOT_s. This result may show that WT_s have a preference of using first person inclusive *we* mostly while WOT_s had a preference of using exclusive *we*. The use of exclusive *we* may be regarded similar to the use of *I* since they both belong to scientific writers themselves; in other words, they both exclude the reader from the text. Therefore, it can be stated that WOT_s when compared to WT_s mostly preferred to use exclusive *we* to clearly indicate their authorial presence.

5.2. Implications for ELT

As was discussed in Chapter 1, in Turkey, no such studies were conducted on the use of first person pronouns in scientific writing. However, as stated in Chapter 2, many studies were carried out in this field, and being aware of the use of these pronouns is vital as Kuo states ‘a knowledge of the strategic use of personal pronouns is of great value to journal article writers’ (p.136). Moreover, use of first person pronouns helps researchers to display their presence in their scientific texts and ‘... market the research from the start ...’ (Harwood; 2005a, p. 1226) Therefore, it is important to raise awareness in potential writers, particularly, in learners of English trying to excel in writing. Keeping this in mind, we should include in the curriculum the use of personal with their varying aspects in order to raise awareness in learners regarding tactical use of these pronouns in academic writing. By doing this, we can help learners to build awareness as to when and where they should decide to use such pronouns in their scientific writing.

As stated in Chapter 1, scientific writing thought to be impersonal and most style manuals and texts books have suggested the use of impersonality in scientific texts (Hyland, 2002). However, it can not be concluded that academic writing is totally against the use of personal pronouns; it does not set strict rules on the use of these pronouns in academic texts. Therefore, there has been an incompatibility between what most style guides and texts books suggest and what the real situation is. This

incompatibility may affect students who may wish to be academicians and puts them in a situation where they feel that they lack insight and confidence regarding the use of pronouns in their would-be texts. For this reason, we should not impose on students our personal views regarding the use of pronouns in scientific writing; rather, we should direct them to discover the use of such pronouns in scientific texts themselves, and thus decide on their own, with the help of corpus based studies, as to which pronoun to employ.

5.3. Suggestions for Further Research

The results obtained from corpus about the use of first person pronouns are limited to ELT setting with a limited number of scientific articles; for this reason, investigations of corpora including more scientific articles should be pursued to support the findings of this study.

In this study, sections of articles were disregarded since the purpose of the study was to investigate the overall use of first person pronouns in selected articles. Unlike many studies conducted on the sections of scientific texts such as Swales'(1990) on introductions, and Brett's (1994) on results, the current study is unable to provide information where pronouns are likely to cluster. Therefore, for further research, use of first person pronouns can be investigated depending on separate sections of articles such as abstract, discussion, conclusion, etc.

In this study, only the use of *I* and *we* were under investigation as personal pronouns. However, object, adjective and possessive pronouns related to *I* and *we* can also be investigated in terms of function and frequency to reflect the author's intention and purpose.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Corpus Contents

<u>SSCU</u>	<u>Coding</u>
1. Bada, E. (2000). Culture in ELT. <i>Social Sciences Journal of Çukurova University</i> , 6 : 6, 100-110	SSJÇ 1
2. Genç, B. (2004). New trends in teaching and learning vocabulary. <i>Social Sciences Journal of Çukurova University</i> , 13 : 2, 117-126	SSJÇ 2
3. Genç, B. (2004). The nature of reflective thinking and its applications for in-service teacher education. <i>Social Sciences Journal of Çukurova University</i> , 13 : 1, 235-243	SSJÇ 3
4. Okan, Z. (2000). I've been a constructivist and didn't know it. <i>Social Sciences Journal of Çukurova University</i> , 6 : 6, 330-337	SSJÇ 4
5. Okan, Z. (2002). Learning to teach English: from practicum to first year teaching. <i>Social Sciences Journal of Çukurova University</i> , 9 : 9, 172-185	SSJÇ 5
6. Paker, T. (2000). Teaching practice from student teachers' perspective. <i>Social Sciences Journal of Çukurova University</i> , 6 : 6, 111-118	SSJÇ 6
7. Sarıgöz, İ. H. (2000). An analysis of teaching practice by ELT teacher trainees. <i>Social Sciences Journal of Çukurova University</i> , 6 : 6, 264-279	SSJÇ 7
8. Tüm, G. (2003). Turning students' isolated sentence-based texts into coherent compositions. <i>Social Sciences Journal of Çukurova University</i> , 12 : 12, 29-38	SSJÇ 8

ELTJ

1. Fowle, C. (2002). Vocabulary notebooks : implementation and outcomes. *ELT Journal*, 56 : 4, 380-388 ELTJ 1
2. Green, C. (2005). Integrating extensive reading in the task-based curriculum. *ELT Journal*, 59 : 4, 306-311 ELTJ 2
3. Jones, R. E. (2001). A consciousness-raising approach to the teaching of conversational storytelling skills. *ELT Journal*, 55:2, 115-163 ELTJ 3
4. Lake, J. (2004). Using ‘on the contrary’ : the conceptual problems for EAP students. *ELT Journal*, 55 : 2, 137-144 ELTJ 4
5. Linder, D. (2004). The internet in every classroom? using outside computers. *ELT Journal*, 58 : 1, 10-17 ELTJ 5
6. Muncie, J. (2000). Using written teacher feedback in EFL composition classes. *ELT Journal*, 54 : 1, 47-53 ELTJ 6
7. Nunn, R. (2000). Designing rating scales for small group interaction. *ELT Journal*, 54 : 2 , 169-178 ELTJ 7
8. Sayer, P. (2005). An intensive approach to building conversation skills. *ELT Journal*, 59 : 1 , 14-22 ELTJ 8

Appendix 2: First Person Pronouns in SSJÇ

First Person Plural *we*

SSJÇ 1

1. It is here that we see how speakers view and perceive the world in which they live and share with other societies.

2. Below, we would like to cite some authentic examples from both speaking and writing situations where in each there is a cultural element or elements that may attract reaction leading to a communication breakdown between interlocutors.

3. From the dialogue, we cannot really tell whether it is a male or a female who had the accident.

4. We can clearly see that such a statement, indeed, holds true for four of the examples cited here.

5. Viewed from this perspective, we see that the word interesting is in fact inappropriate in this context, since it has a positive connotation in English, and what is intended to be expressed in the excerpt, is something with a negative connotation. The word unusual would probably fit well.

6. We cannot exactly tell whether the speaker in this excerpt is a male or a female. This text is, however, full of anarchism.

7. Here, we have seen that cultural literacy/awareness is of extreme significance in enabling our verbal and non-verbal behaviour to be meaningful for our interlocutors.

8. Despite the fact that the course did not have improving basic skills as a main objective, we still see that learners, some how, individualised instruction, each benefiting from it in their own way.

9. Such a language behaviour of EFL students suggests that no matter how we, instructors, try to confine courses into their predefined frameworks, students will eventually produce individual interpretation of instruction, associating it with their own priorities in language learning.

10. Since learning takes place in different situations and different forms, we asked students if they were able to detect similarities and/or contrasts between native and target societies.

11. By learning about a particular society other than ours, we also bring into consciousness some characteristics inherent in our own society and culture.

12. To many, this may not seem to be directly conducive to a language learning process; however, it is indeed, the society in which we see the language being used with all its styles and forms reflecting particular patterns of thinking.

SSJC 2

1. Although John Haskell (1980) suggested we drop the term teaching vocabulary in favor presenting vocabulary, and present vocabulary in context, he did not elaborate on his idea in detail; he sufficed to advise not to put the words on board by

definition, either in the first or the target language and to skip or guess or seldom look up a new word just as the native speakers do.

2. Now, we will continue explaining some of these principles.

3. In this section we will focus on some vocabulary teaching techniques recommended and applied by the experts.

4. In this and the following sections, having surveyed a large literature on teaching and learning vocabulary we have tried to exhibit major methods and techniques.

5. We, however, could not have included all the techniques found in the literature, so our list is far from being complete due to deliberate negligence of some minor techniques.

6. Before carrying on with the techniques we should remind our audience what the criterion of knowing a vocabulary item is.

7. We, however, should remind our audience that even though there are a number of techniques advised by either the experts or amateurs, there is no empirical evidence to prove the possible relationship between explicit vocabulary teaching and improvement in the lexical quality.

8. We have adapted the list of mnemonic techniques provided by Irene Thompson (2003):

9. In the history of English Language Teaching, teaching of grammar has dominated the language courses but we should not forget that it is possible to

communicate without the knowledge of grammar but it becomes unthinkable to do it without the cognizance of vocabulary.

SSJC 3

1. According to Dewey, reflection helps our personal growth because it is the means how we free ourselves from a single point of view and the possible negative effects of one point of view.

2. Via reflection we could reframe problems in a variety of ways, think of alternative point of views and change our perspectives (Roberts, 1998). Dewey emphasizes the importance of reflective thinking giving an example from the nature.

3. Yet, besides being presence to an experience what we need is reflective attitudes to trigger a reflective action.

4. A study carried out by Munby and Russell (in 1993) verifies the judgment we have quoted above.

5. As a conclusion I would like to add that in our age of high technology we can experience the power of change more profoundly than past generations.

6. We, the teachers, are not exempted from this highly competitive situation,so we should also try to develop ourselves and improve the quality of our job.

7. We, the teachers, are not exempted from this highly competitive situation,so we should also try to develop ourselves and improve the quality of our job.

SSJC 4

1. Kelly uses the term construct to refer to bipolar concepts we use to construe the world, that is to interpret our reality and to predict future events.

2. Before discussing how constructivism have affected ELT, we need to clarify constructivism as a general approach to learning.

3. We need to mention Piaget's contribution to the development of constructivism.

4. Piaget's theory has centred upon the claim that we internalise knowledge and perceive the world through mental representation or construction (Roth 1990 in Roberts 1998).

5. As for the major tenets of constructivism, first, we need to mention that constructivist perspective recognises the personal dimension of learning to teach.

SSJC 5

1. We know less about how newly qualified second or foreign language teachers manage to cope with the complexities of real classrooms and to what extent they make use of the preparation they receive from teacher education programmes.

2. The questions that need to be posed then are: how can we enhance the reflective skills that Berliner mentions during pre-service teacher education so that

student teachers will be able to interpret their own experiences of learning to teach? Is it possible to review our understanding of theory-practice relationship in our programmes?

3. Can we reduce the differences between university courses, which are seen as the theoretical component of the programme, and practice teaching as ‘practice’?

4. Here, as Richards and Pennington (1998, p. 187) put it, we see teacher education as “inadequate in providing a foundation of values and practices that could successfully challenge the overwhelming influence of the status quo of the teaching context.”

5. Again, related to the impact that teaching context has on the teachers’ development, we see that first year teachers shift away from what they have learned during their preservice training to what the institution they work in demands.

SSJC 6

1. Therefore, when choosing a mentor in a TP school, we must be very careful and know the CV of the mentor. The present situation is, for example, when a school is chosen as a TP school for ELT Department, all the teachers teaching English are considered as mentors.

2. As a result, we have this kind of issues.

3. We can state that 38% of them were lucky to teach 7 or more hours, which means they have had more feedback from their mentors and supervisors to be aware of their teaching performance.

4. Since they have expressed their observation and experience so explicitly that we have quoted them as stated:

5. When doing or coordinating such an organization, we should consider them and take some measures as much as we can.

6. When doing or coordinating such an organization, we should consider them and take some measures as much as we can.

7. To sum up all the issues and the controversies that the student teachers have encountered we have classified them as follows:

8. We should have detailed criteria to choose them.

SSJC 8

1. As a consequence of encouraging students to produce their own sentences, we, teachers, need not to spend excessive class time on non-contextualized or isolated grammar exercises since this type of approach results in mechanical drills rather than critical thinking on the context.

2. By drawing our learners' attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language, we can motivate them to assert this as a potential facilitator for the acquisition of linguistic competence (Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1985, p. 274).

3. Otherwise, we will spend years of class time for exercises based on structure instead of enriching learners' literacy experiences. Hence, this will kill learners' creation of meaning for functional communicative purposes.

First Person Singular *I*

SSJC 3

1. Now I would like to discuss these attitudes.

 2. My constant reflection facilitates my thinking as I consider instructional materials, activities, and the lessons I prepare and assign (Sharp, 2003: 243).

 3. My constant reflection facilitates my thinking as I consider instructional materials, activities, and the lessons I prepare and assign (Sharp, 2003: 243).

 4. As a conclusion I would like to add that in our age of high technology we can experience the power of change more profoundly than past generations.
-

SSJC 4

1. As the title of the article suggests, that is how I personally felt when I first started to read on the theory.

2. . As the title of the article suggests, that is how I personally felt when I first started to read on the theory.

3. Only when I started to search for windows into the teachers' thinking, did I realise that, thanks to Constructivist Approach, I was able to locate my personal learning theories of language teacher education in a theoretical framework.

4. Only when I started to search for windows into the teachers' thinking, did I realise that, thanks to Constructivist Approach, I was able to locate my personal learning theories of language teacher education in a theoretical framework.

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Appendix 3: First Person Pronouns in ELTJ

First Person Plural pronoun *we*

ELTJ 1

1. We therefore saw the use of vocabulary notebooks as a possible vehicle to more independent learning.

2. However, we believed that all people have the ability to be self-directing if they are given the right environment and support (Head and Taylor 1997).

3. It was hoped that by providing the learners with a positive model of independent learning we would help to equip them with strategies that would empower them to become more autonomous in other areas of their learning.

4. We also wanted to help the learners to identify on a more personal level with what was being taught in the language classroom, and felt that vocabulary notebooks could also assist in achieving this.

5. We identified strongly with Puchta and Schratz in believing that the effort required to implement change in the learning styles and experiences of teenagers should reap ample rewards in a 'snowball fashion' (1993: 1).

6. Puchta and Schratz also realistically maintain that a move towards 'cooperative independence' (op. cit.: 3) requires continued patience and motivation from the teacher/s implementing the change; we therefore saw this transition as an ongoing process.

7. We also believed that vocabulary learning should be central to the language programme, and that our learners needed help to develop the necessary skills for processing and learning new lexical items.

8. We also believed that vocabulary notebooks could complement other classroom activities aimed at increasing the learners' lexical competence.

9. The first stage involved reaching a consensus amongst the teachers working on the programme about how the vocabulary notebooks would be implemented, and sharing ideas about how we could best present the concept of the notebooks to the students.

10. We also considered how we could train them in the use of vocabulary notebooks to ensure that they were a vehicle to more independent learning styles.

11. We also considered how we could train them in the use of vocabulary notebooks to ensure that they were a vehicle to more independent learning styles.

12. We had a workshop in which ideas were presented and discussed, and issues and concerns were raised.

13. We decided on a set of informal guidelines to structure the implementation of the project; these included ideas about how to organize the notebooks.

14. We chose an A–Z format at the front of the notebooks, complemented by sections at the back for recording lexical sets, grammatical groupings, etc.

15. We discussed the benefits of various modes of defining and explaining vocabulary, including translation, parts of speech, pronunciation information, English

definitions, example sentences, collocations, antonyms and synonyms, and pictures, as well as ideas about organizing the back section of the notebook with word families, mind maps, grammatical groupings, etc.

16. We held the belief that the learners should be exposed to a variety of techniques and, with guidance, be helped to discover which methods best suited their own learning styles.

17. We also used published materials to assist learners in dealing with new words, for example, ‘Learning Words’ in *A Way with Words* (Redman, Ellis, and Viney 1996), and ‘Talking about language’ and ‘Learning vocabulary’ in *English Vocabulary in Use (Elementary)* (McCarthy and O’Dell 1999).

18. Finally, we decided that, as the vocabulary notebooks had become a key part of the programme in the Centre, we should include them in the continuous assessment of the students.

19. Finally, we decided that, as the vocabulary notebooks had become a key part of the programme in the Centre, we should include them in the continuous assessment of the students.

ELTJ 3

1. While the five elements outlined above give the story its structure, there is one further element which we need to consider.

2. In Version 2, however, the reaction is fused with various evaluative elements, and we are told that the uncle ‘walked straight over to the table, picked up the keep-fit book and tossed it straight into the bin.’

3. In the story we examined above, S2 makes supportive back-channel noises ('uh huh'), shows appreciation of the uncle's misfortune ('Good grief!'), and at one point engages in a 'collaborative completion' (Eggins and Slade 1997: 252) of S1's utterance ('all the gear, yeah')TM.

ELTJ 4

1. This, however, is to deprive students' academic vocabulary of a useful phrase; it is also avoiding an issue which needs to be addressed if we are to hold out any hope of taking learners to the full limit of their potential as academic writers.

2. We can isolate the two clauses from each side of the phrase and be left with two statements implying opinions in opposition: 'You'll get tired of it' and 'I shall enjoy it'. But the context is explicitly conversational, where one person is directly and immediately contradicting (i.e. saying the opposite of) a statement made by another.

3. If we isolate the two so-called opposite statements here, we are left with 'It doesn't seem ugly' and 'I think it's rather beautiful'.

4. If we isolate the two so-called opposite statements here, we are left with 'It doesn't seem ugly' and 'I think it's rather beautiful'.

5. In A, as we have noted, the phrase is positioned between contrasting qualities of the subjects under discussion: 'various [methods]' on one side, 'only one way' on the other.

ELTJ 5

1. Distinguishing between the two is a skill that we can foster through the application of Eastment's guidelines, and through the repetition of Internet-based activities, as this skill comes with time.

ELTJ 6

1. If, however, we reconsider our aims to incorporate long-term improvement in writing ability, the usefulness of this short-term technique becomes less obvious.

2. We could also add to our aims the general educational principles that teachers 'have only been really successful when they have made themselves redundant', and that they ought to 'encourage learner autonomy, not teacher dependence' (Lewis 1993: 188).

ELTJ 7

1. Yet there are compelling reasons to assess what we teach, not the least of which may be that students in institutional settings take activities which are assessed more seriously.

2. An attempt to set up realistic conditions of performance is an important feature of construct validity, but we should never forget that a task only simulates real-life communication.

ELTJ 8

1. We have come to recognize that conversation ‘involves far more than knowledge of the language system and the factors creating coherence in one-way discourse; it involves the gaining, holding, and yielding of turns, the negotiation of meaning’ (Cook 1989: 117).

2. Secondly, we need to become aware of what the conventions in English are, and look at how these may or may not ‘feel right’ to speakers of other languages.

3. In total, we devoted ten class hours over a two-week period to looking at how conversations are managed.

4. We contrasted this with one where the learners did engage in negotiation:

5. We listened to the tapes, pausing them to identify where turnovers should have been made, what nomination signals the students were using unconsciously, and how to pick up on them.

6. We contrasted these with the following example, where the learners demonstrate that ‘turns to speak are valued and sought and thus the majority of turns in any conversation consist of only a single sentence’ (Coulthard 1977: 61).

First Person Plural pronoun *I*

ELTJ 1

1. As vocabulary notebooks are essentially a means of recording and consolidating understanding of new items of lexis, I will consider them primarily in relation to Schmitt's 'Consolidation strategies' (1997).

2. For this I will use the framework provided by Wenden (1991: Chapter 5), which includes the development of cognitive and self-management strategies, as well as changes in metacognitive knowledge and attitudes.

ELTJ 2

1. The point I want to make here is that in its overwhelming concern to develop reading fluency and aesthetic appreciation, the typical extensive reading scheme fails to pay sufficient attention to the development of learners' target language systems.

2. I amnot suggesting that such texts be the only source of reading input, but they are remarkably valuable: writers gain an audience, readers gain comprehensible materials which themselves are the products of a task-based approach, and teachers gain access to a rich source of learning material.

ELTJ 3

1. Most teachers, I believe, would find themselves in agreement with Wright's assertion, and would probably not be surprised to hear that storytelling in one form or another was a particularly prominent feature in Eggins and Slade's (1997) study of co.ee-time conversations among workfriends.

2. Indeed, in an informal count which I kept during a seven-day period of interacting with family, colleagues, and friends, no less than 40 anecdotes and personal narratives cropped up in our conversations.

3. In this article I will attempt to describe some of these features, and then go on to propose a consciousness-raising activity designed to help students become aware of them as a first step towards developing their own storytelling skills.

4. An approach which I have found effective when introducing some of the features of conversational anecdote described above combines Willis and Willis's approach with the use of picture stories.

5. After doing some initial vocabulary work, I ask the learners to imagine that the main character is their uncle, and relate the incident to a partner.

6. I monitor this and give some feedback on grammar and vocabulary.

7. Then I give out transcripts of two versions of the story. Version 1 is simply a bald narrating of events with little elaboration, while Version 2 contains many of the features of orientation and evaluation described earlier.

8. I begin by reading Version 1 to the learners, and follow this with a reading of Version 2 in which one learner takes the part of S2.

9. After asking for their comments on the two versions, I then give out a set of questions directed towards consciousness-raising, following the Willis and Willis model described above.

10. In this article I have attempted to describe some of the features of conversational storytelling, and to suggest how the teacher might set about teaching them.

11. I noted in the introduction that storytelling plays a significant role in everyday conversation, and that it should, therefore, form a part of second language conversation courses.

ELTJ 4

1. I gave 32 international students on a British university foundation course a cloze test involving 15 real-world texts from Internet sites with the target phrases removed, eight of which required the subjects to insert on the contrary and seven on the other hand.

2. A cursory appraisal of a few samples from the cobuild corpus (17.12.02) would seem to confirm the phrase's status as contrastive in usage: the pairs of terms that I have italicized in these examples appear on opposite sides of the phrase in question, and are generally conceptually opposite:

3. But in the example used in the second definition there lies an implicit problem that I had overlooked until it was brought to my attention by my puzzled students.

4. As an informal litmus-test, I asked several teachers how they would explain the phrase on the contrary to international students.

5. I put some more real-world examples from texts on the Internet (see Appendix) to the test with a further international group of EAP foundation-course students.

ELTJ 5

1. I would like to suggest several ways that teachers in these situations can harness some of the potential of the Internet for teaching English.

2. I hope to help practising classroom English teachers overcome both accessibility and availability limitations of the situations in which they teach by outlining networking possibilities using outside computers.

3. Therefore, as I have mentioned above, students should check on the quality of the information provided on any given web site, and determine the person, entity, or organization responsible for it.

4. I hope that all practising classroom English teachers, especially those in less-than-ideal teaching situations, will feel more encouraged to use the Internet in their teaching.

ELTJ 6

1. I suspect that the majority of EFL composition teachers are further required to evaluate their students' work at least once during a course.

2. At this point I should mention that I am primarily concerned with written feedback on content and organization rather than on surface-level errors, as these areas

are more central to the context of my research, which was academic writing at university level.

3. At this point I should mention that I am primarily concerned with written feedback on content and organization rather than on surface-level errors, as these areas are more central to the context of my research, which was academic writing at university level.

4. I will illustrate my point using an example of mid-draft feedback presented in White and Arndt's book on process writing (ibid.: 126).

5. I mentioned above that the overwhelming picture which one gets from the literature on the subject is that the aim of EFL composition classes is a short-term one—to facilitate improvement in drafts.

6. In the introduction I mentioned that feedback was 'what pushes the writer . . . on to the eventual end-product' (Keh 1990: 294).

7. One technique that I have found useful in overcoming this problem is that of getting students to produce, on the day that the compositions are returned to them and that the new cycle begins, a summary entitled 'How I can improve future compositions.'

8. This, I have argued, will only happen on middraft written feedback if it comes from the learners' peers rather than from the teacher, as only in this way will the learners really need to decide for themselves on the merit of the comments, and whether or not to include them in their revised draft.

9. With the technique I have described, students are able to use such feedback in a way that goes beyond simply improving on the draft at hand to be of direct use in the writing of future compositions, in or out of the classroom.

10. As I mentioned in the introduction, there are many established techniques and theories about the place of feedback in the writing process, all of which have their merits.

11. I believe that the technique outlined above can usefully be added to a teacher's repertoire of feedback methods, and that in addition to the benefits of other kinds of feedback, it can go further in helping learners to gain a feeling of autonomy in their writing, and in producing longerterm improvements in their writing ability.

ELTJ 8

1. I set out to discover whether intensive, direct instruction based on awareness-raising work would have an impact on student performance involving tasks requiring them to use conversational skills to interact.

2. Identifying and Rather than prescribe what the course would include, I wanted the organizing elements content to reject what the students actually needed practice with.

3. In of interaction order to isolate which aspects I would treat directly, I set an initial task.

4. In of interaction order to isolate which aspects I would treat directly, I set an initial task.

5. From recordings and transcriptions I analysed from three pairs of students during the 'before' task, certain characteristic patterns emerged.

6. None the less, I choose to treat each area separately.

7. I started by drawing the students' attention to one problem that was apparent when students did the pre-task.

8. What I hoped to develop was a sense that speaking in a conversation is not so much thinking of what to say, as it is paying attention to what the other person is saying.

9. To address the question of how to get the students to analyse their own turn-taking patterns, I broke it down even further.

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