WRITER VISIBILITY AND READER ENGAGEMENT IN UNIVERSITY

STUDENTS' ARGUMENTATIVE ESSAYS

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BOĞAZİÇİ UNIVERSITY

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Thesis Abstract

Duygu Çandarlı, "Writer Visibility and Reader Engagement in University

Students' Argumentative Essays"

This study investigates interactional metadiscourse markers in the argumentative essays of Turkish and American students. It attempts to find out to what extent L1 and L2 essays of Turkish learners of English show the features of writer and reader presence in comparison with the essays of monolingual American students. Learner corpora consist of 48 English and 45 Turkish academic essays written by first year Turkish university students. These corpora are compared with the sub-corpus of the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS). Corpus-based textual analysis is carried out to uncover the frequency and functions of first person pronouns, boosters, attitude markers, reader pronouns, directives, shared knowledge references, questions and personal asides. Semi-structured interviews are conducted with 10 volunteer students to gain a more in-depth understanding of their opinions on their own use of metadiscourse items and their general views about self-representation and reader engagement in academic writing. The analysis is done by using the concordance program, AntConc 3.2.4. Additionally NVivo 9, qualitative analysis software program, is used to code the functions of the first personal pronouns and directives as well as the interviews.

The results suggest a statistically significant difference between L1 and L2 essays of Turkish students in terms of boosters, attitude markers, directives and questions. There is also a statistically significant difference between the English essays of Turkish and American students with regard to first person singular pronouns, attitude markers, personal asides and questions. Turkish essays have both reader and writer visibility features at the highest level. This study shows that the level of writer visibility and reader engagement of Turkish students' writing in English is far more close to native English writers than their own writing in Turkish. Textual analysis and interviews have provided evidence for the fact that Turkish students' writing in English may rely on both their cultural tendencies and English language rhetorical conventions. The results shed light on the interplay of writing instruction, cultural factors and audience awareness.

Tez Özeti

Duygu Çandarlı, "Üniversite Öğrencilerinin Tartışmaya Dayalı Yazılı

Anlatımlarında Yazar ve Okuyucuyu Görünür Kılan Öğeler"

Bu çalışma, Türk ve Amerikalı öğrencilerin tartışmaya dayalı metinlerindeki kişilerarası üstsöylem öğelerini incelemiştir. Çalışmada Türk öğrencilerin İngilizce ve Türkçe metinlerinde, yazar ve okuyucuyu temsil eden öğelerin Amerikalı öğrencilerin metinleriyle karşılaştırıldığında ne ölçüde kullanıldığını tespit etmek amaçlanmıştır. Öğrenici derlemi üniversite birinci sınıf öğrencilerinin yazdığı 48 İngilizce ve 45 Türkçe metinden oluşmaktadır. Bu iki derlem İngilizce anadil koşut derlemi olan Louvain'in alt derlemi ile karşılaştırılmıştır. Derlem tabanlı metinsel analiz; birinci kişi zamirleri, vurgulayıcılar, tutum belirleyicileri, okuyucu adılları, buyrumluklar, ortak bilgi göndergeleri, sorular ve açıklayıcı ek belirleyicilerin sıklığı ve işlevlerini ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla yapılmıştır. Daha sonra 10 gönüllü öğrenci ile kendi metinlerinde kullandıkları kişilerarası üstsöylem öğeleri ve genel olarak akademik metinlerde bu öğelerin kullanımıyla ilgili düşüncelerini öğrenmek amacıyla yarı yapılandırılmış görüşme tekniği kullanılmıştır. Metinsel veri çözümlemesi AntConc 3.2.4 adlı yazılım ile yapılmıştır. Birinci kişi zamirleri ve buyrumlukların işlevleri ve görüşmeler NVivo 9 adlı nitel yazılım kullanılarak işaretlenmiştir.

Çalışmanın bulguları Türk öğrencilerin İngilizce ve Türkçe metinleri arasında vurgulayıcılar, tutum belirleyicileri, buyrumluklar ve sorular açısından istatiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark ortaya çıkarmıştır. Türk ve Amerikan öğrencilerin İngilizce metinleri arasında ise birinci tekil kişi zamiri, tutum belirleyiciler, sorular ve açıklayıcı ek belirleyiciler bakımından istatiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark ortaya çıkmıştır. Hem yazar hem de okuyucuyu metinde görünür kılan öğeler en çok Türkçe kompozisyonlarda görülmektedir. Bu çalışma, incelenen kişilerarası üstsöylem öğeleri göz önünde bulundurulduğunda, Türk öğrenciler tarafından yazılan İngilizce kompozisyonların kendi yazdıkları Türkçe metinlere kıyasla Amerikalı öğrencilerin İngilizce kompozisyonlarıyla daha çok benzer özellik gösterdiğini tespit etmiştir. Metinsel analiz bulguları ve öğrencilerle yapılan görüşmeler dikkate alındığında, Türk öğrencilerin İngilizce metinlerini oluştururken hem kendi kültürel artalanlarından hem de İngilizce'nin sözbilim özelliklerinden etkilenerek metinlerini yazdıkları söylenebilir. Çalışmanın sonuçları yazılı anlatım derslerinde verilen eğitim, kültürel nedenler ve okuyucu farkındalığı gibi etkenlerin etkileşimine ışık tutmaktadır.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter describes the study and outlines the background of it. It presents the rationale, aims and significance of the study.

Background to the Study

It has been widely acknowledged that writing is a social and communicative engagement between the writer and the reader, which suggests that it has an interactive nature rather than a monologic one (Hyland, 2005a). The concept of engagement, a component of Hyland's interaction model (2005b), is based on the Bakhtinian notion of dialogism which regards language as inherently dialogic (Bakhtin, 1981). According to Bakhtin, all language users tend to express their opinions by taking the real or imagined audience into account. In the case of student writing, the concept of audience is rather vague, as the students write their essays for the instructors to receive a grade or for their peers to get feedback. Nevertheless, they might have imaginary audience in their mind. Although it is highly likely that students have difficulty in engaging in a dialogue with their instructors because of the power-relation and lack of audience awareness, it is possible for students to project their authority and construct a dialogue with their instructors and/or imaginary audience. In this way, they can become participating members of a wider discourse community and contribute to the on-going dialogue (Tang, 2009). However, to what extent novice student writers manage to do it in their native and

foreign language is questionable. Greene (1995, p. 188) argues that it is "always provisional, depending not only on the author's ability to develop intellectual projects of their own, but also upon the authorizing principles that exist in the social structures of schooling and the conventions of academic inquiry". It is pointed out that student writers are influenced by the wider discourse community, previous writing instruction and cultural conventions.

Cross-cultural differences can occur between native and foreign language writers' texts, which may be partly attributed to L1 influence, known as contrastive rhetoric (CR) (Kaplan, 1966). Kaplan argues that in addition to L1, rhetoric is also culture-bound. Likewise, CR studies suggest that the notion of effective writing may change from one culture to another, and writing conventions are taught through formal education (Connor, 1996). Although CR tends to be a controversial concept, divergences in terms of paragraph organization, reader vs. writer responsibility, indirectness devices, rhetorical appeals and reasoning strategies between the essays of native and non-native speakers of English can be explained by different rhetorical and cultural patterns of L1 to some extent (Uysal, 2008).

Hinds' typology (as cited in Ädel, 2006) of languages as reader-responsible and writer-responsible is also closely linked with CR. Though this typology has been severely criticized for its oversimplification, it may shed light on some languages and cultures from a general perspective. According to Hinds (as cited in Ädel, 2006), English language cultures tend to be considerably writer-responsible, which means that it is the writers' responsibility to identify the points clearly and organize the text in an orderly and detailed manner. On the other hand, in reader-responsible cultures, it is expected that the reader will draw reasonable inferences from the texts regarding

the intended message. Likewise, Hyland (2002a, p. 1110) also argues that "authorship in academic writing in English both carries a culturally individualistic ideology and places the burden of responsibility for the truth of an assertion heavily on the shoulders of the writer." Overall, it may not be possible to identify a certain culture as reader- or writer-responsible because it can depend on many factors, such as background of the writers and genres. However, awareness of these cross-cultural differences and tendencies is crucial for non-native writers to produce a pragmatically appropriate text since being unaware of these cross-cultural variations may result in pragmatic failure as Connor (1996) suggested.

Recent studies in CR emphasize the need to examine both L1 and L2 writing, interview and observe the writers, investigate the effect of L1 and L2 writing development by using quantitative and qualitative methods, which means that CR reinforces social constructivist theories of writing that relates writing closely with the specific context (Connor, 2002). Additionally, the social constructionist view attaches a great importance to writer-reader relationship in academic writing by emphasizing the writer's awareness of the audience and communication with the readers (Hyland, 2001). In addition to social constructionist theory of writing, systemic functional linguistics approach has recognized the value of interpersonal aspect of writing. These frameworks acknowledge the view that language use is relevant to specific social, cultural and institutional context (Hyland, 2005b). If student writing is regarded as "situated interpersonal and interactional behavior" (Candlin, 2010, p. 18), self-representation is a fundamental aspect of writing, which is worth examining.

In sum, the frameworks of Bakhtinian notion of dialogism (1981) in combination with Hyland's (2005b) interaction model (which will be elaborated in

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the next section) underlie the examination of how student writers represent themselves and their readers in their essays.

Rationale and Aim of the Study

The overall aim of the present study is to examine the writers' stance and reader involvement in native and non-native student argumentative essays with regard to the students' language and cultural background. My motivation comes from my experience and observations as a foreign language learner and teacher. Turkish students even with advanced level of English proficiency may fail to create persuasive and effective arguments because of using pragmatically inappropriate interactional metadiscourse markers in their English essays. The relevant literature which will be presented in the next section suggests that metadiscourse substantially contributes to the success of the text by improving interactivity and interpersonal aspect of the text, indicating the writer's certainty and hesitations, guiding the readers into the arguments and engaging the readers in a dialogue (Ädel, 2006; Hyland, 2005a; Mauranen, 1993). It seems that if metadiscourse items are used appropriately in a text, writers will achieve their goals easily.

Even though the link between the use of metadiscursive elements and the quality of writing is beyond the scope of this study, some researchers have provided considerable evidence for the fact that good essays include a greater number of and pragmatically more appropriate metadiscourse features than the poor essays, and the density of voice is closely linked with the overall quality of the essays (Intrapat & Steffensen, 1995; Zhao & Llosa, 2008). Ädel (2006, p. 200) also states that "issues regarding how much metadiscourse or writer/reader visibility to employ in writing are far from self-evident, but need more explicit attention in the ESL classroom." It

appears that writer and reader visibility is an essential part of academic writing which requires explicit teaching in foreign language education classes. Teaching these features explicitly might help students to write more effectively in English.

As it will be seen in the next chapter, there is a great deal of research that deals with different aspects of metadiscourse in various genres, languages and context. Nevertheless, to the best of my knowledge, writer-reader interaction in Turkish EFL students' academic writing has been a neglected area of research. Thus, I intend to investigate writer and reader visibility features in the English and Turkish essays of Turkish students in comparison to the corpus of native speaker students. The textual analysis is presented in combination with their views' of their own usage patterns and general opinions on the use of these features in academic writing. It is believed that the rhetorical strategies used by Turkish students may bring out their cultural background and the effect of L1 transfer, which might enrich creativity, cultural and rhetorical diversity of written academic discourse to strengthen the World Rhetorics paradigm (Kachru, 1995). Kubota (1998) points out that transfer from L1 is mostly viewed as only negative, and some studies suggest that foreign language learners adhere to L2 writing conventions instead of L1 by taking L2 conventions as the norm. However, L2 writing conventions should be enrichment and addition to one's L1 writing conventions (Kubota & Lehner, 2004). It is observed that many of the non-native English writers make use of Anglo-American rhetorical conventions and simultaneously follow the rhetorical conventions of L1. This combination of rhetorical conventions is called as interdiscursive hybridity (Mauranen, Perez-Llantada & Swales, 2010).

Significance of the Study

The present study is based on contrastive analysis of metadiscourse items, and it attempts to gain an understanding of the similarities and differences between the essays of Turkish speakers of English as well as native speakers of English and Turkish. It can be said that a learner corpus may provide useful insights into the characteristics of the language that learners use and also interference from their L1.

This corpus-based study focuses on comparative analysis of English essays written by Turkish and American students as well as Turkish essays written by Turkish students. It conducts interlanguage and cross-cultural comparisons in order to explore the effects L1 influence and culturally driven factors. This type of comparison is called Contrastive Interlanguage Analysis (CIA) (Granger, 1993). Granger argues that L1 interference (transfer) and universal learner behavior mainly account for the differences between native speaker and non-native speaker groups. Even though Hunston (2002) states that the CIA approach has a shortcoming in that it regards the native speakers' language use as the norm; however, CIA enables us to gain a deeper insight into the language use of non-native speakers and "what native/expert speakers actually do rather than what reference books say they do" (Hunston, 2002, p.212). Moreover, according to Ädel (2006), such an analysis can encompass genre comparability, register awareness, cultural conventions and learner strategies. Apart from these factors, Ädel (2008) claims that learners' untimed essays written by using reference or secondary sources include fewer reader and writer involvement features than timed essays written by using reference tools. However, not all of the features are affected by these factors. For instance, untimed essays may diminish the use of first person pronouns, and using secondary resources might

reduce questions, exclamations or disjuncts. In order to shed further light on metadiscourse strategies, the Turkish essays of Turkish students are also examined in this study in addition to their English essays. In this study, the focus will be on the interpersonal aspect of metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005a).

It is believed that this study will be an important step in exploring interpersonal aspect of students' writing since "establishing one's voice is a necessary criterion to be considered good" (Stapleton, 2002, p. 179) in academic writing. By exploring these aspects, we may gain a considerable insight into the students' use of interactional metadiscourse markers. The results of this study can be useful in enhancing students' voice in writing, which in turn may improve their writing. Hyland (2002a) argues that raising students' consciousness about the discursive features, such as voice and engagement is highly important in English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and it plays a crucial role for students to write with confidence. Hyland (2005c, p. 375) maintains that "increasingly, such interactional aspects are becoming recognized not simply as optional extras to be brushed up when students have gained control of other skills, but as central to argument." This may indicate that interactional metadiscourse markers should not be seen as an insignificant part of writing. Instead, they seem to be an integral aspect of writing that needs to be improved along with the other skills. In this study, learner essays were analyzed at the level of discourse. As discourse competence is regarded as one of the aspects of speaker's communicative competence (Hymes, 1992), it can be argued that the analysis could also provide a considerably greater understanding of the learner's communicative competence. More importantly, teachers of English and non-native students may greatly benefit from the cross-linguistic and cross-cultural studies of interactional metadiscourse since these studies might give them an

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opportunity to realize how rhetorical and discourse conventions of English are achieved by native speakers.

Definition of Key Terms

Writer Visibility

The literature shows that different terminology has been used for the concept of writer visibility in writing. While Petch-Tyson (1998) describes the concept as 'writer visibility', 'authorial presence' is used for the same concept by Hyland (2002a), Ivanic and Camps (2001), Clark and Ivanic (1997) and Tang and John (1999). Additionally, Ivanic (1998) discusses it as 'writer identity', and Ivanic and Camps (2001) also refer to the same concept as 'self-representation'. Bowden (1995) indicates that there is a paradigm shift in the concept of voice which used to be regarded as having more form and product based emphasis. Bowden argues that unlike in the past, student have been encouraged to express themselves and have a personal voice in writing with an emphasis on audience. Likewise, Ivanic and Camps (2001) describe voice in two ways. The first meaning is that writers express their own views in their writing. The second meaning of voice is self-representation by which writers refer to themselves and show their authorial presence in their writing. In addition to the self-representative nature of voice, it may also reflect social and collective voices (Matsuda, 2001). As Matsuda emphasizes (2001), voice can be defined as discursive features that "socially available yet ever-changing repertoires" (p.40). In this study, the second connotation of voice as self-representation will be examined.

Self-mention

The most obvious way for the writers to show their presence in the text is using first person pronouns. Apart from first person pronouns, this can be achieved by possessive adjectives and object pronouns "me, my, our, mine and us". "The author, the writer, the author's and the writer's" are other features that can be used to show authorial presence.

First person singular pronouns

First person singular pronoun (*I*) should refer to the current writer of the text in order for the pronoun to be regarded as metadiscursive (Ädel, 2006). Therefore, simply counting the first person pronouns in an essay does not determine their functions. Identifying discourse functions of the personal pronoun *I* may be useful to figure out whether an essay has an argumentative nature.

Boosters

Boosters (also called intensifiers or emphatics) are expressions which emphasize certainty and close down alternatives (Hyland, 2005). In addition to self-mention devices, boosters play an important role in highlighting the presence of writers in the text. Petch-Tyson (1998) categorizes boosters as writer-visibility devices. Likewise, Hyland (2005a, p. 78) points out that "boosters establish an individual presence in the discourse." Besides self-mention devices, boosters can be considered as another feature to strengthen writers' presence in the text.

Attitude markers

Attitude markers express the writer's attitude to the proposition that s/he presents. Attitude markers also play a key role in establishing solidarity with readers, which indicates that they can also be considered as engagement devices in addition to their stance functions (Hyland, 2005a; McGrath & Kuteeva; 2012). By using attitude verbs, adjectives and adverbs, writers signal their own affective attitudes and involve their readers into discourse through shared attitudes and values (Hyland, 2005a).

Reader Engagement

It is generally pointed out that the notion of audience and reader engagement in writing is significant, which means that writers interact with their readers and form a dialogue with them while writing (Hyland, 2005a). However, as argued in Hyland (2005c), it may be difficult for students "who are not used to seeing writing as interactive or to imagining the perceptions, interests and requirements of a potential audience" (p.364). Since students seem to have an abstract notion of audience, their writing tends to be somewhat voiceless and interpersonal. Nevertheless, Ivanic and Camps (2001, p. 5) claims that "there is no such thing as impersonal writing" since writers, even student writers, can represent themselves and engage in a dialogue with their readers by using a range of resources that are shaped by their cultural backgrounds.

Reader pronouns

Reader pronouns are the most obvious way of interacting with the readers. This can be done by reader pronouns "you, your" and inclusive pronouns "we, our and us".

Also, "the reader" can be used to address readers; however, it is a very uncommon feature of student essays (Hyland, 2005a).

Directives

Directives guide readers into carrying out an action or understand the things in a way that writers want. Directives can be in the form of imperatives, obligation modals and predicative adjectives expressing importance and/or necessity (Hyland, 2005a).

Questions

Questions are evident means of establishing a relationship with readers in the text. Questions directly involve the readers in a dialogue by attracting their interest and attention. Hyland (2005a) states that generally rhetorical questions are asked in texts in order to convey an opinion. In this way, writers relate themselves to their readers. In this study, the operational definition of questions corresponds to syntactic form involving any independent interrogative clause, tag or sentence fragment that is followed by a question mark as it is described in Hyland (2002c).

References to shared knowledge

Shared knowledge references are an explicit way of rhetorically positioning the readers by guiding them into identifying with particular views. With shared knowledge references, such as *obviously* and *of course*, writers manipulate readers into acknowledging their opinions and sharing a mutual understanding. Unlike directives which tend to be a more imposing strategy, writers seek cooperation from readers in the argument by giving them a role in the discourse (Hyland, 2005a).

Personal asides

Personal asides are another reader-oriented strategy of maintaining a writer-reader relationship. Personal asides, which are generally employed between parentheses or dashes, provide a metacomment on the writer's argument with a view to offering an alternative interpretation and enhancing understanding. Although they seem to present the writer's own voice and interrupt the ongoing discourse, personal asides are intended to develop a dialogue with the readers by writers who have an active audience in mind (Hyland, 2005a).

This chapter has introduced the present study. In the next chapter, previous studies on interactional metadiscourse will be reviewed.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter introduces the theoretical and analytical framework of this study. An overview of the recent studies will be presented and discussed within the theoretical framework of the study.

Theoretical Background

Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse can be basically defined as the language that writer use to make a reference to themselves, readers and the text itself. Throughout the literature, various terms have been employed to make a reference to interaction and interpersonality in academic texts instead of metadiscourse. Evaluation is used by Hunston and Thompson (2000) to point out writers' affective responses or opinions about the topic. Halliday (1985) suggested the term attitude for these linguistic resources, and Martin (2000) depicts them as appraisal which is defined as writers' affect, judgment and appreciation of the issues presented. Stance is also introduced (Biber & Finegan, 1989) to express writers' views and opinions. Nevertheless, metadiscourse is widely acknowledged and used as an umbrella term for both stance and engagement resources (Crismore, 1989; Hyland & Tse, 2004).

Metadiscourse is rooted in Halliday's (1985) three-part model of the metafunctions of language that are *representational* (ideational), *exchange* (interpersonal) and *message* (textual). Ideational function refers to the propositional

content. Interpersonal function represents the writer's stance toward the proposition and readers. Lastly, textual function is related to the organization of the text itself.

There have been two approaches to metadiscourse: narrow and broad. The narrow approach views metadiscourse as the linguistic elements of text organization. Mauranen (1993) introduces metadiscourse as metatext and text reflexivity. She identified references to the text, discourse labels (to illustrate, as noted earlier etc.), addressing the reader and internal connectors as the categories of text reflexivity. However, the category of addressing the reader is obviously concerned with writer-reader relationship, which is related to the reader of the text rather than the text itself. This may suggest the fuzzy nature of metadiscourse and difficulty of what should be considered as a metadiscursive element. Schiffrin (as cited in Ädel, 2006) also takes the narrow approach to metadiscourse and classifies metalinguistic referents (former, latter etc.), metalinguistic operators (like, for example etc.) and verbs (tell, assert etc.) as metatalk. The researchers who take the narrow approach to metadiscourse seem to disregard writers and readers of the text by just focusing on the text and writing itself. However, writing is a social action and a way of communication between writers and readers (Ädel, 2006; Hyland, 2005a). The broad approach to metadiscourse gives great importance to both writers and readers of texts. Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore (1989) and Hyland (1998) adopt a broad approach to metadiscourse. Vande Kopple (1985) divides metadiscourse into two main categories: textual and interpersonal metadiscourse. Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen (1993) take a more reader-oriented approach to metadiscourse and categorize metadiscourse into two main categories that are textual and interpersonal, which is similar to Vande Kopple's categorization (1985). Nevertheless, Crismore's taxonomy (1989) is more detailed in that she attempts to identify a scale of

imposition of the metadiscursive elements on the reader. Hyland's recent taxonomy (2005a) which will be given in detail below is known to be a refined and modified version of Crismore's taxonomy of metadiscourse (1989).

Metadiscourse, which is a "cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community" (Hyland, 2005a, p. 37) is mainly based on the metafunctions of language identified by Halliday (1985). In fact, some scholars point out that the interpersonal function of metadiscourse outweighs the other two functions (Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 2005a; Vande Kopple, 1985) as can be inferred from their approach to metadiscourse and their taxonomy. Hyland (2005a, p. 41) also argued that "all metadiscourse is interpersonal in that it takes account of the reader's knowledge, textual experiences and processing needs and that it provides writers with an armoury of rhetorical appeals to achieve this." Drawing on the interpersonal aspect of metadiscourse, the term proximity, which encompasses the concept of interpersonality, was used by Hyland (2010) to make a reference to author positioning in the text in relation to readers and authors' position towards the points raised in the texts. In other words, proximity deals with how writers present themselves, readers and their own opinions in the text. In Ädel's definition (2006, p. 2), metadiscourse "refers to linguistic items which reveal the writer's and reader's (or speaker's and hearer's) presence in the text, either by referring to the organization of the text or by commenting on the text in other ways". This definition also focuses on the interpersonal aspect of writing and both the author's and reader's understanding of the text. Ädel's definition of metadiscourse (2006) is quite similar to Hyland's description of metadiscourse (2005a), and both of the definitions describe writing as a social activity and

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emphasize its interactive nature, i.e. the interactiveness between the writer and the reader. Ädel (2006) divides metadiscourse into two categories: personal and impersonal. Personal metadiscourse refers to the writer and/or reader directly as current discourse participants whereas impersonal metadiscourse involves implicit representation of both writers and readers in the text. Furthermore, some of the metadiscourse markers are a combination of both types of metadiscourse and they can be described as "participant-oriented", such as inclusive 'we'.

Metadiscourse is both a fuzzy and context-dependent category, which suggests that it is based on the context, and it is not possible to determine the exact boundaries of metadiscourse because "no taxonomy or description will ever be able to do more than partially represent a fuzzy reality" as stated by Hyland himself (2005a, p. 58).

As it is seen Figure 1, Hyland's interactional metadiscourse model (2005b) is comprised of two dimensions: Stance and engagement.
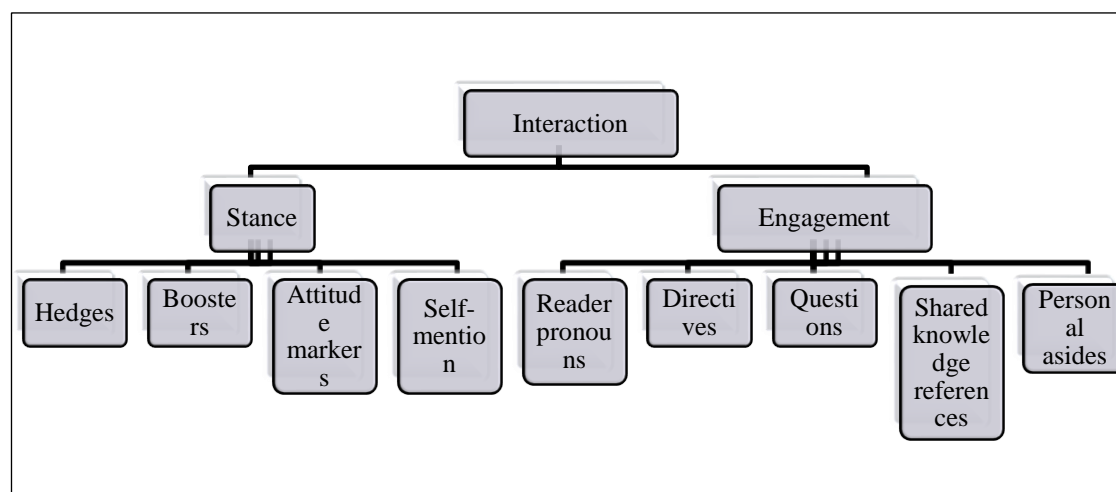
Figure 1. Hyland's academic interaction model (2005b)

Stance resources allow the writers to present themselves and express their own views and judgments, which means that writers express a textual voice by using stance resources (Hyland, 2005b). These resources are hedges, boosters, attitude markers

and self-mention. On the other hand, engagement resources enable writers to address the readers and engage them in a dialogue, which suggests that readers are involved as discourse participants (Hyland, 2005b). These resources are reader pronouns, directives, questions, shared knowledge and personal asides. Hyland (2005b) states that stance and engagement both contribute to the dialogic and interpersonal aspect of writing in that these resources recognize the presence of the readers and positions of them, which is consistent with the dialogic notion of writing (Bakhtin, 1981).

Although Hyland's academic interaction model (2005b) is useful for the overall classification and categorization of metadiscoursal features, metadiscourse is a multi-functional category as a particular metadiscourse item may have a different function in different texts or have two or more functions at the same time. As stated in Ädel (2006, p. 27), "metadiscourse cannot be regarded as a strictly linguistic phenomenon at all, but must be seen as rhetorical and pragmatic one," contextual factors are important in identifying metadiscourse items and their functions. This implies that context is important for metadiscourse categories. For instance, *of course* which is mainly categorized as a shared knowledge reference might also function as boosters in specific contexts (Hyland, 2005a).

Regarding the multifunctional and fuzzy nature of metadiscourse, some modifications to Hyland's interaction model (2005a) might be necessary. According to Hyland's model (2005b), attitude markers have stance functions; however, they can also be engagement resources in some contexts. In a recent study on stance and engagement in pure mathematics research articles, McGrath and Kuteeva (2012) argue that attitude markers are highly multifunctional, and they can be employed to engage with the readers as a rhetorical strategy apart from conveying writer's stance. Therefore, they offer an alternative model for academic interaction (see Figure 2).

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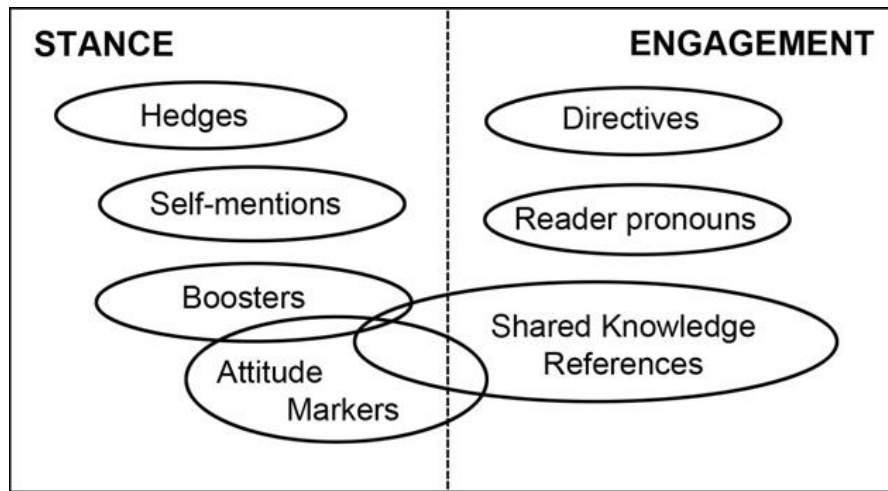
Figure 2. Alternative academic interaction model (McGrath & Kuteeva, 2012)

In this alternative model, though attitude markers principally have stance functions, they also help writers to communicate with their readers by engaging them in a dialogue as a reader-oriented strategy. In fact, the multifunctionality of attitude markers is also acknowledged by Hyland (2005a) as he states:

> Interactional meanings are largely conveyed through attitude and engagement markers in popularizations, indicating the writer's affective responses to material, pointing out what is important, and encouraging readers to engage with the topic. …. attitude markers help to impart an informal tone (p.99).

Literature Review

In this section, firstly, the previous studies on writer visibility will be outlined. Secondly, past studies on reader visibility will be discussed. Finally, related studies in Turkish context will be presented.

Writer Visibility

Metadiscourse has been extensively studied in the literature for more than a decade. Comparative and contrastive studies have been carried out on the features of native-speaker professional, native-speaker non-professional and learner texts (Ädel, 2006; Hinkel, 2003; Hyland, 2002a; Hyland, 2005c; Petch-Tyson, 1998).

Petch-Tyson (1998) investigated the degree of writer visibility in the argumentative essays of native and non-native speakers of English. The study revealed that non-native English student writers made far more use of first person pronouns in their essays, which suggested that non-native English speakers were considerably more writer visible than native English speakers in their writing. However, the influence of the students' native culture or L1 was not explored extensively in that study. According to Kasper (1992), foreign language learners' L1 and their native culture could affect their performance not only at the linguistic level, but also at the socio-cultural and pragmatic level. For instance, Hyland and Milton (1997) found out that Cantonese learners of English inappropriately overused authoritative assertions in their English texts in comparison with British student writers, which might stem from Cantonese learners' negative transfer from their L1. Different from British students, Cantonese learners of English made use of a very limited range of items in expressing their certainty and doubt.

Hyland (2002a) examined the personal pronouns in academic texts of novice students and professional writers in an L2 context. In his study, he compared Chinese students' theses with published research articles in English. He found that unlike professional writers, students used the first person singular pronouns very sparingly. Moreover, when students employed the first person singular pronouns, the discourse

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functions of these pronouns were to structure their essays or present their personal experiences rather than argue for/against something. Hyland concluded that the reason behind very little use of the first person singular pronouns in Chinese students' theses could be advice from their tutors and previous instruction. Instructional materials or students' hesitancy towards their own arguments could also account for very few first person singular pronouns in the student texts. However, this may be an expected result because student essays are contrasted with professional texts, which might be a little unfair. The writers of the professional texts might have presented their arguments more confidently and had considerably more experience in academic writing than the students.

There have been several taxonomies of the discourse functions of personal reference (*I*) created so far, and the most widely used ones are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Taxonomies of the Discourse Functions of Personal Reference (*I*)

Clark and Ivanic (1997)	Tang and John (1999)	Hyland (2002a)
Presenting personal experience	Representative of a larger group of people	Stating a purpose
Structuring the essay	Guide through the essay	Explaining a procedure
Making statements of value or belief	Architect of the essay	Stating results/claims
	Recounter of the research process	Expressing self-benefits
	Opinion holder	Elaborating an argument
	Originator of ideas and knowledge	

As seen in Table 1, these taxonomies categorize the discourse functions of the first person singular pronoun. Tang and John's (1999) classification is slightly complex to be used for student writing because students may not be an originator of ideas and knowledge in their essays. Similarly, Hyland's (2002a) taxonomy is more appropriate for research articles as there are categories, such as explaining a

procedure, stating results/claims which can be found in research articles rather than student essays. Therefore, in this study, Clark and Ivanic's (1997) taxonomy which has three categories is employed to identify the discourse functions of the first person singular pronouns. Presenting personal experiences indicates the least powerful authorial presence whereas making statements of value or belief, namely argumentation, depicts the most powerful authorial presence (Clark & Ivanic,1997). *I* as the guide though the essay helps to direct readers' attention to some points in the essay and position writers as a guide.

Hinkel (2003) examines emphatics (boosters) and downtoners in the essays of native speakers of English and non-native Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Indonesian students, and finds out that emphatics are rather frequently employed in foreign language learners' texts. However, their use of boosters is restricted to rather limited range of vocabulary used with high frequency, which means that the students tend to use the same boosters in a repetitive manner. Hinkel concludes that the abundance of boosters in learners' essays could indicate that many rhetorical traditions except for Anglo-American contexts value writers' certainty and commitment to propositions. Hinkel (2002) suggested that expressing assertiveness may be regarded as quite normal in some rhetorical conventions other than English because assertiveness might be a way of persuading readers in these cultures.

A great deal of research on metadiscourse has also focused on student essays written by native and non-native speakers of English. Ädel (2006) conducted a study within her own framework of personal and impersonal discourse by comparing the essays of Swedish learners of English with the LOCNESS (the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays). The findings of the study indicate that Swedish learners' essays contained significantly more reader involvement features and

personal pronouns than those of native speakers. Above all, unlike other students with different L1s, Swedish learners used more metadiscursive elements than the native speakers, indicating that overuse of metadiscourse features highly depends on cultural conventions for writing. Ädel (2006) hypothesizes that as L2 writing is less automatized, it would require greater cognitive-linguistic effort on the part of the users of foreign language learners. On account of this factor, L1 essays would include fewer metadiscourse markers than L2 texts. The findings of Ädel's study (2006) were similar to those of McCrostie (2008). McCrostie (2008) found that Japanese learners of English overused the first and second personal pronouns and emphatics in comparison with Swedish and French learners of English and American students. However, in these studies, the role of discourse functions of first and second personal pronouns were not investigated. Also, in McCrostie's study (2008), Japanese students' results were compared with the results which were taken from Petch-Tyson's prominent study (1998) about writer visibility in the English essays of Swedish, French and American students. This might raise the issue of comparability of the corpora because topic, task setting and time may have an effect on the use of interactional metadiscourse markers (Ädel, 2008; Granger, 1998).

There was an abundance of emphatics in the English academic texts of Japanese students. This finding was is in line with the findings of Hinkel's study (2003) on adverbial markers and tone in academic writing. Hinkel (2003) also noted that emphatics were more common in the essays of Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Indonesian learners of English than those of native speakers of English. Gilquin and Paquot (2008) also pointed out that the degree of writer visibility in the ICLE (International Corpus of Learner English) is higher in learner academic writing than the academic section of British National Corpus. They also argue that learner writing

resembles the spoken British National Corpus rather than native professional academic writing, suggesting lack of register awareness. According to them, this difference could stem from such factors as the influence of speech, L1 influence, writing instruction and lack of knowledge of formal academic writing conventions. Although these factors could account for the high degree of writer visibility, Gilquin and Paquot's study (2008) seems to have limited evidence to support the findings since they picked up some formal and informal words, such as 'perhaps and maybe', 'I think' and a few amplifying adverbs to contrast across three corpora. Furthermore, what is acceptable and desired in academic writing has been changing since there is paradigm shift in terms of voice. Hyland (2001) argues that there is a growing trend towards an increase in the use of interactional metadiscourse markers, such as self-mention and reader pronouns. He asserts that the use of these features is also advised in the style manuals of some journals. Similarly, longitudinal corpus-based studies reveal that there has been a change in the use of pronouns in academic writing over time, which may highlight the dynamic nature of writing practices (Harwood, 2006). Harwood maintains that these longitudinal studies have provided evidence for an increase in the use of the first person singular pronoun *I* and a decrease in the use of the first person plural pronoun *we* in academic writing.

Recent studies show that there is a strong correlation between the intensity of voice and the quality of L1 writing (Zhao & Llosa, 2008). As it is seen, the studies on author presence in learner writing reveal contradictory findings. While some studies have found out that learners overused first person singular pronouns with high reader involvement (Ädel, 2006; Gilquin & Paquot, 2008; McCrostie, 2008; Petch-Tyson, 1998), others have concluded that first personal singular pronouns are underused (Bayyurt, 2010; Hyland, 2002a).

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Reader Engagement

Unlike writer visibility devices, there have been fewer studies on reader engagement in academic writing. Petch-Tyson (1998) examined reader visibility through the use of reader pronouns in native and non-native students' writing and argued that non-native speakers of English were more reader visible in their writing since they employed a greater number of reader pronouns compared to native speakers of English. Petch-Tyson (1998) also claimed that writer and reader visibility might be closely linked with each other as the students who employed a lot of first person singular pronouns also used quite a few reader pronouns in their essays.

Hyland's (2001) early study on reader engagement features investigated all the five addressee features (reader pronouns, directives, shared knowledge references, questions and personal asides) in research articles, and he identified "interpersonal solidarity" and "positioning of the audience" (p.557) as two main rhetorical purposes of these devices. In Hyland's study, reader pronouns, particularly inclusive pronouns were observed to be the most frequently used engagement markers. On the other hand, shared knowledge references were the least common metadiscursive elements in the research articles corpus. He later acknowledged the importance of these markers in the students' essays and examined the functions and forms of these devices (see Hyland, 2005b, 2005c). Hinkel (2002) analyzed reader engagement resources in the English texts of Vietnamese, Chinese, Korean, Arabic, Indonesian and Japanese learners in comparison with native speakers' texts and noted that reader engagement markers were significantly overused by non-native student writers compared to native speakers, which might be seen as a reflection of group solidarity and collective identity that are inherent in these cultures.

Specifically, the most noticeable overuse was seen with regard to shared knowledge references. Hyland (2002c) examined the use of questions with their discourse functions in textbooks, research articles and student reports produced by Hong Kong undergraduates. The study indicated that while questions were most common in text books, they were underused by the students, which may suggest that questions may construct authority as well as intimacy. These roles of questions can vary according to their patterns and functions. For instance, students tended to use mainly yes/no questions to structure the discourse of their reports, which may indicate that questions appear to express sharedness rather than authority. In addition to questions, Hyland (2002b) specifically focused on directives which are regarded as risky strategies to guide the readers into the discourse and particularly argument in academic writing. As he stated, the literature has not properly dealt with the use of directives in academic writing. He identified three main categories of directives that are textual, physical and cognitive acts as can be seen in Figure 3.

Directive	Textual acts	Internal reference --- *See section 1; Refer to example 2.*
		External reference --- *See Smith, 1990*
	Physical acts	Research focus --- *the temperature must be set at....*
		Real-world focus --- *you should ask your teacher*
	Cognitive acts	Rhetorical purpose -- *consider, suppose, let's examine*
		Elaborative purpose -- *Let X = b, this should be seen as*
		Emphatic purpose --- *it should be noted that, remember*

Increasing imposition

Figure 3. Categories of directives (Hyland, 2002b, p. 218)

As it is illustrated in Figure 3, the more cognitive acts directives will instruct the readers to perform, the more imposition they require from the readers. Hyland's findings revealed that students made fewer use of directives in their reports than the

textbooks and research articles. As for the forms and functions of directives employed in the student reports, they were mainly physical acts in the forms of modals. In another study on directives (Mayor, Hewings, North, Swann, & Coffin, 2007), they investigated Greek and Chinese students' IELTS writing scripts. They found that while Greek students employed mostly cognitive directives, physical directives were more abundantly found in Chinese students' English essays. They also concluded that there was a general tendency for English learners to use considerably more directives than native speakers. According to Hyland (2005c), directives are more frequently found in hard sciences than in the soft disciplines even though papers in the soft disciplines focus more on interacting with the readers (2005c).

Hyland (2005c) investigated reader engagement and to what extent student and professional writers involved the reader in the communication process. The results revealed that student texts included markedly fewer engagement features than research articles, which had over twice as engagement features as students' texts contained. Reader pronouns were the most common devices for published articles while directives were most frequent in the student texts. Hyland (2005c) argued that reader pronouns highlighted sharedness and solidarity between the writer and the reader whereas directives tended to manipulate readers into advocating writer's arguments. Directives were generally seen as risky strategies that carried an imposition. On the other hand, reader pronouns seemed to create a relationship with the readers by directly addressing them. Hyland maintained (2002b) that the readers' authority was manifested through the choice of specific reader engagement markers, such as textual directives, reader pronouns and personal asides. Hyland (2005c) concluded that fewer engagement features in the student essays could be attributed to

institutional power, rhetorical confidence and probably cultural preferences. He also maintained that final year Hong Kong undergraduates may not have been self-confident enough to engage with their tutors by using reader pronouns and other reader engagement resources in their essays in Chinese educational setting.

Harwood (2005) examined inclusive and exclusive pronouns in academic writing. He argues that writers might be benefiting from the fuzzy nature of inclusive and exclusive pronouns as it can sometimes be difficult to decide whether *we* is employed as inclusively or exclusively. In this case, the interpretation is left to the reader. He also maintains that when used instead of *I*, exclusive *we* might mitigate the face-threatening act of *I*. Likewise, inclusive *we* may be seen as a manifestation of positive politeness when it creates a dialogism and solidarity between readers and writers. As it is seen, very few studies are conducted on reader engagement in students' essays (Hinkel, 2002; Hyland, 2005c; Mayor et al., 2007; Petch-Tyson, 1998).

<center>Related Studies in Turkish Context</center>

Earlier studies in Turkish context focused on organizational and paragraph patterns of L1 and L2 essays of Turkish learners of English within the framework of CR (Enginarlar, 1990; Oktar, 1991). Both of the studies revealed consistent findings which indicated an evidence of L2 transfer of rhetoric to L1, such as frequent use of transition signaling.

CR and metadiscourse studies have attracted increasing attention in Turkish context in recent years. Uysal (2008) investigated eighteen Turkish native speaker adults' L1 and L2 argumentative essays in terms of rhetorical patterns which were limited to overall organization of the texts, macro-level rhetorical structure,

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coherence, transition signaling, topic development and thesis statement. The results demonstrated that Turkish participants' rhetorical preferences showed similar tendencies that reflect both "stereotyped English and Asian writing preferences" (Uysal, 2008, p.194). The commonalities that existed between Turkish and English essays of the participants could indicate the bidirectional transfer. It was pointed out that overall organizational patterns and coherence were transferred in both directions. She also argued that some skills, such as paragraph patterns were not transferred in the same way, which showed that there might be a higher threshold for transferring certain skills. In addition to L2 writing knowledge, insufficient L1 writing knowledge and instruction, audience awareness, lack of L2 writing experience, topic, individual and emotional factors were discussed as potential reasons for inadequate L1 and L2 writing skills.

With regard to metadiscourse, Can (2006) examined the metadiscoursal features in the argumentative essays of monolingual Turkish students, bilingual Turkish students who wrote in English and Turkish, and monolingual American students. The findings indicated that monolingual American students employed first person pronouns and boosters more than the other groups. Therefore, it appeared that monolingual American students were more visible in their writing than Turkish students writing in L1 or L2. In addition, the study showed that the Turkish essays written by bilingual Turkish students contained more boosters than English essays written by the same group of participants, which might be attributed to cross-cultural differences in writing. Similarly, Bayyurt (2010) investigated author positioning in Turkish students' Turkish and English essays with regard to hedging and intensifiers. She adapted Hinkel's taxonomy (2007, as cited in Bayyurt, 2010) of hedging and intensifiers and added direct/indirect personal markers under the category of hedging

devices. The results indicated that Turkish students' English essays included significantly more hedging devices than their Turkish essays, which was in line with the findings of Can's study (2006). She concluded that Turkish participants of this study tended to avoid self-representation by using direct person markers very sparingly even though intensifiers were found in their essays. In addition, Turkish essays included more intensifiers than English ones written by the same Turkish students. She suggested that further research would be necessary to make cross-cultural comparisons in terms of metadiscoursal features between L1 and L2 essays including a reference corpus of native speaker texts.

In a recent study on argumentation across L1 and L2 writing, Uysal (2012) examined assertive devices and indirectness markers in Turkish and English essays of Turkish adults. According to the results, assertive devices were significantly more frequent in Turkish essays than in English essays. This result was consistent with those of Bayyurt (2010) and Can (2006). The interview data indicated that the confidence in L1 writing and previous reading experiences with Turkish texts might be one of the reasons for the extensive use of assertive devices in Turkish essays. Another expected outcome of the study is that rhetorical questions were much more common in Turkish essays, which might stem from Turkish writing instruction, audience and reading experiences with Turkish editorials. However, Turkish and English essays of Turkish students were similar in terms of the frequency of indirectness markers. Similarly, Algı (2012) investigated hedges and boosters in L1 and L2 argumentative essays written by Turkish learners of English with pre-intermediate level of proficiency by using Bayyurt's taxonomy (2010). The findings pointed out that Turkish students tended to be more certain in their L1 essays, which suggests that boosters were more frequently employed in L1 essays than in L2

essays. This result is also parallel to the findings of Bayyurt (2010), Can (2006) and Uysal (2012)'s research. One of the most frequent employed boosters were the combination of the certainty marker –*DI*r with the modality markers –m*ElI* and -*EcE*k. However, their English essays included more hedging devices, which was consistent with English writing instruction at the university level that encouraged students to soften their claims. Another important finding of the study was the evidence of pragmatic and rhetorical transfer of certain hedges, such as 'can' from L1 to L2. She observed that some participants used the negative form of 'can' as a negative ability marker in English; however, there were very few examples of such transfer in the data.

Similar to Algı's study (2012), Akbas (2012) analyzed interactional metadiscourse markers in English dissertation abstracts of native speakers of English and native speakers of Turkish as well as Turkish abstracts of Turkish speakers. It was found out that abstracts written by native English speakers contained significantly more attitude markers and self-mentions than those of other two groups. Expectedly, boosters were observed to be more frequently employed in Turkish abstracts than English abstracts. He also stated that similar rhetorical conventions and strategies were seen in the English abstracts of Turkish and English writers although the degree of reader interaction and hedging was somewhat higher in native speakers' abstracts. Can (2012) investigated attitude markers, which have been relatively underexplored in comparison with hedges and boosters, in International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE) with reference to the LOCNESS. The findings of the study showed that Turkish students used more frequent attitude markers, but these attitude markers were not as varied as the ones used by American students, which may be attributed to limited repertoire of attitude markers in English

textbooks, the foreign language proficiency and lexical competence of Turkish learners of English.

In summary, although there is a growing body of literature on CR and metadiscourse strategies in Turkish students' L1 and L2 essays, to the best knowledge of the researcher, very few studies have examined reader engagement and self-representation. It is believed that this study attempts to fill this gap by describing to what extent L1 and L2 essays of Turkish learners show the features of writer and reader presence in comparison with the essays of monolingual American students. It can be said that research on metadiscourse and contrastive studies has shifted towards the interpersonal aspect of writing from the rhetorical and organizational patterns of it (e.g. Algı, 2012; Bayyurt, 2010; Can, 2012; Uysal, 2012). It has been recognized that interactional and interpersonal features of academic writing are not extra skills that should be improved only after students have acquired adequate foreign language proficiency. As these features are one of the key aspects of academic argumentation, it is worth analyzing those features and inform EAP writing classes.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Research questions, participants and materials are presented in this chapter. Data collection and analysis procedures are also reported.

Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to investigate the similarities and differences among English essays written by Turkish learners of English, monolingual American students, and Turkish essays written by the same Turkish students with regard to writer representation and reader engagement. I will explore how students interact with their readers and how they project their own voice in their essays. The essays written in L1 context (LOCNESS and Turkish students' Turkish essays) and those written in L2 context (Turkish students' English essays) will be compared to see to what extent they differ in using engagement markers and projecting themselves as authors of the texts. This study aims to address the following research questions:

a. What kind of commonalities and variations exist in terms of the degree of writer visibility (boosters, self-mentions) among English essays written by Turkish students, Turkish essays written by the same Turkish students and English essays written by monolingual American students?

b. What kind of commonalities and variations exist in terms of the reader representation (engagement markers) among English essays written by Turkish students, Turkish essays written by the same Turkish students and English essays written by monolingual American students?

Participants

There are two different groups of participants in this study. One of them is monolingual American students who study at an English-medium university in the United States of America. The other group is bilingual Turkish students who are first-year students in the department of Foreign Language Education at an English-medium state university in Turkey.

The first group of participants consists of 40 monolingual American students (LOCNESS), all of whom study at an English-medium university in the United States of America. All of the writers were students at the University of Michigan in the United States of America. It should be pointed out that as the essays of American students are taken from the subcorpus of the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS) (Granger, 1998), the writers of those essays have not been described in detail. Thus, their departments or years of study at the university remain unknown.

The second group of participants comprises 48 (42 female, 6 male) bilingual Turkish students (BOUN-ENG), all of whom study in the Department of Foreign Language Education. They all come from similar background in that they graduated from Teacher Training High Schools all around Turkey. At the time of the study, none of them has stayed in an English-speaking country for more than six months. Similarly, only 12 of them have basic proficiency in another foreign language, such as German and French. Both English and Turkish essays were collected from the same group of participants. Moreover, out of 48 students, 29 of them attended one-year preparatory school, and 2 of them attended the school for one semester. All of

the students took the proficiency exam of their university in order to be able to start studying at their department. Thus, all the students passed their English proficiency exam.

In this study, only native and non-native students' essays are compared. While several scholars argue that native speakers' writing is not necessarily a good model for non-native speakers' writing, some researchers claim that it is "both unfair and descriptively inadequate" to compare learner writing with professional native speakers' texts (Ädel, 2006, p.205). In the light of this debate, L1 undergraduate non-native students' essays will be compared to L1 undergraduate native students because all of them are novice student writers.

Materials

The student profile questionnaire, English essays written by BOUN-ENG and LOCNESS groups and Turkish essays written by BOUN-TUR group constitute data of this study.

The Student Profile Questionnaire

Before writing their essays, students were asked to fill out the student profile questionnaire (see The Student Profile Questionnaire in Appendix A) which could help us to draw conclusions about the demographic information of the participants in terms of age, gender, nationality, preparatory school attendance, languages spoken at home, foreign language proficiency and stay in a foreign country. At the end of the student profile questionnaire, there is a consent form to be signed by the students if they want their essays to be used for the research purposes.

The Essays

Three sets of essays were analyzed in this study. The first set was obtained from the subcorpus of LOCNESS. The other two sets of essays were collected by Turkish students at a university in Turkey (see Table 2).

Table 2. Corpus Features

	Number of Essays	Word Count
Essays in English written by Turkish students (BOUN-ENG)	48	16 663
Essays in Turkish written by Turkish students (BOUN-TUR)	45	12 180
Essays in English written by American students (LOCNESS)	40	15 011
Total	133	43 854

The subcorpus of LOCNESS was selected as a reference corpus. The same corpus guidelines in terms of task setting, time conditions and non-use of secondary resources were followed in creating a learner corpus of English essays written by Turkish students and Turkish essays written by the same students. Therefore, the topic was taken from the subcorpus of LOCNESS that is available with the ICLE set of learner corpora. The English essay prompt that was used by both Turkish and American students was:

Discuss the great inventions and discoveries of the twentieth century and their impact on people's lives (computer, television, etc.). You can focus on one invention.

The Turkish equivalent of the same prompt was used for Turkish essays:

Yirminci yüzyılın büyük icat ve keşiflerinin (bilgisayar, televizyon vb.) insan hayatı üzerindeki etkilerini tartışınız. Yazıda tek bir buluş üzerinde durabilirsiniz.

As it is seen in Table 2, three corpora are comparable in terms of size as there is not much difference among their word counts. When the degree of comparability of these corpora is questioned, Bhatia's (1993) external criteria of genre are used as a basis. These external criteria of genre involve temporal factors (time of composition and the age of the writers), sociological factors (educational background of the writers), writer- and reader-related factors, such as intended audience, writer-reader relationship and aims of the writer) and topic. In terms of temporal factors, all the writers of corpora are university students of approximately the same age. Also, the time of the composition is close to one another. With regard to sociological factors, even though there is no information concerning the educational background of American students, they are at university level, similar to Turkish students. Furthermore, concerning writer-and reader-related factors, as they all aim to write an argumentative essay, they are all supposed to present their arguments and persuade their audience. Nevertheless, the notion of intended audience and writer-reader relationship may differ from one culture to another although their actual audience situations might be regarded as similar as they are all student writers. To conclude, since the essay topics are the same, the comparison of three corpora is relatively reliable. It should be noted that three corpora seem to be comparable with one another. The LOCNESS has been extensively used as a reference corpus in many research studies so far (see Ädel, 2006; Can, 2012; Flowerdew, 2010; Gilquin & Granger, 2008; Rankin, 2012).

Data Collection Procedures

Both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were used to increase the validity and reliability of the study.

Essays

English essays written by Turkish students were collected at the end of 2011-2012 fall semester (in December) in their English Composition class. There were 51 students at the time of data collection. However, as three of the students did not give consent to the future uses of the essays for research purposes, 48 essays were collected from this group. Before they wrote their essays, they were asked to fill out the student profile questionnaire and consent section of it. They were aware of the fact that they were writing their essay for research purposes not for grading. They were given one hour to complete the task. In fact, all the corpus creation guidelines of the LOCNESS concerning task setting, time and reference tools were followed while collecting data.

Turkish essays written by the same Turkish students were collected in the spring semester (in April) of 2011-2012 academic year in their Study and Research Skills class. At that time, 45 essays were collected from the same students who wrote English essays on the same topic in December. Three students were not present at the time of data collection. Therefore, the number of Turkish essays written by Turkish students was less than English essays written by the same group of participants.

After having been granted access to the LOCNESS, English essays written by American monolingual students were extracted from the subcorpus of LOCNESS. That subcorpus consisted of 43 essays. However, since three of the student writers were not monolingual, those three essays were discarded.

Interviews

Interviews are conducted with ten volunteer female Turkish students regarding their Turkish and English essays. Though the textual analysis gives us a valuable understanding of how students use interactional metadiscourse markers in order to present themselves and interact with their readers in their essays, it is thought that the interview can be useful in revealing the socio-cultural context in which the essay is written. Also, it may highlight contextual information about the writing tasks, the students' audience and academic writing practices and conventions in the specific discourse community.

Semi-structured interviews, which ensure flexibility to explore topics and themes interactively, are carried out to allow the researcher to probe for details and discuss them with the interviewees. For some guidance throughout the semi-structured interviews, open-ended questions (see Appendix B) are prepared by the researcher by taking into consideration the rules about item wording, such as using simple and natural language, avoiding negative constructions and double barreled questions etc. (Dörnyei, 2003). The interviews can contribute to data triangulation and provide us with an opportunity to further explore their use of interactional metadiscourse features in L1 and L2, sociocultural and institutional context and their general views on writer and reader visibility in academic writing through stimulated recall (retrospective) interviews. These semi-structured interviews are also in stimulated recall format in that the researcher points to the specific instances of metadiscourse use in the essays in order to enable the participants to remember why they employ these items. According to Greene and Higgins (1994), they are helpful in finding out not only what happened, but also why it happened. Therefore,

stimulated recall interviews might provide us with valuable data to figure out the interplay of writing instruction in L1 and L2, students and tutors' beliefs, practices of academic writing, discourse community preferences and their writing practices in L1 and L2. In this way, the student writers' implicit motivations and intentions can be made explicit. Just before the interviews, essays written in Turkish and English are given to the students so as to help them remember their essays since it is thought that a discourse-based format may prevent the poor recall. Rather than discussing writing in general, the discourse-based format enables us to focus on specific examples and instances of their usage patterns (Greene & Higgins, 1994). Also, interview questions are piloted with three students, and the questions have been revised accordingly. Each of the interviews is conducted separately.

Data Analysis

Turkish students' hand-written essays are rewritten on Microsoft Word by the researcher. Then, word documents are turned into a machine-readable plain text format. In the analysis stage, writer and reader visibility are investigated. In terms of writer visibility, boosters and first person pronouns are examined. In terms of reader visibility, reader engagement markers that are defined in Chapter 1 are investigated. Also, attitude markers, which are originally classified as markers of writer's stance, are analyzed, and their functions are determined. In this study, it is argued that attitude markers may function as both writer and reader visibility resources. For all of the features, the list of metadiscoursal markers that are analyzed in previous studies (Hinkel, 2003; Hyland, 2005a; Petch-Tyson, 1998) is used for this study. The list of metadiscourse items which have been used in the previous studies form a basis for the search list in this study. For Turkish essays, Turkish equivalents of those

metadiscourse markers are investigated. Turkish is an agglutinative language, and person markers are depicted on the predicate which is marked with a suffix that shows the grammatical person of the sentence (Göksel & Kerslake, 2011). Therefore, the investigation of first person singular and plural pronouns is conducted with the help of regular expressions. For instance, [ııuü]m\b is written as a search item to find out the first person marking in Turkish sentences.

In summary, the following elements (for the list of the items, please see Appendix C) are examined:

A. Writer Visibility (Adapted from Hyland, 2005a; Petch-Tyson, 1998)

1. Boosters: definitely, certain, undeniable, no doubt etc.

2. Self-mention: First person singular pronoun & exclusive *we* and their functions

3. Attitude markers (can be also reader engagement markers)*:* important, interestingly, unfortunately etc.

B. Reader Engagement (Hyland's reader engagement model, 2005a)

1. Reader pronouns: *you*, one, inclusive *we*.

2. Directives: imperatives, obligation modals referring to actions of the reader (must, ought, should, have to, need to) etc.

3. Questions

4. Shared knowledge references: of course, obviously, well known etc.

5. Personal asides: writer's comment on what has been just said, usually written between parentheses or dashes.

The analysis is conducted on the free software concordance program, AntConc 3.2.4. In the analysis procedure, firstly, each item is searched for in the software. After a listing of each occurrence of an item is generated, I click the

specific item and read the cotext of each occurrence to decide whether the item is metadiscoursal or not and the functional category of it. Additionally, the functions of the first personal pronouns are coded in NVivo 9, qualitative analysis software program. In this study, the instances of inclusive *we* and exclusive *we* are counted as metadiscursive items. In fact, there is an abundant use of *we* that refers to humanity in general; however, it is not coded as a metadiscourse device.

While analyzing metadiscourse markers, the multifunctional nature of metadiscourse is taken into account. For instance, there might be two or more metadiscourse subcategories. In this situation, all the categories and functions are counted rather than just primary ones. Furthermore, in analyzing the data, I count the linguistic units as metadiscursive when they refer to the current text, and/or current writer and/or current reader.

I also take the possible variance within a learner corpus into consideration by adopting both a global and individual approach due to the highly heterogeneous nature of learner corpora. Interesting findings are also likely to emerge if corpus data are investigated as a series of individual texts rather than as one big text (Gries, 2006). For instance, while the number of occurrences of boosters or first person pronouns is very high in one essay in a learner corpus, they may not occur in another essay, at all.

The analysis of the interviews is conducted in NVivo 9 software. I read the interview transcripts, coded the data under the main themes that emerged out of the students' statements. The coding process was recursive in that I reorganized the themes as I read the transcripts. The interviewees were given numbers, such as S1, S2 etc. While reporting the results, these codes will be used.

Statistical Analysis

It seems that quite a few studies in metadiscourse do not apply statistical tests in order to support their results with statistical evidence (Ädel, 2006; Harwood, 2005; Hyland, 2005, 2006, 2009; Mauranen, 1993). The general trend for metadiscourse studies is to calculate the frequencies per 100 or 1000 words. However, like some studies in the literature (Hinkel, 2003, 2009; Uysal, 2012) the present study supports the frequencies with statistical tests because a high number of metadiscoursal items in one essay may not represent the mean frequency of the whole group by distorting the results.

Before deciding on which statistical tests to use, tests of normality are conducted. The Shapiro-Wilk test is used since it is recommended for the sample sizes which are less than 50 (Norušis, 2010; Shapiro & Wilk, 1965). Therefore, the Shapiro-Wilk test was employed to test the normality of each metadiscoursal category in all three groups. The results of the Shapiro-Wilk indicate that most of the metadiscoursal categories, including first person singular pronouns, exclusive *we*, reader pronouns, directives, questions, personal asides and appeals to shared knowledge show non-normal distribution. The non-normality of the distribution is also clearly seen from the histograms. As parametric tests require normal distribution, the homogeneity of variance and the independence of samples, non-parametric tests are used to test the difference among the groups (Rietveld & van Hout, 2005). Although non-parametric tests seem to be less powerful than parametric tests, non-parametric tests tend to be more efficient when the samples are not normal (Norušis, 2010). In this study, Kruskal-Wallis test is applied to examine the statistical difference among groups. When Kruskal-Wallis test finds a statistically significant

difference among the groups, Mann Whitney test, a non-parametric test for two independent samples, is carried out on each pair of groups to find out which groups significantly differ from each other since the SPSS does not carry out post-hoc tests for the Kruskal-Wallis test (Norušis, 2010). In addition to Mann Whitney tests, the Wilcoxon signed rank test, a non-parametric test for two related samples, is used to evaluate the statistical differences between Turkish and English essays written by the same Turkish students.

Unlike most of the categories of metadiscourse, boosters show normal distribution. However, Levene's test indicates that the assumption of homogeneity of variance is not met in order to conduct One-way Anova test. Instead of One-way Anova test, Welch's Anova, which is alternative to One-way Anova in the case of heterogeneous variance, is carried out. As post-hoc tests, Games-Howell, which is used when the variance is not homogeneous, is conducted to test the statistical difference between the groups (Rietveld & van Hout, 2005).

Lastly, with regard to attitude markers, though the results of two groups (BOUN-ENG and the subcorpus of LOCNESS) show normal distribution, the distribution for the other group is non-normal. Therefore, Kruskal-Wallis is also conducted for this category as the parametric tests require the normal distribution for all the groups. In addition to Mann Whitney and Wilcoxon Signed Rank test that are conducted for the independent and related groups respectively, t-test is applied for the two independent groups (BOUN-ENG and the subcorpus of LOCNESS) that show normal distribution. All the statistical tests are conducted in IBM SPSS 20 statistics software. The detailed results of those tests are given in the next chapter.

Interrater Reliability

An interrater reliability analysis using the percent agreement, which was calculated in IBM SPSS 20 statistical software, was performed to determine the consistency rate between the raters. 60% of all the essays are coded by another rater who is a PhD student in English Language Education. After the second rater, who was trained before coding, completed coding the essays, the differences were compared and negotiated as much as possible. The interrater reliability was calculated by using percent agreement. With respect to an acceptable interrater reliability value, the desired threshold values for agreement differ among the scholars. While Fleiss (1981) regards the kappa values of .75 and higher as evidence of excellent agreement for interrater reliability, Fraenkel and Wallen (2002) suggests that a correlation of at least .90 among scorers or agreement of at least 80 percent can be accepted as perfect agreement. In this study, the percent agreement values for different metadiscoursal categories are as follows: 92.9 % for exclusive *we*, 94% for directives and their functions, 96.9% for appeals to shared knowledge references, 97.2% for first person singular pronouns, 97.8% for boosters, 98.6% for attitude markers, 98.6% for personal asides, 98.9% for reader pronouns and 100% for questions. According to the acceptable interrater reliability values, it can be said that there is a perfect agreement for all the categories of metadiscourse between the two raters.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter explores the results of this study in quantitative and qualitative terms. The findings are also discussed in relation to the existing literature.

Writer Visibility

This section dwells on the degree of writer visibility in English essays of Turkish and American students as well as Turkish essays of Turkish students. First person pronouns, boosters and attitude markers will be examined as writer visibility markers. It is obviously seen from Table 3 that L1 essays of Turkish essays include far more writer visibility markers compared to their L2 essays and American students' English essays in all the categories except first person singular pronouns.

Table 3. Overall Results of Writer Visibility Markers

	I		Exclusive we		Boosters		Attitude markers		Total
	F/100	%	F/100	%	F/100	%	F/100	%	F/100
BOUN-ENG	0.18*[a]	4	0.09	2	2.63*[b]	56	1.75*[c]	38	4.65
BOUN-TUR	0.25*[a]	2.3	0.19	1,7	7.37*[a]	66	3.37*[a]	30	11.18
LOCNESS	0.78	18	0.11	3	2.33	55	1.02	24	4.24
Note. *[a], *[b] and *[c] $p < .05$[1]									

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[1] *[a] The comparisons are relative to the rates of LOCNESS.
*[b] The comparison is between the groups of BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR.
*[c] The comparison indicates statistically significance both between the groups of BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR as well as BOUN-ENG and LOCNESS.

The overall results of writer visibility devices suggest that although English essays written by Turkish students tend to have a slightly higher degree of writer visibility, it is non-significant as the overall frequencies per 100 words are very close to each other. This result is in contrast to the finding of Gilquin and Paquot's (2008) study which concludes that the essays of the International Corpus of Learner English are significantly more writer visible in relation to the academic section of British National Corpus. They argue that this may stem from L1 transfer, lack of register awareness and developmental factors. Different from Gilquin and Paquot's (2008) arguments, it might be said that Turkish students of English have developed register awareness of academic writing in English to some extent, and their writing may not resemble spoken language.

In terms of writer visibility devices excluding *I*, the English essays of Turkish students share more similarities with the essays of native speakers of English than their Turkish essays, which may stem from their advanced proficiency and writing instruction in L2 as will be discussed in the next sections in detail. This finding is slightly different from the results of Uysal's (2008) study that showed close resemblance between Turkish bilingual adults' Turkish and English essays.

<u>Self-mention</u>

<u>First Person Pronouns</u>

First person singular pronouns are the most evident way of strengthening the writer presence in the texts as noted in the previous chapters. According to Hyland (2008), self-mention is a conscious preference of writers to show their authorial identity. The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test show that there is a statistically significant

difference among the groups in terms of the median ranks of first person singular pronouns, $H(2) = 17.362$, $p < .001$ as Table 4 shows above. Post-hoc Mann-Whitney test indicated that Turkish student writers of English used first person singular pronouns significantly less than American student writers ($U = 574.5$, $p < .001$), which is in line with the results of the previous studies (Bayyurt, 2010; Hyland, 2002a).

Table 4. The Frequencies of 'I'

BOUN-ENG		BOUN-TUR		LOCNESS	
Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100
31	0.18*	30	0.25*	118	0.78
Note. * $p < .05$.[2]					

There is also statistically significant difference between BOUN-TUR and LOCNESS groups, $U = 555.5$, $p = .001$ with regard to the median ranks of first person singular pronouns. Moreover, it can be observed from Table 4 that the median ranks of first person singular pronouns between English and Turkish essays written by Turkish students are statistically non-significant, $Z = -.588$, $p = .557$

First person singular pronouns are noticeably underrepresented in English essays written by Turkish students, which is consistent with the findings of Akbas (2012) who found out that Turkish students seemed to hide their authorial identity by avoiding self-mention. However, this finding stands in stark contrast to that of Petch-Tyson's study that indicated far more use of first person singular pronouns by non-native English student writers than their native counterparts. A closer look at the data indicates that the distribution of *I* is largely uneven among the individual essays of all corpora. To illustrate, whereas 12 essays of LOCNESS subcorpus do not include

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[2] The comparisons are relative to the rates of LOCNESS.

any instances of *I*, one student used *I* 32 times in his/her essay. Similarly, while there is no instance of *I* in 35 essays out of 48 in English essays of Turkish students, one student employs *I* 12 times, which may indicate the heterogeneous nature of learner data (Gries, 2006). Individual preference of the students may also account for this uneven distribution and hiding their presence in the texts. Interview data also provide evidence for that since almost all the students stated that previous writing instruction in L2 influenced their underuse of *I*. Students stated that they were taught not to employ *I* in academic writing. When students were asked why they did not prefer to use *I*, S7 answered: "*We are taught in this way. Essays are the texts in which we do not present us, there is no I and we should form objective sentences*." These statements show that most of the students are not aware that writing is a social action. Moreover, majority of the students think that the pronoun *I* belongs to informal genres. For some of the students, it sounds a bit assertive, and they think that by using *we* instead of *I*, they would soften their claims, which might partly account for the heavy use of *we* in English essays by Turkish students. Interestingly, one of the interviewees also stated that students could not show their authority with *I* as S9 says: "*since I am just a student, when* I *write 'I', my views will not be taken into consideration*." This may imply that power relations between the students and instructors might affect their tendency to avoid using *I*. Moreover, students may not be confident enough to use *I* with the roles of argumentation. Hyland (2005b, p. 191) points out that the author's "personality, confidence, experience and ideological preference" might influence their choice of pronouns in their writing. In this case, given that student writers have more or less the same experience in academic writing, their personality and confidence may play a role in their pronoun preferences. Tang

and John (1999, p. 34) also argue that "students feel insecure about the validity of their claims, seeing themselves to be at the lowest rungs of the academic ladder."

The differences in the simple frequencies of first person singular pronouns may not give us a clear picture. Ivanic (1998, p. 307) points out that "[t]here is a continuum from not using *I* at all, though using *I* with verbs associated with the process of structuring the writing….., and finally to using *I* with verbs associated with cognitive acts." This may suggest the important roles of the discourse function of *I* in terms of the authorial identity. Hence, the discourse functions of *I* can provide us with valuable insights into the usage patterns as argued by Clark and Ivanic (1997). Table 5 presents the discourse functions of *I* in the corpora.

Table 5. The Discourse Functions of 'I'

	Argumentation		Structuring the essay		Presenting personal experience	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
BOUN-ENG	9	29	7	23	15	48
BOUN-TUR	17	56	8	27	5	17
LOCNESS	35	30	10	8	73	62

Although Turkish students of English (BOUN-ENG) use the first person pronoun 'I' significantly less than American students (LOCNESS) in their English essays, their distribution of functions is similar. 29% of the occurrences of the first person pronoun 'I' are used for argumentation in BOUN-ENG corpus. Similarly, 30% of the occurrences of the first person pronoun 'I' are used for argumentation in native students' essay corpus (LOCNESS). Turkish students of English who use first person singular pronouns very sparingly in comparison with native speakers of English also differ from Swedish learners of English who make far more use of first person singular pronouns compared to the essays of LOCNESS corpus (Ädel, 2006). On the

other hand, the limited use of first person singular pronouns in English essays of Turkish students is similar to Chinese learners' tendency to avoid employing first person singular pronouns (Hyland, 2002a). Nevertheless, there is a difference as regards the discourse functions of *I* between English essays written by Chinese and Turkish students. Whereas Chinese students do not prefer to employ *I* with the discourse function of argumentation, there is a considerable number of first person singular pronouns whose discourse functions are argumentation in Turkish students' English essays. Unlike BOUN-ENG and LOCNESS groups, Turkish students employ 'I' for mostly argumentation (52%) rather than presenting their personal experiences (24%). It should be noted that when *I* is used to make statements of value or belief, it represents the most powerful authorial presence (Clark & Ivanic, 1997). As a result, it can be argued that Turkish students are likely to show the most powerful presence in their Turkish essays compared to the other groups when their usage patterns of *I* is taken into account. Even though students do not make frequent use of *I* in their Turkish essays, they occur in many instances of argumentation, which may be influenced by writing instruction in L1 and reading experiences in L1. Most of them said that their Turkish composition assignments required writing their own opinions and thoughts freely. Furthermore, some of the students mentioned that they read Turkish articles many of which include *I*.

Below are some examples of *I* used for argumentation:

(1) To sum up even if *I* agree with some of the claims about mobile phones' bad effects partially… (BOUN-ENG-6)

(2) Son olarak televizyonun yararından çok zararı olduğunu düşünüyorum ve insanların çıkarlarına hizmet etmek için kullanıldığını *düşünüyorum*. (Finally, *I think*

that television has more harms than benefits, and television is used to serve the best interests of people) (BOUN-TUR-31)

(3) *I* think that the most significant discovery or invention will depend on the individual. (LOCNESS-4).

The less powerful authorial presence than the argumentation is related to structuring the essay. The examples below demonstrate this function:

(4) In this essay, *I* will discuss the positive and negative impacts of computer on people's lives. (BOUN-ENG-39)

(5) Ben teknolojiyi incelemeye bilgisayar ve internet örneği üzerinden devam edeceğim. (*I* will continue to examine the issue of technology by exemplifying the computer and internet.) (BOUN-TUR-38)

(6) Lastly, *I* would like to discuss how all this has affected the family. (LOCNESS-16)

The least powerful authorial presence is depicted by presenting personal experiences similar to narrating function. It is shown in the following examples:

(7) When *I* have my mobile phone, *I* always want to log in Facebook and it detains me from studying my lessons... (BOUN-ENG-21)

(8) Ortaokulda iken *yaptığım* dönem ödevleri kalıcı olmuştur… (The assignments that *I* did at secondary school have resulted in permanent learning). (BOUN-TUR-19)

(9) Well, *I* applied this to the program, was accepted, & flew here form the US. (LOCNESS-32)

A closer analysis of the discourse functions of the first person singular pronouns reveal that *I* with the roles of presenting personal experiences is observed to be the most frequently used function in the essays written in English, which may

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suggest that the argumentative essays written in English by Turkish and American students might show the characteristics of a narrative. The English essays written by Turkish and American students clearly contrast with the Turkish essays in terms of the discourse roles of *I*. With regard to the roles of presenting personal experiences of first person singular pronouns, Ädel (2006, p. 199) points out that "student essays have a very high involvement factor, and are narrative rather than argumentative in character."

Exclusive we

Besides *I*, exclusive *we* which refers to the writer or writer and other groups excluding readers, is another manifestation of the writer presence in the texts, albeit more implicitly. Table 6 shows the frequencies, which are quite close to each other. Expectedly, the Kruskal-Wallis test showed that there is no statistically significant difference among the groups, $H(2) = 3.038$, $p = .219$.

Table 6. The Frequencies of Exclusive We

BOUN-ENG		BOUN-TUR		LOCNESS	
Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100
15	0.09	24	0.19	17	0.11

Even though statistically significant difference is not found in the data, Turkish essays seem to contain slightly more exclusive *we* pronouns. Triandis argues that Turkish society can be considered as a collective society, and collective societies have a tendency to use *we* to denote group-membership (as cited in Martı, 2000).

The examples below indicate that exclusive *we* is used instead of *I* in some instances:

(10) They have great impact on people. If *we* specifically discuss one item which is computer, we can clearly see the effect of it on people's lives. (BOUN-ENG-44)

(11) … televizyon yaşamımızın içine o kadar dahil oldu ki, yaşamımızın ayrılmaz bir parçasıdır *desek* yanlış olmaz. (The television has been so incorporated into our lives that it would not be wrong for *us* to say that it is an inseparable part of our lives). (BOUN-TUR-28)

(12) *We* have a system where *we* each take turns cook. *We* each have particular nights that *we* must prepare and cook a meal. (LOCNESS-38)

In example 11, exclusive *we* 'desek' refers to the argument that is put forward by the writer. Instead of *I*, the writer prefers to employ exclusive *we*. In this case, exclusive *we* may be regarded as the pluralization of *I* which might act as a modest or polite way of referring to the writer itself as Banguoğlu states (as cited in Martı, 2000).

Although we may not see extensive use of exclusive *we* in our data, some Turkish students say that *we* refers to *I* in their essays due to the fact that their instructors do not want them to employ *I* in their essays, and they avoid using I. In general, Turkish students' avoidance to use *I* in their essays seems to reflect their view that academic writing is impersonal, and hence, previous writing instruction they receive.

<u>Boosters</u>

Boosters express the writer's certainty and commitment to the proposition. Boosters restrict alternative voices and suggest the writer's involvement with the topic. On the other hand, they also highlight sharedness and group memberships, as writers seem

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to express certainty when the viewpoints are widely acknowledged (Hyland, 2008).

Welch's Anova test revealed that the group means are statistically significant, $F(2, 130) = 98.7$, $p < .001$ as the frequencies also suggest below. Furthermore, Games–Howell post hoc tests reveal significant differences between BOUN-TUR and LOCNESS corpora as well as the groups of BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR ($p < .001$ for both tests) as Table 7 indicates below.

Table 7. The Frequencies of Boosters

BOUN-ENG		BOUN-TUR		LOCNESS	
Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100
439	2.63*[a]	898	7.37*[b]	350	2.33
Note. *[a] and *[b] $p < .05$.[3]					

Turkish students use boosters in their Turkish essays markedly more than the other two groups. These findings are parallel to the findings of the previous studies (Akbas, 2012; Algı 2012; Bayyurt, 2010; Can, 2006; Uysal, 2012) that also revealed that Turkish essays included more intensifiers than English ones written by the same Turkish students. Therefore, the heavy use of boosters can be regarded as one of the characteristics of Turkish essays. Moreover, this may be a cross-cultural difference and rhetorical convention of Turkish. This argument is in line with Hinkel's (2003) claim that the rhetorical traditions of many other cultures except Anglo-American highly value certainty. When English essays are compared, it is seen that Turkish students were slightly more certain in their English essays than American students. Nevertheless, Games–Howell post hoc tests reveal that there is no significant difference between English essays written by Turkish and American students in this study, which shows a clear contrast with Hyland and Milton's (1997) study that

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[3] *[a] The comparison is between the groups of BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR.
*[b] The comparison is relative to the rates of LOCNESS.

reported very abundant use of assertions in Cantonese learners' English essay compared with native speaker writers. This finding is also different from Can's (2006) study that reported the essays of monolingual American students contained greater number of boosters than the essays of monolingual Turkish students as well as Turkish and English essays of bilingual Turkish students.

When it comes to the variety of boosters, there is not much difference between the English essays. American students use 55 different boosters in total while Turkish students employ 52 various boosters in their English essays, which suggests that Turkish students who have advanced level of English can also use a large variety of boosters in their English essays. Hence, in this study, Turkish students of English slightly differ from the foreign language learners in Hinkel's study (2003) that indicated markedly more use of boosters that depended on a limited lexical range. Unlike English essays, Turkish essays include 76 different boosters, which is in accordance with the total frequency of boosters in total. As for the parts of speech of boosters, in English essays, Turkish and American students mostly use adverbs to strengthen their presence in their essays, 43% and 39% respectively as Table 8 shows below. On the other hand, in Turkish essays, verbs (45%) were more abundantly employed as boosters than any other parts of speech.

Table 8. The Parts of Speech of Boosters

	BOUN-ENG		BOUN-TUR		LOCNESS	
Parts of speech	n	%	n	%	n	%
Adjectives	25	5.69	28	3.11	23	6.57
Adverbs	190	43.28	340	37.8	136	38.85
Nouns & universal pronouns	114	25.96	125	13.9	95	27.14
Verbs	110	25.05	405	45.10	96	27.42
Total	439	100	898	100	350	100

Here are some examples of boosters:

(1) The invention of mobile phones, for example, has *completely* changed our lives in terms of communication and safety. (BOUN-ENG-8)

(2) İlk önce iyi yönlerini ele alıp daha sonra da kötü etkilerinden bahsetmek konunun anlaşılması için faydalı *olacaktır.* (Dealing with the positive aspects and then mentioning the negative effects of it *will be* beneficial for the understanding of the topic.) (BOUN-TUR-23)

(3) Mathematical models, theories, etc. are *absolutely* riddled with errors simply because there are many things people don't know or can't predict. (LOCNESS-1)

The examples above reveal that boosters play a role in strengthening the argument that the writer has put forward and making the opinions of the writer more prominent and noticeable.

When it comes to the top five most frequent boosters in corpora, there are several common words, such as *all*, *even*, *very* among the top five boosters in all three corpora as can be seen in Table 9.

Table 9. Top 5 Most Frequent Boosters

BOUN-ENG			BOUN-TUR			LOCNESS		
Boosters	n	%	Boosters	n	%	Boosters	n	%
all	50	11.38	verbs followed *by* –DIr	375	41.75	all	48	13.71
even	47	10.70	birçok (a lot)	73	8.12	will	34	9.71
a lot	27	6.15	her (every)	67	7.46	very	23	6.57
cannot	25	5.69	çok (very)	63	7.01	even	21	6
every	25	5.69	bile (even)	20	2.22	have to	15	4.28
Total	174	39.61		598	66.56		141	40.27

In addition to these common words, some modal verbs in English essays and the aorist –DIr also occur among top five most frequent boosters. The most notable difference is that verbs followed by the aorist –DIr comprise 42% of all the boosters in Turkish essays, which is parallel to the findings of Algı (2012) who found that verbs in combination with the aorist –DIr make up the large proportion of boosters in her data. Previous studies point out that –DIr is not a copula, and the suffix can express certainty or possibility (Samsa, 1986; Underhill, 1976). Underhill (1976, p. 33) argues that –DIr conveys "the truth and definiteness of the statement." Similarly, Samsa (1986, p. 146) points out that –DIr is likely to mark "generic facts, universal truths and permanent generalizations. In a recent book, Göksel and Kerslake (2011) maintain that –DIr is used when the statements of general and wide validity are made, and it is a formal style that connotes authoritativeness. In the light of these studies, -DIr is regarded as a booster in this study when it expresses certainty as example 2 shows above. Another evident difference in terms of the top five most frequently used boosters is that there are two modal verbs (will and have to) that convey writer's stance in LOCNESS corpus, which is lacking in the BOUN-ENG group. This may be partly explained by writing instruction in L2 since the majority of the students say that they are instructed not to use strong modals in their English essays. For example, S4 points out: "*In English classes at the university, we are taught to take the other possible options into consideration and soften our claims instead of expressing certainty*."

A closer examination of Turkish data reveals that intensified boosters, boosters in combination with other boosters, also occur as example 4 shows below. In addition to intensified boosters, there are some hedged boosters which are softened with the help of hedges that precede them as in the following example (5):

(4) Her şey *çok daha* pratik ve sistematik bir biçimde işliyor. (Everything works in a *much more* practical and systematic manner.) (BOUN-TUR-42)

(5) Günümüzde *hemen hemen bütün* evlerde olan televizyon şimdilerde birçok tartışmanın da ana başlığıdır. (Nowadays, the television which is found *almost all* of the houses is the main topic of many debates.) (BOUN-TUR-5)

Hedged or softened boosters may serve as a balanced rhetorical strategy of commitment as well as tentativeness as example 5 above may imply. Students both express their opinions firmly and avoid overstating them, which might be considered as an appropriate academic writing convention in the discourse community. Intensified and hedged boosters highlight the role of the cotext in the construction of functions of metadiscourse markers.

The only modal verb that is among the top five most frequently used boosters is *cannot* in the English essays of Turkish students. However, as also pointed out by Algı (2012), the use of *cannot* seems to be pragmatically inappropriate. With the possible effect of L1 transfer, the students used the negative form of *can* to express impossibility as in the example below:

(6) Furthermore; they get used to consume fast food while watching TV or playing computer games, which causes them fatter and fatter day by day. Moreover; they *cannot* learn the daily tasks and cope with the real life. (BOUN-ENG-33)

Regarding the extensive use of boosters in their Turkish essays, three major themes emerged from the students' interviews: confidence in L1 writing, writing instruction in L1 and their reading experiences in L1. S3 says: "*I use a lot of boosters in my Turkish essays because I have a better command of Turkish than English.*"

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Their main reasons for heavy use of boosters in Turkish essays are to increase the persuasiveness and credibility of their arguments and emphasize the importance of their statements, which might be a taught component in Turkish composition classes. Similarly, S10 states: "*We are not taught how to write argumentative essays in Turkish classes, but we are taught not to use a lot of boosters in English academic essays…We are taught to hedge our opinions in English essays.*"

To recap, the results suggest that boosters are heavily used in Turkish essays while there is no statistically significant difference between English essays written by native and non-native speakers in this study.

<u>Attitude Markers</u>

Attitude markers originally classified as stance markers (Hyland, 2005a) express writers' feelings, attitudes and value judgments. They also highlight what readers should attend to in the text and help readers to engage with the issues presented in the text (Hyland, 2010). In this study, Kruskal-Wallis test shows that there is a statistically significant difference among the groups, $H(2) = 60.291$, $p < .001$. As can be observed from Table 10, the essays written by American students contain the fewest number of attitude markers of all three groups.

Table 10. The Frequencies of Attitude Markers

BOUN-ENG		BOUN-TUR		LOCNESS	
Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100
292	1.75*[a]	411	3.37*[b]	154	1.02
Note. *[a] and *[b] $p < .05$.[4]					

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[4] *[a] The comparison indicates statistically significance both between the groups of BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR as well as BOUN-ENG and LOCNESS.
*[b] The comparisons are relative to the rates of LOCNESS.

Pairwise comparisons indicate that there is a statistically significant difference between the groups of BOUN-TUR and LOCNESS ($U = 110$, $p < .001$) as well as the groups of BOUN-ENG and LOCNESS ($Z = -4.843$, $p < .001$). Similarly, there is also a statistically significant difference between English and Turkish essays written by Turkish students, $t(86) = 4.3$, $p < .001$. This finding closely corresponds to student interviews which give us a deeper insight into their tendencies. Interviews suggest that confidence in L1 writing and nativeness might explain the students' extensive use of attitude markers in Turkish. On the other hand, they think that they are concerned about the correct collocation use and their grammar while writing in English. This might be one of the main factors behind their comparatively fewer attitude markers in their English essays. For example, S7 says: "*While I am writing in English, I am not sure whether a particular adverb or adjective fits the sentence. Therefore, I use them when I am absolutely sure. At all other times, I avoid using them.*" It can be concluded that Turkish students use considerably more attitude markers in their essays than those of American students. Also, there is a general tendency for Turkish students to employ high number of attitude markers in their essays when writing in Turkish, which might be attributed to cultural factors since it is reported that adorned or elaborated language style tends to be preferred in Turkish writing classes (Uysal, 2012). These results are in striking contrast to Akbas's (2012) findings that revealed a much higher incidence of attitude markers in native English speakers' texts. Also, the fact that Turkish essays contained considerably more attitude markers than English ones written by the same participants in this study differs from Akbas's results that indicated a smaller number of attitude markers in Turkish texts than English counterparts written by Turkish postgraduate students. This study's findings are in agreement with Can's study (2012) where he found out

that EFL students employed attitude markers more frequently than American students.

Attitude markers construct an evaluative and judgmental stance as the examples presented below indicate:

(1) Even though, these inventions have numerous benefits for people, *unfortunately*, they do not supply always good results. (BOUN-ENG-22)

(2) Ancak, *maalesef,* cep telefonları insan hayatı üzerinde olumsuz etkiye de sahiptir. (However, unfortunately, mobile phones have also negative effects on human life.) (BOUN-TUR-23)

(3) The invention of the airplane has had many positive effects-, *unfortunately*, however, it was brought about some negative changes, also. (LOCNESS-12)

Table 11 presents the top five most frequent attitude markers in all the corpora.

Table 11. Top 5 Most Frequent Attitude Markers

BOUN-ENG			BOUN-TUR			LOCNESS		
Attitude Marker	n	%	Attitude Marker	n	%	Attitude Marker	n	%
important	43	14.72	büyük (great)	77	18.73	important	17	11.03
bad	38	13.01	olumsuz (negative)	48	11.67	better	14	9.09
great	28	9.58	olumlu (positive)	29	7.05	great	13	8.44
good	23	7.87	en önemli (the most important)	17	4.13	significant	11	7.14
beneficial	20	6.84	iyi (good)	16	3.89	dangerous	8	5.19
Total	152	52.02		187	45.47		63	40.89

While these most frequent attitude markers constitute 52% of all the attitude markers in EFL corpora, they make up 45% of the total in Turkish essays' corpus. By contrast, the top five most frequently used attitude markers account for 41% of all the attitude markers in LOCNESS subcorpus, which may indicate that American students are more likely to use different attitude markers in a balanced way than Turkish students.

In addition to frequencies of attitude markers, the variety of them also gives us insights into students' preference. Unexpectedly, the number of different attitude markers that are employed in native and non-native students' English essays is nearly the same: 47 and 46 respectively. This may indicate that Turkish learners of English have achieved a good level of lexical competence to use a wide variety of attitude markers. This finding is sharply in contrast with Can's study (2012) that points out the variety of attitude markers in Turkish students' English essays is far less than that

of the American students' essays, which might be attributed to Turkish students' level of English. Writing instruction in L2 might be another reason for the wide variety of attitude markers in English essays of Turkish students. Attitude markers might be a component of taught material in writing classes as the half of the students stated in the interviews. They stated that they were provided with lexical chunks, especially adverbs in English classes, so they might have memorized and used them in the essays. For instance, S9 states: "*In English, I generally write the lexical chunks that we covered in the classes.*"

When the frequent attitude markers are analyzed in the concordance program, it is seen that attitude markers are mostly employed in combination with boosters, which might be called as intensified attitude markers. Boosters that are followed by attitude markers may enhance the evaluation of the statements that the writers have made. These intensified attitude markers may show that interactional metadiscourse markers can modify each other as the examples show below:

(4) The big impact of technological tools was a *really important* process for humankind. (BOUN-ENG-2)

(5) Interestingly enough, this topic is one that is *very important* to me. (LOCNESS-21)

Besides expressing writers' stance, attitude markers are likely to evoke readers' feelings and interests, which might indicate that attitude markers can also act as reader engagement devices. This argument is based on the studies of Hyland (2005a), McGrath and Kuteeva (2012), student interview data and some particular examples of attitude markers in this study. The following examples suggest that

attitude markers convey writers' stance as well as contribute to reader engagement since they point out important or interesting aspects of argument that requires special attention on the part of the readers. This is also supported by interview data. Most of the students stated that they employed attitude markers so as to attract readers' attention to their statements as S9 points out: "*When I say the most important or importantly, I do it to draw the readers' attention. I also want them to regard it as important*."

(6) They can chat with other people and more *interestingly*, they can see them with the camera and they can speak with them. (BOUN-ENG-2)

(7) Eğer dengeli ve düzenli bir şekilde kullanılırsa, internet hayatımızı *çok önemli ölçüde* kolaylaştırır. (If internet is used in a balanced way, it makes our life easier *very significantly.)* (BOUN-TUR-25)

(8) The creation of MTV in 1980 has *dramatically* changed the entertainment business. (LOCNESS-22)

In addition to evoking readers' interest, attitude markers may have another pragmatic function. In the examples above, they also seem to stress the author's commitment to the importance and interest of the proposition, which may suggest that they might therefore be regarded as boosters as identified by Hyland (2005a).

To sum up, attitude markers seem to be multifunctional, acting as both stance and reader engagement markers in some specific cases.

The first part of the results and discussion section reported the differences and similarities of four writer visibility markers, including first person singular pronouns, exclusive *we*, boosters and attitude markers among the three groups. The

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following part will deal with the commonalities and variations of reader engagement

resources among three corpora.

Reader Engagement

Reader engagement deals with how writers involve the readers in the text and to

what extent they engage the readers in the arguments that they have developed. As

mentioned in the previous chapters, the concept of audience seems to be indefinite in

the students' essays. Interviews with the students pointed out that the audience for

the majority of the Turkish participants is an instructor who will most probably read

the students' essays as S2 states: "*My audience is instructors because they will read*

my essay. Since I know they check the essays, I write accordingly." For some Turkish

students, their audience is students. On the other hand, few students have no

audience in their mind while writing their essays, and they are unaware of the

audience concept. Interestingly, for some of the students, their audience changes

according to the language in which they write their essays. The general trend for

these students is that when they write in English, their audience is usually limited to

the instructors or they do not have any audience in their mind. On the other hand,

while they write in Turkish, they have a wider audience in their mind, and their

justification for that is the concern for language use and task completion in their L2

essays as S4 says: "*While I am writing in Turkish, of course, I have an audience in*

mind. However, the situation is not like that when I write in English as it the

audience does not come to my mind since I try to use language correctly and not to

write off-topic statements during my writing process in English." Moreover, some

students state that they focus on completing their English essays within limited time

rather than their pragmatics of writing. S8 states: "In general, w*e do not have enough*

time to enrich our essays with reader pronouns or attitude markers. If we have more time, we may use them more in our English essays, too." This might be contradictory to Ädel's argument (2008) that learners' untimed essays include fewer writer and reader involvement resources. As it is seen, audience is perceived quite differently in two languages by Turkish students, which might be reflected in their use of reader engagement markers. The following table presents the frequencies of all the reader engagement markers.

Table 12. Overall Results of Reader Engagement Markers

	Reader pronouns		Directives		Questions		Shared knowledge references		Personal Asides		Total
	F/100	%	F/100	%	F/100	%	F/100	%	F/100	%	F/100
BOUN-ENG	0.73	57	0.27*[a]	21	0.01*[b]	0.78	0.19	15	0.08*[b]	6.22	1.28
BOUN-TUR	0.55	34	0.52*[b]	32	0.22*[a]	14	0.3*[b]	18	0.03*[b]	2	1.62
LOCNESS	0.51	40	0.15	12	0.10	8	0.17	13	0.35	27	1.28
Note. *[a] and *[b] $p < .05$.[5]											

As it can be seen from Table 12, Turkish students of English use as many reader engagement devices as native speakers employ, which stands in contrast to Hyland's study (2005) that concluded non-native student essays included fewer reader engagement devices. Like Swedish students of English (Ädel, 2006), Turkish learners of English also use a considerable number of reader involvement features. Therefore, it can be concluded that Turkish students of English can use reader engagement features appropriately enough to engage with their audience who are

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[5] *[a] The comparisons are between the groups of BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR.
*[b] The comparisons are relative to the rates of LOCNESS.

mainly instructors and students. This finding differs from Hinkel's study (2002) that reported overuse of reader engagement markers in non-native students' English texts compared to native speakers' texts. Nevertheless, it is important to point out that these engagement devices have different functions. According to Hyland (2005c), reader pronouns, personal asides and references to shared knowledge reference seem to imply solidarity, sharedness and position readers as discourse participants while directives and questions tend to express the writer's authority and credibility. Accordingly, as the frequencies indicate, it can be argued that American students establish an appropriate degree of writer-reader relationship in their essays since reader pronouns, personal asides and references to shared knowledge are used extensively in the essays. On the other hand, the frequent use of directives and questions in Turkish essays may providence evidence for the writer's authority and focus on persuasiveness. English essays of Turkish students appear to share more commonalities with the essays of American students, which may imply that sharedness and solidarity outweigh the writer's authority in the English essays of Turkish students.

<div align="center">Reader Pronouns</div>

Reader pronouns, which include readers, one, *you*, *your*, inclusive *we*, *us* and *our*, are the most explicit way of interactional engagement. Reader pronouns suggest that writers acknowledge their active audience and explicitly address them as someone who is a member of the discourse community. They also establish proximity with readers and position them as a participant in the discourse. Even though English essays written by Turkish students appear to contain more reader pronouns than the

other two groups as it is seen Table 13, Kruskal-Wallis test reveals that there is no

significant difference among the groups, $H(2) = 2.812$, $p = .245$.

Table 13. The Frequencies of Reader Pronouns

BOUN-ENG		BOUN-TUR		LOCNESS	
Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100
123	0.73	67	0.55	77	0.51

Although there is no statistically significant difference among three corpora, it

should be noted that unlike first person singular pronouns, English essays produced

by American students include fewer reader pronouns, which might suggest that

reader visibility is observed to a greater degree in Turkish students' English essays

than the essays written by American students when the personal pronouns are

considered. These results widely differ from Petch-Tyson's study (1998) which

concluded that non-native English writers used significantly more reader pronouns in

comparison with native student writers. In this study, interviews indicate that

students are likely to have conflicting views on reader pronouns in academic writing.

Whereas some students believe that these features belong to the conversational

genres, some of them are of the opinion that reader pronouns help them to maintain

solidarity and bring the readers into the text. For instance, while S1 says "*using*

reader pronouns increase the solidarity between the writer and readers. You read

and then see you. At that time, you are more likely to direct your attention to the

text", S10 states "*I think that the readers pronouns should not be used. Academic*

texts are objective and they are written to explain something. Therefore, we should

not address anyone in the academic texts."

By directly referring to the readers, reader pronouns form a dialogue between the readers and writers by identifying with readers, addressing their interests and concerns. Furthermore, they add to persuasiveness of the text (Hyland, 2001) since they convey similar understanding of the argument and guide the readers into adopting some particular position as the following examples show:

(1) When *you* think about the lives of people 100 years ago, *you* can see a great deal of differences. (BOUN-ENG-3)

(2) Bilinçli olarak kullanıldığı müddetçe bilgisayarlar hayat kurtarabilirler aksi halde *hayatınızın* sonunu da getirebilirler. Seçim *sizin*. (As long as the computers are used responsibly, they can save a life; otherwise, they bring *your* life to an end. The choice is *yours*.) (BOUN-TUR-42)

(3) Today *you* can sit in *your* home at the terminal and create just about any form of document that *you* wish. (LOCNESS-24)

Among the reader engagement features, reader pronouns are the most frequently used items by Turkish students in their English essays. Because reader pronouns are the most common feature of published articles which are regarded as professional texts in Hyland's study (2005c), it might be said that Turkish students also assume sharedness and create solidarity between themselves and their readers with the help of reader pronouns in this study. Another important point with regard to reader pronouns is the choice of reader pronouns because reader pronouns convey different positioning of the reader. Turkish EFL students show certain similarities with Japanese students who also used first person and second person plural pronouns far more than native speakers of English as reported by McCrostie (2008). However,

he claims that Japanese students overuse these items, as the pronominal references to the reader and writer comprise approximately 4% of all the words in data, which is not the case for this study because the overuse of these items are not found in our data.

As it is obviously seen in the examples above (particularly in example 2), reader pronoun "you" may indicate detachment from the reader although it engages the reader interactively with the text. Moreover, you might sometimes function as face-threatening act towards the readers when they are used in combination with directives as the following example suggests:

(4) When you want to find information in a library, *you* should go there on your own, I mean, physically. (BOUN-ENG-29)

The reader pronoun *you* constitutes 48% of all the reader pronouns used by American students in their essays as can be seen from Table 14. This percentage is 39% for English essays written by Turkish students and it is 34% for Turkish essays written by the same group, which may indicate that American students prefer to use *you* rather than *we* while addressing their readers.

Table 14. The Distribution of *You* and Inclusive *We* in Corpora

	You		Inclusive we	
	Frequency	% of total reader pronouns	Frequency	% of total reader pronouns
BOUN-ENG	49	39	32	26
BOUN-TUR	23	34	31	46
LOCNESS	37	48	6	8

With regard to the distribution of inclusive *we* across corpora, as it is given in Table 14, Turkish students employ them more extensively than American students (8%). When Turkish students' use of inclusive *we* is compared between their English and Turkish essays, it is seen that inclusive *we* is used considerably more frequently in Turkish essays than English ones, which might be attributed to collective identity and writer/reader dialogism. Furthermore, students' opinions on using reader pronouns in academic writing shed light on their usage patterns of those items.

Inclusive *we* (also called as participant-oriented *we*), which refers to both readers and the writer, tends to be more interpersonal than *you*. Inclusive *we* may act as a positive politeness marker by creating a solidarity and communality between readers and the writer (Hyland, 2001; Harwood, 2005). Inclusive *we* appears to represent social and collective identity since it helps to invoke proximity and closeness with readers. Also, as pointed out by Hyland (2005c), inclusive *we* might be seen as a risky strategy for student texts as it may suggest similar views or opinions of students and instructors by maintaining an equal status between them. Nonetheless, the interviewees of the study are more likely to consider inclusive *we* as a non-threatening rhetorical strategy, which might stem from the fact that their use of inclusive *we* is mainly to guide the readers in the text. The discourse functions of inclusive *we* can be summarized as follows: guiding the discourse, persuading the readership, conveying collective understanding/argumentation and solidarity. The examples below show that inclusive *we* structures the essay by referring to the previous parts of the text or preparing the readers for what will come up next.

(5) Finally, when *we* take all the things mentioned above into consideration, as the time went, the use of discoveries is getting bad. (BOUN-ENG-6)

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(6) Sosyal yaşama gelince, olumlu ve olumsuz etkileri hala tartışılmakta olup kısaca *bahsedelim*. (As for social life, its positive and negative effects are being discussed. Let *us* mention them briefly.) (BOUN-TUR-3)

(7) People may argue that ATM machines will take away employment in banks but *we* must also focus on the positive aspects. (LOCNESS-39)

In the examples above, even though it is the writer who takes all the things into consideration, mention the effects and focus on some aspects, the writer employs inclusive *we* , which constructs reader involvement and creates a dialogic interaction. In this way, the readers will probably feel more involved in the text (Harwood, 2005). Also, the examples of inclusive *we* above have a tendency to be multifunctional in that they both guide the discourse as well as maintain solidarity and intimacy with the readers.

Surprisingly, interview data contrast strikingly with the textual analysis of the frequencies of reader pronouns in their English and Turkish essays. Majority of the students think that they are less restricted to employ reader pronouns in Turkish essays. As a matter of fact, some students stated that in Turkish composition classes, they were taught the concept of audience and encouraged to use personal pronouns whereas they were discouraged from using them in their English essays in the composition classes. This may suggest that writing instruction in L2 might influence their extensive use of reader pronouns in English essays. Another interesting aspect of interviews in relation to inclusive *we* is that some students' opinions on the semantic referents of *we* change as they reflect on their own uses of *we*. For instance, when students are asked what *we* refers to in their essays, S2 says: "*I do not know, but it may be students like me. Maybe, it is people in general.*" This may imply that

self-reflection and self-questioning are essential to discover students' own voices and their writer identity.

<div align="center">Directives</div>

Similar to other reader engagement markers, directives are used to interact with the readers and contribute to the persuasiveness of the text. As argued in Hyland (2002b), the frequency, form and functions of the directives may vary according to genre, discipline, language proficiency and cultural background. In this study, the frequencies and the categories of directives are determined in three corpora. As mentioned before, Hyland (2002b) has classified directives into textual, physical and cognitive acts according to their imposition on the readers. Table 15 shows the functions and the frequencies of the directives.

Table 15. Functions of the Directives

	Textual			Physical			Cognitive			Total	
	Raw f.	F/100	%	Raw f.	F/100	%	Raw f.	F/100	%	Raw f.	F/100
BOUN-ENG	-	-	-	21	0.12	46	25	0.15	54	46	0.27*[a]
BOUN-TUR	-	-	-	42	0.34	66	22	0.18	34	64	0.52*[b]
LOCNESS	-	-	-	13	0.08	57	10	0.07	43	23	0.15
Note. *[a] and *[b] $p < .05$.[6]											

Overall, the results of the Kruskal-Wallis test which indicates that there is a significant difference in terms of the median ranks of directives among the groups in the medians, $H(2) = 12.813$, $p = .002$. Turkish students employ directives in their Turkish essays considerably more frequently than the other two groups. When

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[6] *[a] The comparison is between the groups of BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR.
*[b] The comparison is relative to the rates of LOCNESS.

English essays are compared, even though it seems that directives are observed to be more frequently used by EFL students than native speakers of English, follow-up pairwise comparisons reveal that there is no significant difference between English essays written by Turkish students and American students, $U = 820$, $p = .191$. Nevertheless, the median ranks of directives are significantly different between BOUN-TUR and LOCNESS groups with the median ranks of 51.02 and 33.98 respectively, $U = 539$, $p = .001$. Likewise, there is also a statistically significant difference between English and Turkish essays written by the same group of Turkish participants, $Z = -2.372$, $p = .018$. Student interviews suggest that the extensive use of directives in their Turkey essays may reveal their writing habit in L1 and L1 writing instruction as several students are not aware of their extensive use of directives, but they also claim that they are not given any instruction regarding directives in Turkish composition classes as S4 says: "*I do not think that we are taught how to write argumentative essays in Turkish, but I use directives. Namely, it is a kind of writing habit.*" This writing may stem from their reading experiences in L1 as Uysal (2012) also argued in her research.

This finding is in agreement with the studies of Mayor et al. (2007) and Hinkel's (2002) where they also find out that non-native speakers of English employ directives more extensively than British students, which might be attributed to cultural background of the non-native speakers of English according to Hinkel (2002). Nevertheless, the findings of this study substantially differ from Hyland's study (2002b) which reveals that student reports written by L2 undergraduates at Hong Kong University contain a very small number of directives.

With regard to the functional categories of directives, surprisingly, there is no textual directive in any of the three corpora, which may stem from the short nature of

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student essays. As the essays are generally between 250 and 500 words, and they are written without any secondary sources, student writers may not find it necessary to refer to other parts of their essays or another text. This finding is in contrast with Hyland's study (2002b) which found out that approximately 20 percent of the directives in student reports were used to guide readers throughout the text with the textual directives. Unlike textual directives, physical ones, which are the most frequently used category by American students and Turkish students in their Turkish essays, tend to be relatively more imposing and face-threatening than textual directives. The examples below show that student writers attempt to guide their readers into performing an action in the real world:

(1) The most cardinal thing to do is *to flee from* bad affects and *protect* our generation from TVs as possible as. (BOUN-ENG-24)

Gelişen teknolojiye ayak uydurmaktan çok, onu *faydalı kullanmak* bu noktada *önemlidir.* (At this point, *it is important to use it* efficiently rather than adapt to advancing technology) (BOUN-TUR-32)

This is why it is *imperative to act* today. (LOCNESS-26)

Cognitive directives, which are the most imposing of all directives, are the most frequently used directives by Turkish students in their English essays. They are ranked second in the other two corpora by comprising 34 percent of all directives in Turkish essays corpus and 43 percent in the LOCNESS subcorpus. The following examples direct readers to carry out a cognitive action:

(2) …. it is actually *incumbent upon us to think* about ourselves to realize our self-beings rather than just a bunch of people who came to world just to live. (BOUN-ENG-30)

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Örneğin, Arap baharını *düşünelim*…(For example, *let's think* of the Arap Spring…) (BOUN-TUR-27)

And one *must not forget* space programs such as STARWARS. (LOCNESS-22)

As the examples suggest, cognitive directives are likely to carry a potential threat by guiding the readers into specific thinking and decision-making processes, which ensures the writer's authority over the readers. However, they occur mostly in combination with the pronoun *we*, which may soften the imposing effect of the directives and contribute to the dialogic nature of writer-reader relationship by adding interpersonality to the essays (Hyland, 2002b).

The forms of the directives can be as important as the functions since the forms might determine the degree of imposition and directness of the directives (Hyland, 2002b). While an imperative form can be considered as the most direct form of imposition, sentences with adjectives that express necessity and/or obligation are regarded as the least directive form of obligation. As Table 16 shows, modals are the most frequently used as directives in all three corpora.

Table 16. Forms of the Directives

	Imperatives			Modals			Sentences with Adjectives			Other		
	Raw f.	F/100	%	Raw f.	F/100	%	Raw f.	F/100	%	Raw f.	F/100	%
BOUN-ENG	4	0.02	9	28	0.16	61	8	0.04	17	6	0.03	13
BOUN-TUR	9	0.07	14	25	0.20	39	15	0.12	23	15	0.12	23
LOCNESS	1	0.006	4	19	0.12	83	2	0.01	9	1	0.006	4

Modals are followed by sentences with adjectives and then imperatives in all the groups. However, Turkish essays seem to be a bit different from English essays since the imperative forms are relatively more frequent in Turkish essays (14%) than English ones (9%). Also, Turkish students' English essays contain considerably more imperatives (14%) than the essays of native speakers of English (4%), which might be regarded as bald-on-record threats to face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The following examples illustrate how imperatives are used in three corpora.

(3) *Remember* that people can choose to get advantages or disadvantages, with their purposes/goals. (BOUN-ENG-10)

Önceki satırlardan teknoloji karşıtlığı savunulduğu *anlaşılmasın*. (*Do not understand* from the previous lines that technology is advocated.) (BOUN-TUR-24)

Write your local congressman. (LOCNESS-26)

As example 3 shows above, an imperative form which is the most face-threatening form of the directives is used in both English sentences. On the other hand, an impersonal passive construction is used in the Turkish sentence. These structures in Turkish essays are classified into the other category in Table 16 above. "*Anlaşıl-* (be understood or be clear) is an irregular passive form whose root is *anla-* (understand)" (Göksel & Kerslake, 2011, p.152). Although it is indirect, the impersonal passive construction clearly directs readers not to infer from the previous lines of the writer that technology is advocated.

With respect to modals, there is considerable variation in the modal forms between English essays written by Turkish students and those written by American students. Whereas native speakers of English mostly use *must* (9 occurrences out of 19 modals), Turkish students employ *should* (22 occurrences out of 28 modals) in their English essays. Interviews also suggest that students have a clear awareness of the face-threatening potential of the modal "must". The majority of the students stated that writing instruction in L2, a major theme that emerged from the interviews with regard to directives, had a substantial effect on the preference of the modals as S10 says: "*In English, we are not taught not to use must because must expresses obligation. We cannot impose an obligation on our interlocutors in our essays.*" Therefore, it can be argued that the essays of native speakers of English tend to include more direct commands in terms of the modals of obligation in comparison with the essays of non-native English speakers. Although using imperatives and the modal form 'must' can be quite face-threatening, they might contribute to persuasiveness of the text. By creating a dialogic interaction with the reader, the students can enable readers to be involved in the text (Hyland, 2002c). In line with this argument, it is observed that American students generally use *must* in

combination with *we*, which suggests that readers may feel involved in the text. This strategy might help to mitigate the force of obligation on the part of the readers (Brown & Levinson, 1987). However, it should be noted that imperatives and must may not necessarily involve dialogic interaction with the reader as the examples above (3) might suggest.

In this study, apart from the forms of the directives that are identified by Hyland (2002b), as can be seen in Table 16, there is another category (other) which is mainly realized as noun + verb phrase in English essays as in the following example:

(4) *The key is to use* it reasonably. (BOUN-ENG-42)

Directives may also imply persuasion and writers' motive to draw readers' attention as it can be seen from the example above. By directing the readers to do a physical act, the writer attracts the attention of the readers with the word "the key" and persuades them into performing an action in the real word, which might suggest an indirect writer authority.

Questions

Questions are another direct way of creating a dialogic relationship with the readers. They are interactive by nature, which means that they have a paramount role in maintaining a personal engagement with the audience. Questions enable readers to think about the issues as well as share interest and inquisitiveness with writers. As it can be seen from Table 17, Turkish essays contain 60% of all questions in the corpora.

Table 17. The Frequencies of Questions

BOUN-ENG		BOUN-TUR		LOCNESS	
Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100
3	0.01*[a]	28	0.22*[b]	16	0.10
Note. *[a] and *[b] $p < .05$.[7]					

Kruskal-Wallis test indicates that there is a statistically significant difference in terms of the median ranks of questions among three corpora, $H(2) = 11.674$, $p = .003$. There is no statistically significant difference between BOUN-TUR and LOCNESS groups ($U = 837$, $p = .485$). Nevertheless, the median ranks of questions are statistically significant between BOUN-ENG and LOCNESS ($U = 737$, $p = .002$) as well as BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR ($Z = -2.856$, $p = .004$) as the frequencies also show. These results are parallel to the findings of Uysal's study (2012) which also found out that while Turkish participants used very few questions in their English essays, their Turkish essays included quite a few rhetorical questions.

In the examples below, questions bring the readers into the text with different rhetorical functions. Hyland (2002c) identifies the functions of questions in academic writing into several categories: arousing interest, framing purposes, creating a research niche, organizing the discourse, expressing an attitude or evaluation, conveying claim and suggesting further research. As it is shown in Table 17, since there are just three questions in EFL corpora, Turkish students cannot exploit those rich rhetorical strategies of the questions in their English essays. Hence, it could be argued that there might be a threshold for some pragmatic aspects of writing to be acquired as also stated by Uysal (2008). In the case of questions, L1 rhetorical aspects of Turkish are not transferred to L2 essays for this group of participants.

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[7] *[a] The comparison is relative to the rates of LOCNESS.
*[b] The comparison is between the groups of BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR.

In example 1 below, the student writer seems to provoke the readers' interest as well as structure the discourse. The rhetorical question appears to be a manifestation of how the writer is going to structure and develop the essay. Likewise, in example 3, the student writer begins his/her essay with a rhetorical question, and it is mainly for catching the readers' attention. Furthermore, in example 2, the student writer tends to construct an argument, frame the discourse and challenge the readers to think about the argument presented as it is pointed out that positive and negative aspects of television will be discussed. It can be inferred from the examples that questions, which have multifunctional nature, play an important role in constructing the texts and writer-reader relationships.

(1) In primitive ages *who would think of a box in which people appear and which would have an immense effect on the society; that is, people would sit in front of it and watch it for hours and hours?* Maybe, it would be just an insane thought, but it has actually been invented. (BOUN-ENG-30)

(2) Teknoloji sayesinde yapılan en büyük icatlardan biri ise televizyondur. *Peki, çoğu evde bulunan televizyonlar, teknolojinin insanlara bir armağanı mıdır; yoksa insanlara yararından çok zararı dokunan boş bir teneke parçası mı?* (One of the greatest inventions is a television that has been invented thanks to technology. *Well, are televisions found in most of the houses gifts of technology to people, or are they empty tins which cause harm rather than serve people?*) (BOUN-TUR-2)

(3) *How could people live without the invention of the computer?* Computers have become a part of everyday life for many people. (LOCNESS-7)

Majority of the questions are rhetorical in the corpora. For instance, in example 1 above, the writer brings up a question and answers it right away. In fact, the writer appears to expect no response from the readers, but s/he seems to hold the readers' interest and bring them into the text by creating a dialogue. According to Hyland (2002c), the most powerful rhetorical questions are those which set up an argument and do not offer a response following the question. However, there is no such example in the data because students might not have felt comfortable using the questions in that way.

Besides the functions, dialogic and interactive nature of questions facilitates reader engagement. When the questions are presented with reader pronouns, they tend to be more interactive. While 44% of all the questions employed in American students' essays include reader pronouns, 39% of all the questions used in Turkish essays contain reader pronouns. Therefore, it can be noted that American students tend to be comparatively more interactive in the use of questions in their academic writing than Turkish students. As the examples suggest below, questions in combination with reader pronouns involve a more direct appeal to readers than the question that do not include any reader pronouns:

(4) İnterneti ne amaçla *kullanıyoruz*? (For what purposes do *we* use the internet?) (BOUN-TUR-19)

(5) Where would *we* find the time to hand wash our clothes? (LOCNESS-17)

In sum, among the reader engagement markers, questions are the least used metadiscoursal items by Turkish and American students in their English essays. This finding supports the Hyland's argument that questions are "underrepresented in

academic writing" (Hyland, 2002c, p.569), especially in students' reports in comparison with textbooks and research articles.

<p style="text-align:center">Shared Knowledge References</p>

Also called as appeals to shared knowledge, these references involve a less imposing reader involvement strategy than directives (Hyland, 2001). By using shared knowledge references, writers presume shared and mutual understanding of the argument with readers. Writers give readers an active role to identify themselves with the claims or views that have been stated, which may result in collective understanding (Hyland, 2005b). As it is seen in Table 18, Turkish essays include slightly more shared knowledge references than English essays written by Turkish and American students. This is in line with the results of Kruskal-Wallis test which finds out a statistically significant difference among the groups, $H(2) = 7.871$, $p = .02$. Although it seems that personal asides are observed to be found much more frequently in Turkish essays than their English counterparts, the Wilcoxon Signed-rank Test reveals no statistically significant difference between BOUN-ENG and BOUN-TUR corpora with respect to the ranks of appeals to shared knowledge, $Z = -0.96$, $p = .923$. Similarly, no significant difference is found between the median ranks of shared knowledge references in BOUN-ENG and LOCNESS corpora ($U = 894$, $p = .548$) as the frequencies per 100 words also suggest. Unlike Hinkel's study (2002) that indicated overuse of shared knowledge references in the texts of non-native speakers of English, Turkish students' essays are not statistically significant from those of American students with regard to shared knowledge references. The only statistically significant difference is observed between BOUN-TUR and LOCNESS

groups ($U = 631.5$, $p = .012$). The median ranks of shared knowledge references of these groups were 48.97 and 36.29, respectively.

Table 18. The Frequencies of Shared Knowledge References

BOUN-ENG		BOUN-TUR		LOCNESS	
Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100
33	0.19	37	0.3*	26	0.17
Note. * $p < .05$.[8]					

Shared knowledge references refer to what is common between writers and readers, function as the construction of solidarity as the examples show below:

(1) Because, at last, the letters are carried with the help of humans and vehicles, which can be ill or broken. *Of course*, these situations could affect the arrivals. (BOUN-ENG-26)

(2) Hem teknolojik hem sosyolojik olarak çok büyük değişim ve gelişimler yaşandı. *Elbette* ki bu değişimler doğayla beraber insanı da etkiledi. (Both technological and sociological changes and developments have taken place. *Of course*, these changes have affected nature and human beings (BOUN-TUR-3)

(3) *Of course* there have been numerous inventions and discoveries of the 20 century that have significantly impacted the lives of people everywhere; however, *I* would like to discuss the invention of the television. (LOCNESS-16)

In the examples above, student writers seem to presuppose that readers also hold such beliefs, and they have a mutual understanding of particular knowledge with the help of adverbial phrase of course. In fact, *of course* constitutes

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[8] * The comparison is relative to the rates of LOCNESS.

approximately one fourth of all the shared knowledge references in three corpora. Apart from being shared knowledge references, it can be argued that *of course* also functions as boosters as the examples suggest above. This may give evidence for the multifunctionality of metadiscoursal items as the other scholars claim (Hyland, 2005a; McGrath & Kuteeva; 2012). This may be also valid for the adverb *obviously* as these examples point out below:

(4) Compared to past, people communications have *obviously* become less sincere because these technological inventions have created the cyber world, where the role of emotions has greatly lessened. (BOUN-ENG-46)

(5) Obviously, the invention of the television has impacted people in many ways. (LOCNESS-16)

The adverb "obviously" refers to common background between the writer and reader as well as the writer's certainty as boosters. It might be concluded that shared knowledge references may also convey the author's authority by stating what the readers should know or assume. All in all, of all three corpora, Turkish students tend to create a dialogue and position their readers by employing the highest number of shared knowledge references in their Turkish essays.

<div align="center">Personal Asides</div>

Similar to shared knowledge references, personal asides also bring the readers into the text by giving a metacomment on what has been just said. With personal asides, it is apparent that writers reply to their audience in a very short dialogue. As a reader-oriented strategy, they also seem to involve elaboration and facilitate understanding of the proposition by readers (Hyland, 2005b). As it is obviously shown in Table 19,

American students use personal asides much more abundantly than the other groups, which is supported by the statistical tests. The Kruskal-Wallis test indicates that there is a statistically significant difference among the groups, $H(2) = 29.958$, $p < .001$, with a median rank of 58.69 for BOUN-ENG, 56.51 for BOUN-TUR and 88.78 for LOCNESS groups. Furthermore, there is a statistically significant difference between BOUN-ENG and LOCNESS corpora ($U = 526$, $p < .001$) as well as between BOUN-TUR and LOCNESS corpora ($U = 463$, $p < .001$). On the other hand, there is no statistically significant difference between English and Turkish essays written by the same Turkish students ($Z = -.314$, $p = .754$). It should be noted that among the reader engagement features, personal asides are the least used category in Turkish essays even though Turkish essays have extensive reader engagement devices in terms of shared knowledge references, questions and directives.

Table 19. The Frequencies of Personal Asides

BOUN-ENG		BOUN-TUR		LOCNESS	
Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100	Raw frequency	F/100
14	0.08*	7	0.03*	53	0.35
Note. * $p < .05$.[9]					

The examples below indicate that personal asides contribute to solidarity and writer-reader relationship by creating a very brief dialogue. Moreover, it appears from the statements between the parentheses that the writers seek to further explain what they have argued and mainly hedge their positions. Therefore, it seems to me that personal asides might also function as implicit hedges since they convey the writers' concern to share a mutual understanding with the readers.

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[9] * The comparisons are relative to the rates of LOCNESS.

(1) Considering one of the most influential and most important *(not necessarily though)* invention of all times, we can exemplify television. (BOUN-ENG-30)

(2) Bilgisayara geçtiğimiz zaman ise, bu icat ilk olarak bilimsel fayda için icat edilmiş olsa da günümüzde 5 yaşından *(belki daha küçük yaştan)* itibaren çocuklar aktif birer bilgisayar kullanıcısı. (As for the computer, though it was invented for a scientific benefit in the first instance, children from 5 years of age *(maybe even younger)* are an active user of it. (BOUN-TUR-6)

(3) There are of course many other things computers are used for, but a lengthy list is not necessary as everyone already knows *(except for people in the second & third world countries)* how abundant computers are. (LOCNESS-1)

To sum up, the results suggest that while personal asides are one of the important aspects of reader engagement markers for American students as a reader-oriented and interpersonal strategy, Turkish students employ very few of them in both their English and Turkish essays. This might be attributed to their unawareness of personal asides as a reader involvement strategy, cultural factors, their previous reading experiences and lack of writing instruction in terms of personal asides.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

The major findings are summarized and outlined in this chapter. Pedagogical implications and limitations of the study are given. Lastly, suggestions for future research are offered.

Summary of the Results

This study attempted to investigate writer visibility and reader engagement features in the English essays of Turkish and American students as well as in the Turkish essays of the same Turkish students. There were 133 essays in total. The corpus-based textual analysis was conducted to examine interactional metadiscourse markers and their functions. Statistical tests were performed to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference in terms of the writer and reader engagement resources among the groups. Moreover, student interviews were carried out to gain additional insights into the students' use of these devices and their opinions about the use of these devices in academic writing.

There are notable quantitative differences between L1 and L2 essays of Turkish students with regard to boosters, attitude markers, directives and questions as the frequencies of these features indicate. The results indicate that all these features are observed to be employed much more frequently in Turkish essays than English ones. This study points out that there are commonalities between L1and L2 essays of Turkish students in terms of the use of first person singular pronouns, exclusive *we*

and personal asides (see Table 4, 6 and 19). There seems to be remarkable differences between English essays of Turkish and American students in terms of first person singular pronouns, attitude markers, personal asides and questions (see Table 4, 10, 17 and 19). The most salient difference lies in the use of first person singular pronouns (see Table 4).

As regards the writer and reader visibility, the results show that Turkish essays are comparatively more reader and writer visible than English essays of Turkish and American students. The frequencies of these features suggest that the level of writer visibility and reader engagement of Turkish students' writing in English is far more close to the native speakers of English than their own writing in Turkish. This may suggest that that they have mastered some rhetorical conventions of English with regard to boosters, shared knowledge references and directives due to the effects of writing instruction in L2. However, Turkish students' writing in English shares similar tendencies with their Turkish essays in terms of first person singular pronouns, reader pronouns and personal asides, which might be attributed to their shared cultural background. Therefore, it can be argued that Turkish students' writing in English may rely on both their cultural tendencies and English language rhetorical conventions, which suggests that interdiscursive hybridity might be observed in English texts of Turkish students as the previous literature has suggested (Mauranen, Perez-Llantada & Swales, 2010). One might argue that metadiscourse use in English essays of Turkish students might be attributed to their developmental patterns in English language. Nevertheless, cultural and instructional factors may play a more crucial role in their foreign language writing.

Overall, as inferred from the student interviews and their essays, Turkish students are largely aware of most of the interactional metadiscourse markers. Similar to native speakers of English, Turkish students also utilize a wide variety of attitude markers and boosters in their English essays, which might stem from writing instruction in English and their memorization of chunks. However, as it can be inferred from their textual choices and opinions, they appear to be constrained by institutional power, writing instruction and cultural preferences. Specifically, based on the student interviews, it can be argued that metadiscourse use in Turkish essays could indicate how writing is influenced by social, cultural and institutional context as Hyland (2002a, 2005c) also stated in his studies which focused on Chinese students' texts. A large number of boosters, attitude markers, directives and questions in the Turkish essays may imply their assertiveness and authority as writers. This may stem from the culturally driven factors as the previous literature has revealed (Hinkel, 2002; Uysal, 2012).

When Turkish students employed the first person singular pronouns in their English essays, they tended to downplay their authorial identity by presenting their personal experiences, which might be partially seen as a reflection of the previous writing instruction that guides students into downplaying their authorial presence in their writing in English.

Student interviews provide substantial evidence for the fact that self-representation, especially the use of first person pronouns might be limited by contextual factors, such as previous writing instruction, advice from the instructors and how they perceive their readers rather than being a personal choice of the student writers. This may suggest that specific discourse communities are influential in the

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choices of particular interactional metadiscourse features in student writing. As emerged from the student interviews, instructors' advice on the use of first person singular pronouns and strong modal verbs may cause their avoidance or little use of these features in Turkish students' English essays. Interviews also uncover that there is a dynamic relationship between writers' identity and writing. Students may have conflicting views of their intentions for the use of specific items, such as *we* as several students have changed their opinions on what *we* refers to in the specific sentence during the interview. It may suggest that interviews may play a role in thinking critically about available rhetorical options and strategies as well as developing students' metacognitive awareness. The findings of this study show that the same items such as *I* and *we* may have different discourse functions within an essay. This may imply that writer's stance and reader engagement tend to be an ever-changing and a situated aspect of writing.

This study also suggests that Turkish students' writing in English is not voiceless or impersonal. Their authorial presence is manifested in the use of boosters, attitude markers and relatively less use of first person singular pronouns (see Table 4, 7 and 10). They have also dialogic awareness, which is manifested through the use of reader pronouns, attitude markers and shared knowledge references (see Table 7, 13 and 18).

Finally, the instances of intensified boosters, hedged boosters and intensified attitude markers reflect that metadiscourse markers may inextricably be intertwined, and they are used to modify each other. This might suggest the need to further refine the metadiscourse taxonomies.

Pedagogical Implications

All of the interviewees of this study see academic writing as objective and impersonal. Therefore, the first step should be to raise students' awareness of academic writing as a way of social act and interaction. Teachers can enable their students to recognize academic writing as a social and discursive practice and encourage them to have a more personal command of their writing in a confident way. Moreover, students' awareness about cultural differences between L1 and L2 writing conventions should be increased. Students should be encouraged to build a critical awareness of strategies and options that are rhetorically more effective. When students have gained critical language awareness of these resources, they are highly likely to be empowered and more confident writers, which in turn may enable them to create more effective arguments in their writing.

Writer's stance and reader engagement are closely linked with audience in writing. It is likely that students will present their voice and interact with their readers more appropriately when they have a better notion of audience in writing. Thus, writing courses that construct specific audience may probably help students to develop their writing for that specific audience. The concept of audience, interactional metadiscourse and voice can be incorporated into writing courses. Students may greatly benefit from the explicit and systematic teaching of interactional metadiscourse markers and how effective argument is developed in English.

In advanced writing courses, authentic academic reading and writing tasks should be integrated in the academic texts that students will cover in their courses

can be brought into the class and used as a valuable source for discussion about the authentic examples of writer and reader presence in the academic texts.

Teachers can compile a small corpus of student or expert writing and design corpus-based activities in the classroom. Students may be provided with academic texts with interactional metadiscourse markers and they may be asked to identify the metadiscourse items and discuss the roles of them with their teachers. As a follow-up activity, teachers might use academic texts in which some interactional metadiscourse items have been removed. Students might be asked to write alternative metadiscourse markers and explain the rhetorical effects of these markers.

Limitations of the Study

This study has several limitations in terms of data collection procedures. First of all, a subcorpus of LOCNESS is used as a reference corpus of the study. Though using a ready-made corpus can save time, it constrains me from interviewing the writers of the essays in the corpus, which prevents me from obtaining their opinions on their use of metadiscourse items and their general views about self-representation and reader engagement in academic writing. Conducting interviews with native speakers might have provided an additional perspective on the use of writer visibility and reader engagement markers.

The second limitation is the corpus size. Corpora investigated in this study consist of 43,854 words, which suggests that it a rather small scale study that included English essays of the Turkish students at Foreign Language Education Department at a Turkish university. As a result, it is not possible to generalize the results of this study to other Turkish students of English.

Lastly, this study does not include any essays from monolingual Turkish students, which makes it hard to conclude whether the differences between English essays of Turkish students and those of American students may stem from cultural background or developmental factors in Turkish students' L2 proficiency. By providing additional evidence, the essays of monolingual Turkish students might have yielded more conclusive findings.

Suggestions for Further Research

This study indicates that while writing their essays in English, Turkish students' main concern tends to be task completion and language use, which implies that timed conditions may limit their use of interactional metadiscourse features. Therefore, studies that might compare and contrast timed with untimed essays can reveal to what extent time affects the use of metadiscourse elements in the essays.

The English essays of the Turkish students were collected only once in this study. However, collecting English essays from Turkish learners more than once during the academic year might enable the researchers to keep track of the students' development with respect to metadiscourse and determine how and in what ways their usage patterns show similarities or differences with those of native speakers over time. Hence, the knowledge of foreign language learners' interlanguage pragmatic competence would provide a deeper understanding of acquisitional pragmatics and pragmatics of writing.

This study has compared and contrasted non-native students' essays with those of native speakers. In addition to these groups, professional texts can be added as another set of data. These data might give us a broader picture of native and non-

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native students' use of interactional metadiscourse markers in relation to expert performances. In this case, the focus will be on the expert performances of the members of real discourse community rather than the native speaker norms. Moreover, analyzing English essays of advanced learners of from several different L1 backgrounds in addition to the native students' essays would provide a wider perspective into L1 transfer and cross-cultural differences in writing.

Large scale studies with bigger corpora are necessary to further investigate the tendencies of writer's stance and reader engagement in Turkish students' English essays and Turkish essays. With larger and more representative corpora, valuable insights are more likely to be obtained in terms of interactional metadiscourse devices and their patterns.

Lastly, the relation between the quality of writing and interactional metadiscourse was beyond the scope of this study. Further research that examines whether interactional metadiscourse markers contribute to the overall quality of English essays of Turkish students might give a broader picture of the role of these metadiscourse markers in the quality of academic writing.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. STUDENT PROFILE QUESTIONNAIRE

1.Surname :

2. First name :

3. Age :

4. Gender:

5. Nationality :

6. Native language:

7. Father's mother tongue:

8. Mother's mother tongue:

9. Language(s) spoken at home: (if more than one, please give the average % use of

each)

10. Primary school - medium of instruction:

11. Secondary school - medium of instruction:

12. Department:

13. Current year of study:

14. Years of English at school:

15. Did you attend English preparatory school?

16. Stay in an English-speaking country:

17. Where?

18. When?

19. How long?

20. Other foreign languages in decreasing order of proficiency:

I hereby give permission for my essay to be added in a corpus and used for research purposes.

 Date: Signature:

APPENDIX B. INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. Who is your audience in your mind while writing an academic essay in English and Turkish?

2. a) You used ___ (number) personal pronouns in your English essay. You used ___ personal pronouns in your Turkish essay. Why?

   b) What is your opinion about using personal pronouns in academic essays? Was it taught in English and Turkish composition classes?

3. What does "we" refer to in your English and Turkish essays? Why do you use it?

4. a) You used ___ reader pronouns in your English essay. You used ___ reader pronouns in your Turkish essay. Why?

b) What is your opinion about using reader pronouns in academic essays? Was it taught in English and Turkish composition classes?

5. a) You used ___ boosters in your English essay. You used ___ boosters in your Turkish essay. Why?

b) What is your opinion about using boosters in academic essays? Was it taught in English and Turkish composition classes?

6. a) You used ___ attitude markers in your English essay. You used ___ attitude markers in your Turkish essay. Why?

b) What is your opinion about using attitude markers in academic essays? Was it taught in English and Turkish composition classes?

7. a) You used __ directives in your English essay. You used __ directives in your Turkish essay. Why?

b) What is your opinion about using directives in academic essays? Was it taught in English and Turkish composition classes?

Self-Mention

I	demonstrate	for sure
we (exclusive)	demonstrated	found
Boosters	demonstrates	fully
absolutely	doubtless	in fact
actually	emphasize	incontestable
all	entirely	incontestably
a lot + adj./noun	essentially	incontrovertible
always	especially	incontrovertibly
believe	establish	indeed
believed	established	indisputable
believes	every	indisputably
beyond doubt	everybody	inevitably
certain	every one	invariably
certainly	everything	know
clear	evident	known
clearly	evidently	must
complete	exactly	never
completely	extremely	nobody
conclusively	far + comparative	no doubt
decidedly	adjective	none
definite	find	no one
definitely	finds	nothing

obvious	thoroughly	astonishingly
obviously	thought	correctly
of course	too + adj	curious
particularly	totally	curiously
primarily	truly	desirable
prove	true	desirably
proved	undeniable	disappointed
proves	undeniably	disappointing
realize	undisputedly	disappointingly
realized	undoubtedly	disagree
realizes	very	disagreed
really	will	disagrees
severely	without doubt	dramatic
shall	Attitude Markers	dramatically
should	admittedly	essential
show	agree	essentially
showed	agrees	even x
shown	agreed	expected
shows	amazed	expectedly
strongly	amazing	fortunate
sure	amazingly	fortunately
surely	appropriate	hopeful
terribly	appropriately	hopefully
think	astonished	important
thinks	astonishing	importantly

inappropriate	unfortunately	consult
inappropriately	unusual	contrast
interesting	unusually	define
interestingly	usual	demonstrate
prefer	**Reader Engagement**	determine
preferable	**Markers**	do not
preferably	(the) reader's	develop
preferred	accepted	employ
remarkable	add	ensure
remarkably	allow	estimate
shocked	analyze	evaluate
shocking	apply	familiar
shockingly	arrange	find
striking	assess	follow
strikingly	assume	go
surprised	as usual	have to
surprising	by the way	imagine
surprisingly	calculate	incidentally
unbelievable	choose	increase
unbelievably	classify	input
understandable	common	insert
understandably	commonly	integrate
unexpected	compare	key
unexpectedly	connect	known
unfortunate	consider	let x = y

let us	prepare	unknown
let's	recall	us (inclusive)
look at	recover	use
mark	refer	usual
measure	regard	we (inclusive)
mount	remember	well-known
must	remove	you
need to	review	your
note	see	
notice	select	
observe	set	
obvious	should	
obviously	show	
of course	suppose	
one's	state	
order	take (a look/as	
ought	example)	
our (inclusive)	think about	
pay	think of	
picture	turn	

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