

The Development of Authorial Identity among Senior Academic Scholars
on the Trajectory of Professorship

Submitted by

Suthee Ploisawaschai

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(Signature).....

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And I have been given countless blessings, many of which are in disguise.

Abstract

Recent social theories related to academic literacies suggest that academic writing is not a mere text production but also an identity performance; hence, the notion of 'authorial identity' which involves two dimensions: the identity as academic authors (personal dimension) and the identity in writing (textual dimension).

This thesis presents a study into the development of authorial identity among senior academic scholars on the trajectory of professorship through interviews and textual analysis of their published papers sampled across their early and later career.

Three full professors from a UK university participated in this study, which was conducted in three phases.

In the first phase, the professor participants' accounts of their personal dimension of authorial identity through interviews signal common themes regarding the influence of the recent academic climate on their personal experience of growth in relation to their endeavour to improve the quality of their academic scholarship.

In the second phase, the metadiscourse-based textual analysis of their sampled academic papers indicates several features of their identity performance in writing over time, which form the basis for the professor participants' reflection on their textual dimension of authorial identity in the third phase in order to explore how their papers are embedded in and related to the social contexts of academic publication, especially the peer review process and the research assessment framework.

The research findings from this study not only shed light on the developmental pathway in academic writing from the same academic scholars over time but also provide an illuminating account of how they have developed themselves as well as their writing on the trajectory of professorship.

Further, the findings from all three research phases are discussed together in relation to relevant social theories to offer a theoretical contribution to the research area of academic literacies, writing, identity and scholarship.

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A NOTE ON DIFFERENT FONTS

In this thesis, I use many fonts for different purposes.

When I mention a Latin word or a book title or I make an emphasis, I will italicise it. To illustrate, Bakhtin's book *The Dialogical Imagination* contains the concept of dialogism but it is *not* dialogue *per se*. However, the italicised items in quotation marks in the main body of text refer to word examples or lexical items for and from the textual analysis. To illustrate, lexical markers of confidence include '*certainly*', '*of course*', and '*sure*'. However, these lexical items do not appear with quotation marks in a table as shown below:

Category	Function	Example
Booster	expressing certainty	<i>Certainly, Of Course, Sure</i>
Hedge	expressing incertitude	<i>Uncertain, Likely, May</i>

As regards the quotes from other studies or interviews and the extracts from the sample texts written by the professor participants such as Bracton 2012, they are displayed as follows:

This is a quote from other research studies or an extract from the interviews with the professor participants.

(Bracton 2012): This is an extract from the sample text written by Professor Bracton and published in 2012.

It should be noted that an expression with quotation marks refers to a specific term in the research literature or a mixture between others' (or quoted) speech and my speech. To illustrate, the concept of 'metadiscourse' is, according to Hyland (2005), based on a view of writing as social engagement in which writers use metadiscourse 'to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, ... to express a viewpoint and [to] engage with readers as members of a particular community' (p. 37).

Chapter 1. Introduction

In this chapter, I present the background for this research into the development of writing and identity for academic scholars by giving an introductory account of the issues regarding academic writing and publication. These issues involve the significance of academic writing, the global status of English language in academic publication and the relationship between academic writing and academic writers. Then, I propose the rationale and the preliminary research question of this research into writing and identity on the trajectory of academic scholarship.

1.1. The Significance of Academic Writing

Academic writing plays a major role in higher education as it is an essential requirement for expression for both university students and academic scholars alike. For university students, academic writing is often a very demanding task because students, especially during their first year at university, may lack familiarity with the conventions of style and referencing practice required by their discipline (Bailey, 2011). As for academic scholars, especially those in the scientific areas, academic writing is also a daunting task since it often involves a specialised terminology and a complex referencing system to reflect 'the language of science and academia' (Hartley, 2008).

Common features of academic writing include clarity, conciseness, objectivity, argumentation and critical thinking. Academic writers need to portray these features in their scientific pursuit of knowledge. Therefore, many academic writing textbooks and manuals (e.g., Bailey, 2011; Creme & Lea, 2008; Murray, 2009; Swales & Feak, 2000; Wallwork, 2013) try to help their readers (i.e. potential writers) to write better and to build a better argument. One obvious example is the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association which suggests many ways to write in a scientific manner, such as how to achieve the right tone, how to maintain economy of expression, how to reduce bias in language and how to avoid misunderstanding caused by choice of words with many example sentences clearly marked with 'correct' and 'incorrect' labels (American Psychological Association, 2010).

The plethora of academic writing textbooks and manuals to help academic scholars to write better suggests that some characteristics of academic writing are undesirable but commonly found. To illustrate, Hartley (2008) notices that academic writing is 'unnecessarily complicated, pompous, long-winded, technical, impersonal, authoritative, humourless, elitist, and excludes outsiders' (p. 4). Indeed, there is a tendency for academic scholars and students to believe that good academic writing is complex. Professor Ronald Barnett from the Institute of Education seems to be one example of such scholars during his early years when he states in an interview:

I am quite keen on writing ... But I haven't read the literature on writing, so this is all very amateurish by way of self-reflection ... People say of my work that it's quite complex, it's quite theoretical, and it's packed with references ... I had a lovely supervisor here [= Institute of Education], Terry Moore ... He used to urge me to write clearly and simply ... And I am embarrassed now when I think back to the pretentiousness of my early draft (cited in Carnell, MacDonald, McCallum, & Scott, 2008, pp. 76-78).

Although the main drawback of academic writing is the fact that it is often unnecessarily complex, the distinct advantage of academic writing is the fact that it plays a major role in bringing together scholars and researchers from all around the world to participate in the dissemination of their research through publication. As such, academic writing has become a global phenomenon in knowledge-making practice (Lillis & Curry, 2010). This is achieved through the use of English language which has been given a unique status of 'global' or 'world' language, which is sometimes referred to as English as a *lingua franca* (Smit, 2010).

1.2. The Global Status of English in Publication

English language is considered to be a *lingua franca* in various aspects of communication among people around the world and this is also true in the world of academia. However, the concept of 'academic language' is often an unfamiliar one for speakers of other languages (Hyland, 2006). English has been used and taught for different purposes, such as for communication, tourism and occupation and now there is a branch of study and research called 'English for Academic Purposes' or EAP. In many academic institutions around the world, academic English is taught so that researchers and scholars can

contribute their knowledge and findings in English which is the medium of professional communication.

The overarching dominance of English for academic purposes in international academic institutions means that English language has become *Tyrannosaurus rex* or 'a powerful carnivore gobbling up the other denizens of the academic linguistic grazing grounds' (Swales, 1997, p. 374). Many top ranking journals use English as their main language. Moreover, many journals in countries where English is not an official language also adopt an all-English policy. In a report by the Institute for Scientific Information (ISI), more than 90% of indexed journals in natural sciences and social sciences use English as their linguistic medium (Thomson Reuters, 2009, cited in Lillis & Curry, 2010). Therefore, it is widely acknowledged that English has become the privileged language in academic publication. Many international academic scholars are enthusiastic about using academic English, or at any rate, they feel obliged to use it in their research publication although it is not their first language (Lillis & Curry, 2010).

Despite the fact that there is a strong interest in using English for academic publication among multilingual scholars all over the world and the fact that they have been taught academic English in an extensive manner, many multilingual scholars still consider that 'language stands in the way of publication' (Belcher, 2007, p. 8). When they submit their papers for publication, their 'language usage and style' is negatively commented on more frequently than other features in the review process. Moreover, it is often said that although their texts are grammatically correct and semantically understandable, they still sound different from those written by their English-speaking counterparts due to their 'nativised varieties of English' which bear a close resemblance to their first language and reduce the status of international intelligibility (Flowerdew, 2001). This might be one of the reasons why many international academic scholars tend to be in the 'periphery' world of academia because they believe that 'academic communities are not open to negotiation or criticism' (Canagarajah, 2002, p. 32).

Since linguistic requirements prevent multilingual scholars from writing as insiders to academic communities, many multilingual scholars believe that they are marginalised in the periphery. There are two implications from this belief.

First, it implies that English-speaking writers can write fluently or at least better than speakers of other languages and as such it is easier for English-speaking scholars to get published in English journals when compared to multilingual scholars whose first language is not English. It might be true in many cases because a good command of academic English is the foundation of academic writing. However, it is debatable that such competence in academic English can guarantee the success of publication because there are many other factors influencing academic publication. To illustrate, competition is one factor, as seen in the saying, 'Publish or perish', in which academic scholars are competing to get their work published as a way to keep tenure in academic institutions. Therefore, many top ranking journals have a high rejection rate (Moran, 1998). Another factor is the journal's research scope. Articles with the research topic which goes beyond the reach of academic journals are usually rejected for publication on the grounds that they do not fit the journal's aims and scope. Other factors include poor conventions of style and failure to make a contribution to the academic community. When these factors are taken into consideration, it can be argued that not only multilingual scholars are peripheral scholars but some English-speaking academic scholars can also be seen as peripheral scholars even though their level of academic English is high.

Second, the periphery phenomenon suggests that there must be at least one significant difference between insiders and peripheral scholars. One possible answer is the way an academic paper sounds. There are two ways to conceptualise the notion of 'sound': linguistically and epistemically. From a linguistic perspective, this 'sound' for multilingual scholars is about to what extent their academic papers sound 'English', as the Editorial Director of the publisher Taylor and Francis—Graham Hobbs—points out that poor English is one of the top reasons for rejection and as such multilingual scholars need to make sure that they have asked native speakers to correct their English before submission (cited in Thomson & Kamler, 2012, p. 129).

From an epistemic approach, the problem of 'sound' is evident in review comments regarding the knowledge of the academic scholars. Many writers who display their knowledge of the subject matter through a complex terminology and heavy references but fail to make a significant contribution to the research often receive disparaging remarks because they sound like

novices (Yates, 2004) rather than experienced scholars. This case is often seen among doctoral students whose submitted papers are often marked out by journal editors as papers written by those who are new to the world of academic publication even though their first language is English (Paré, 2010).

These two implications suggest that the use of academic English can tell something about the users. Poor use of English might indicate that the writer is a multilingual scholar whose first language is not English although they are an experienced scholar. By the same token, writing to show a sophisticated level of knowledge without a significant contribution might indicate that the writer is a novice although their level of academic English is high. From this point of view, there seems to be a relationship between academic writing and academic writers and this relationship requires further investigation.

1.3. Academic Writing and Academic Writers

It has been long argued that academic writing has an effect on academic writers (e.g., Bartholomae, 1985; Bizzell, 1978; Geisler, 1992). It has been noticed that when college students write their assignment, they switch from their 'honest face' ethos which is used for the ethical appeal towards a 'formal courtesy' ethos to assess adequate proof in arguments (Bizzell, 1978). Likewise, it has been noted that university students write different assignments for different professors by 'inventing the university', namely by appropriating the way the language is used by each professor in each discipline (Bartholomae, 1985). The aim of the students is not only to speak and write like the professors but also to 'try on the peculiar ways of knowing, selecting, evaluating, reporting, concluding, and arguing that define the discourse of [the] community' (Bartholomae, 1985, p. 273).

Bazerman (2001) argues that by learning and engaging in academic writing, students create and present their 'distanced and refined selves' in the process. When students want to make their voice heard, their voice needs to be recognised as the 'legitimate, warrantable and powerful' voice in the discipline to which they belong. However, powerful voice 'is gained by learning to speak consequentially within the forums of power' (Bazerman, 2001, p. 26)

It is important to note that voice is integral to academic writing but the concept of 'voice' conveys various meanings ranging from 'a particular attitude or opinion about the subject matter' to 'the right to express such attitude and opinion' (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010, p. 1988). However, as Bazerman (2001) notes that the voice in academic writing needs to be recognised as the 'powerful' voice, some students may change their voices as well as their selves to align with those who hold power, such as their professors. To illustrate, students may cite the sources which are mentioned and discussed in the lectures and seminars, whether they have read these sources carefully or not, as an attempt to portray themselves as attentive students and to align their own stance with the stance of their assignment markers with the hope of gaining favour (Harwood & Petrić, 2012).

The powerful voice of the discipline exercises their power not only on students but also on academic scholars. One academic scholar expresses his existential dilemma between his personal voice and the powerful voice of the discipline by stating that writing for publication seems to him like 'writing for public execution' (Atkinson, 2003, p. 189) because his 'personal' voice in the written text is subject to comments and criticisms from his editors and reviewers. This suggests that he needs to change his 'personal' voice to fit in with the 'powerful' voice privileged in his academic community.

The 'voice' in written texts, therefore, conveys two dimensions. The first dimension is the voice of a group to which the writer belongs whereas the second dimension involves the issue of individually personalised voice. For academic writers, this might mean that they can choose either the voice of the group or the voice of their own as if these are two separate voices without being aware that human voices can be both socially acceptable and individually personalised at the same time (Prior, 2001).

Voice has been placed with more emphasis in several research studies into composition because it is related to individualism, self-expression and power (e.g., Castelló & Iñesta, 2012; Elbow, 1998; Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999). However, there has been a critique that the significance of voice in academic writing is overstated to the point that ideas and contents are less prioritised. Argumentation skills and rhetoric construction, *not* voice, should be accorded a greater priority in academic writing (Stapleton, 2002). Although this criticism

might be viewed as plausible, it has been noted that by reading and reviewing an academic paper, readers can sense the author's voice and stance based on the author's rhetorical strategies (Matsuda & Tardy, 2007). In this sense, voice seems to expand beyond individualism to cover both ideas and contents as well. Therefore, it is suggested that voice plays a role in academic writing for both writers and readers.

An analogy of an artist might be useful here. Like an artist who needs to learn from their masters the technique of painting which is privileged in their time before they can develop their own style and lead a new movement in the history of arts, a good writer needs to learn to appropriate the voice of the discipline before they can master, develop and 'find' their own voice in their writing. In this way, the two dimensions of recognisability as in group membership and individual personality can be realised and as such the voice in the text is both social and personal.

One example of these two dimensions enacted at the same time in academic writing can be found in an in-text citation in which the writer portrays both objective and subjective voices simultaneously.

In the past, it was considered that academic writing is objective in the sense that the piece of writing is impersonal and that it is not influenced by personal feelings or opinions. Otherwise, academic writing is tantamount to a personal essay on the subject matter. Only recently, the objectivity and the impersonality of academic writing have been challenged. One example of an implicit personal view in academic writing can be seen when writers use different kinds of words to report a source of information in their texts. Some might call these words 'metatext' and Holme (2004) illustrates and explains this phenomenon with the following example:

Smith stated that, argued that, understood that, claimed that, saw that, implied that.

'Stated' implies that a straightforward repetition of Smith's views will follow, yet these views are being attributed to their author only and to a wide spectrum of opinion. 'Understood' acknowledges Smith's insights but attributes to others a failure of comprehension. 'Argued' suggests some uncertainty about Smith's opinions. Arguments await rebuttal. 'Claim' is generally weak. Claims seek a securer foundation. 'Implied' may not precede Smith's opinion at all. It implies that this has been read into

the statement by the writer. At best it is an elaboration of Smith's views, at worst a false attribution. (Holme, 2004, p. 49)

As illustrated in the quote above, many writers might not be fully aware that they express their view towards authority even with the use of sources in their writing. Therefore, the voice which seems to be objective and impersonal in academic writing is neither objective nor impersonal. Yet, such a voice is approved and privileged. This means that the voice in the written texts is both socially recognised and personally individualised because academic writing allows and involves the presence of the author behind it. Therefore, the aspect of self cannot be separated from academic writing.

Like speaking which conveys an accent to mark out an identity of its speaker, Ivanič (1998) argues that writing is an act of identity through the use of socio-culturally shaped patterns of language, i.e. discourses. Writing not only conveys 'contents' but also represents the 'self' of the writer through discourses. However, Ivanič argues that the self or the identity constructed in the texts is not singular. There are multiple identities associated with one single writer and these identities are not always compatible with one another because there are many possibilities for selfhood for any writers to portray in their texts. She mentions these three following aspects of writer identity within the socially available possibilities for selfhood:

- Autobiographical self, or the actual person who produces a particular text and this self is related to their sense of background and life history.
- Discoursal self, or the impression which the actual writer portrays or conveys of themselves in a particular written text both consciously and unconsciously through discourses and this self is generally related to the privileged 'voice' of the community.
- Authorial self, or the writer's 'voice' in the sense of their position, opinions and beliefs and this self is related to the extent to which they claim their authority and their authorial presence in a text (Ivanič, 1998, p. 23)

With this framework of writing as an act of identity, it is conceivable why it is difficult to write an academic paper since these three aspects of self can emerge simultaneously in any instance of writing. On some occasions one aspect benefits others whereas in others they are contradictory and in conflict. To illustrate, Burgess and Ivanič (2010) explain:

If the socially available possibilities for selfhood a writer has experienced are ones in which she is treated as inferior and does not have an authoritative role, she is likely to incorporate a sense of inferiority, and possibly feelings of indignation at having been treated in this way, into her autobiographical self. Her sense of inferiority is likely to have a strong influence on the kind of authorial self she constructs and may lead her to be hesitant about engaging in writing at all, as writing is by its nature an agentive social act; it may lead her to write very little, to erase or delete and rewrite over and over again; when she does commit herself to words she may use a lot of markers of uncertainty such as “is likely to,” “possibly,” “may.” On the other hand, the indignation may lead her to write in a militant way, using writing to assert an authority of which she feels deprived. This example shows that the discursal self and the authorial self are not determined by the writer’s autobiographical self: the one plays a role in shaping the other but not in any one-to-one relationship. (Burgess & Ivanič, 2010, p. 246; my emphasis)

This quote illustrates an argument that there is a complex relationship among the three aspects of writer identity. One main argument in this quote is that those writers with a sense of inferiority may use a lot of markers of uncertainty such as *‘likely to’*, *‘possibly’* and *‘may’*. Yet, it should be noted that Burgess and Ivanič also use a lot of markers of uncertainty (as underlined in the quote above). Therefore, it is arguable to what extent the actual writers try to portray their discursal self as the person with a sense of inferiority through many uncertain expressions in the top part of the quote whereas their discursal self in the bottom part portrays an impression of the person with a sense of indignation through only one use of *‘may’*, making it sound like a militant statement. Alternatively, it is possible to assume that the whole quote signals the manifestation of their authorial self to the reader so that we can acknowledge that the writers are omnipresent in the text.

This example shows that these markers of uncertainty—although considered to be the privileged voice of academic scholars to avoid conviction (Hyland, 1996b)—might be related to the personal voice of those with ‘a sense of inferiority’ as Burgess and Ivanič suggested in the quote. Works written by academic scholars not only deal with the subject matter through the voice privileged in their academic community but also manifest the personal voice of the academic scholars in the way that they might not be aware of. Therefore, it is important to understand to what extent such voice belongs to the social

community in terms of discursive self and to what extent such voice is related to the personal side in terms of authorial self. Only the actual writer might be able to answer that. As a consequence, research studies into academic writing and identity need to take into account the actual writer behind the text in order to understand how they perform their identity.

One recent study by Hyland (2010) focuses on this nexus of community and individuality by analysing the canon written by two academic writers in the field of applied linguistics—Deborah Cameron and John Swales. Using a corpus method which incorporates many clusters of words, Hyland has shown a consistent preference of these two particular writers in terms of their routine expression of self, i.e. their ‘relatively unreflective performance of identity’ (Hyland, 2010, p. 165), in their academic works over the past 15 years.

Hyland’s analysis shows that the canon written by Deborah Cameron contains the word ‘*is*’ as the fifth most frequent keyword and there is a particularly high use of the ‘*it is + adj. + to infinitive*’ structure in her written work which signals Cameron’s assertive and confident self in establishing truths about the subject matter. Therefore, Hyland describes Cameron as a ‘radical linguist’ who challenges orthodox views thanks to ‘her willingness to engage in head-on debate with alternative positions, thus projecting a confident, combative personality’ (Hyland, 2010, p. 167)

By contrast, Hyland’s analysis shows that the canon written by John Swales contains the word ‘*I*’ as the fourth most frequent keyword along with other personal pronouns and adjectives such as ‘*me*’ and ‘*my*’ which signal Swales’ clear presence in his text along with a sense of personal engagement with his readers through his judgement of the evidence in the arguments. Therefore, Hyland describes Swales as an ‘altogether more self-effacing and conciliatory writer, projecting the identity of a cautious and inquiring colleague’ (Hyland, 2010, pp. 174-175).

Hyland (2010) has illuminated our understanding of socially privileged and personally individualised voice in academic writing. It implies that although academic writing might be a constraining experience which forces writers to write in a particular way, many academic writers have different self-portraits in their written works. Moreover, this portrait might become their personally

individualised voice and, by extension, their unique identity. It raises other numerous questions, though. Do academic authors have their 'signature' voice? Does their 'voice' remain stable from the moment they wrote 15 years ago until now? If not, when do they find their 'voice'? How do academic authors develop their voice over time?

These are the questions which foreshadow this research study.

1.4. Why Writing and Identity?

Although the concept of 'voice' in written papers is insightful and has been used in many research studies (e.g., Ivanič & Camps, 2001; Zhao & Llosa, 2008), it is still limited in several ways because it gives an impression that voice is a stable entity which any writer can 'find' and is obviously recognisable. Moreover, voice seems to be limited to only two aspects of writer identity—namely, discursal self and authorial self—and it is not applicable to autobiographical self. Therefore, this research will opt for the notion of 'identity' as a basis for elaboration of the research question instead.

Since writing is an act of identity, Thomson and Kamler (2012) argue that academic writing—including writing for publication as a way of scholarly life—involves 'text work/identity work' (p.14) in which academic scholars struggle for identity in the text. They mentioned one early career researcher called Gerri whose abstract was considered to be a 'troubled text' because Gerri appeared to be 'ventriloquising' the words of those she interviewed rather than having the courage to make a case and name the issues emerging out of her research study. Gerri told them that she was terrified to criticise the current policy of health services. With the support from her mentor to pluck up the courage, Gerri imagined herself as an authoritative scholar and took the plunge to make her own argument about the case in her revised and resubmitted text.

Gerri's account is interesting because it suggests that academic scholars, especially those who have graduated with a PhD and have worked in universities for a couple of years, are expected to be able to write an academic paper without difficulty. However, their text might become a 'troubled text' if they struggle for an authoritative identity (Thomson & Kamler, 2012, p. 26). Gerri's

account is clearly an issue of 'text work/identity work' in the area of academic scholarship.

Thomson and Kamler's argument suggests that the problem of 'text work/identity work' is quite evident among early career academic scholars or those who are new to the research publication. It is presumed that this problem no longer exists among senior academic scholars as they have overcome this struggle for identity over the course of their academic career, or the 'life cycle' in which academic writers progress from novice to expert writers (Emerson, 2012). In other words, there is an assumption in some literature that academic writing is a struggle for beginning academics (Thomson & Kamler, 2012) and that professors will have 'overcome' this struggle and become 'models' of expertise (Dysthe, 2002) after they have undergone their life cycle (Emerson, 2012). However, this development in a straightforward manner may not always be the case and this is the main gap of knowledge which I aim to fill with this research study.

1.5. Preliminary Research Question

Writing as a scholarly way of life includes 'text work/identity work' but little is known about how writing develops over time among academic scholars. Many research studies have focused on peripheral academic writers, such as students, multilingual scholars and early career researchers, because their struggle for identity in their text is evident and crucial for their academic achievement and professional success. However, their development seems to be transitory in the sense that they are unfamiliar with academic writing during their first years of study. Further, they might not continue to develop their academic writing once they go to their work place after graduation because there will be no more academic assignments. As for the studies which involve experienced academic writers, they tend to give the picture of those who are already successful. Their recounted experiences might include numerous moments of struggle but their written works are usually conceived of as exemplary or always stable, as in the case of Hyland's (2010) study. There have been only a few studies into the development of 'text work/identity work' among senior academics in terms of transition from novice to expert writers in relation to their textual practices over time because many studies focus on only

one aspect (either text work or identity work) rather than combining both. This research aims to fill the gap of knowledge with this preliminary question before the details are further elaborated over the next two chapters. The preliminary question of this research is:

- How do senior academic scholars develop both their text work and their identity work on the trajectory of academic scholarship from the moment they were peripheral scholars until they have become insiders in the academic community?

1.6. Summary

In this chapter, I introduced the background to my research and pointed out the importance of academic writing and how English language has become the language of academic community, resulting in the periphery phenomenon experienced by many international academic scholars because their papers sound different from those written by their English-speaking counterparts. The problem of 'sound' highlights the relationship between academic writing and academic writers and contributes to the argument that academic writing is not a mere text production but also an identity performance—i.e., 'text work/identity work'. However, most research studies focus on peripheral academic scholars and there is a gap of knowledge about how experienced academic scholars develop both their text work and their identity work over time on the trajectory of their academic scholarship. Therefore, this research has been conducted to fill such gap of knowledge.

Chapter 2. Literature Review

In this chapter, I conduct a literature review regarding the issues of academic writing and identity. I use Lea and Street's (1998, 2006) academic literacies model as a skeleton to map out various approaches to the study of academic writing and identity. Then I examine social theories which prove helpful for our understanding of academic discourse, identity and development before I introduce different understandings or conceptions of the relationship between academic writing and academic writers.

2.1. Models of Academic Writing

There are various concepts and approaches to academic writing in the research literature, for example, genre-based pedagogy, rhetoric, English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and scientific writing. Although these approaches prove useful in their own right, they often isolate academic writing from other characteristics which go beyond their scope. Therefore, for the purpose of this literature review I draw on Lea and Street's (1998, 2006) understanding of how writing is conceptualised in academic contexts because their framework incorporates three models which entail distinctive features but can overlap one another. These models are (a) a study skills model, (b) an academic socialisation model, and (c) an academic literacies model. However, I use their framework only as a skeleton to analyse other related concepts and organise my arguments because their framework suggests combinatory interaction between personal and social aspects of academic writing.

2.1.1. Study Skills Model

In this model, academic writing is seen as an individual and cognitive skill which focuses on the form or the structure of language. To succeed in academic writing, writers need to learn and practise certain forms or structures which comply with academic conventions, for example, the use of academic or formal vocabulary, passive structure, and objective tone. By using compositional techniques, writers can transform mundane sentences into highly structured ones and signal their competence in academic literacy (Geisler, 1992).

The study skills model of academic writing also suggests that each piece of writing is a task to be completed since writers can apply rules and strategies to finish it. To illustrate, the rule of a good argument is to provide readers with evidence which writers have analysed, discussed, and evaluated before making a conclusion (Henning, Gravett, & van Rensburg, 2002). Another tactic to make a good piece of writing is to present ideas and information in a conventional order such as Introduction, Method, Results and Discussion (or the IMRD pattern). In this way, academic writing is a straightforward activity which requires only linguistic competence and knowledge of the subject matter. Writers only encounter problems when they lack the background knowledge. To put it another way, academic writing in this model seems to comply with the 'knowledge-telling' process of writing (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987) which stimulates writers to retrieve content knowledge to write about what they know.

This view of academic writing as an assignment is widely common for student writing and undergraduate pedagogy since numerous textbooks on academic writing provide students with practice exercises. Even for scholarly publication, Silvia (2007) considers this approach effective because it is practical and behaviour-oriented. Deliberate practice can breed skill. Moreover, Silvia argues that academic writing is not similar to poetry writing which requires creativity and expressiveness from writers. Therefore, researchers do not need a muse. The point of research publication is for researchers to pose questions, collect data, analyse them and write down their findings for contribution and further research. Therefore, this model takes into consideration various aspects of the writing process which are related to individual writers, for example, writer's block and time management in order to help writers who have difficulty writing a paper to finish their work. As the saying goes, 'practice makes perfect', academic writers can succeed if they persist in writing for publication (Matkin & Riggan, 1991).

For Dunleavy (2003), academic writing is a generic set of 'craft' skills which constitute a body of practical knowledge about how to conduct good research. This view still circulates in higher education since it is often believed that doctoral researchers' prowess in the discipline will naturally contribute to their writing ability as they deal with their findings in the format of graphs, charts and

numbers to explain their arguments to the research community. This suggests that academic writing is improved alongside ability in the research process.

However, it seems that the study skills model foregrounds prescriptivism in which writers are exposed to the surface structures—i.e. grammar and rules—of academic writing, particularly scientific statements which prefer impersonal forms, passive voices and nominalisation. Writers only need to deal with the authoring and editing process to achieve their goal (Pittam, Elander, Lusher, Fox, & Payne, 2009). On the one hand, this model can prove useful to many writers since they can use academic writing as a way to report phenomena as well as to express their thoughts according to the conventions in a straightforward manner. On the other hand, this model is considered by some scholars to be a deficit view because it assumes that writers ‘can transfer their knowledge of writing and literacy unproblematically from one context to another’ (Lea & Street, 2006, p. 368). Therefore, attention should be paid to the context or the discipline to which such a piece of academic writing belongs. And this is what the academic socialisation model has to offer.

2.1.2. Academic Socialisation Model

The academic socialisation model gives prominence to the acculturation into disciplinary discourses and genres. Through social participation, writers acquire and master the ways of writing, speaking, and even thinking, which typify their disciplinary community (Lea & Street, 2006). This model can be linked to the notions of discourse community and genre (Swales, 1990) and of disciplinary discourses (Hyland, 2004), which play an important role in shaping writers to become members of a particular discourse community.

To identify a group of individuals as a discourse community, Swales (1990) proposes six defining criteria as in ‘(i) common goals, (ii) participatory mechanisms, (iii) information exchange, (iv) community specific genres, (v) a highly specialised terminology, and (vi) a high general level of expertise’ (p. 29; roman numbering added). Swales’ notion of discourse community is in contrast with the concept of speech community in which people in the speech community share ‘sociolinguistic’ features including languages, regulative rules and cultural concepts but members in the discourse community generally share

the same 'sociorhetorical' features such as the similar pattern of rhetorical strategies, the specialised words and the similar interests although they do not live in the same place. Therefore, genre is a type of communicative event. As Swales (1990) puts it, 'exemplars of genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience' (p. 58). In other words, genre shows comparable rhetorical actions, or 'moves' in Swales' taxonomy, which can be depicted through a textual analysis.

To illustrate the genre of research article introductions, Swales (1990) proposes a *Create a Research Space* (CARS) model with 3 moves as in (i) establishing a territory to claim centrality or to make a topic generalisation, (ii) establishing a niche to counter the claims or to indicate a gap, and (iii) occupying the niche to outline the purposes or to announce present research. Each move may contain several steps to achieve the purpose. A prototypical example is given in Table 2.1:

Table 2.1 An example of the CARS model (Swales, 1990)

Move	Example	Purpose
1	<i>Recently, there has been a wide interest in ...</i>	Establishing a territory
2	<i>However, the remaining issue is ...</i>	Establishing a niche
3	<i>The purpose of this research is to find out ...</i>	Occupying the niche

Presumably from this rhetorical perspective of genre in academic discourse communities, some scholars believe that argumentation is a central concern of academic writing (Creme & Lea, 2008; Graff, 2003; Henning et al., 2002). In academic writing, the writer needs to demonstrate their ability to listen, to summarize, and to respond to what they have heard, which Graff (2003) refers to as 'argument literacy'. Although many problems in academic writing involve a sophisticated vocabulary and a complicated syntactic structure, a major component is how to say and argue in a critical manner. This is the main problem for many novice writers who do not seem to recognise it because they cannot unpack the characteristics of such genre (Graff, 2003).

Being aware of this fact about argument literacy, writers are often encouraged to imitate and follow the exemplars of genre approved by their discourse community as Bartholomae (1985) has argued about the students who learn to

write in the same way that their professors do. In other words, writers need to imagine their readers all the time so that they can respond properly to achieve their rhetorical success. One way to develop such argument literacy is through the 'building blocks' approach in which the writer finds information and structures it to develop their own argument (Creme & Lea, 2008). There are also other rhetorical devices which many writers can adopt such as a specialised terminology, a valued source of reference, a well-known quotation and a personal interpretation (Hartley, 2008). Thus, writing well is not just about knowing the subject content as in the study skills model but writing well means an ability to set up an argument with members of the same discourse community, similar to a 'They Say/I Say' pattern (Graff & Birkenstein, 2006).

Since it can be assumed that academic writing contains similar rhetorical moves, it is of interest to examine whether there is a distinction within academic discourse communities. Becher and Trowler (2001) contend that the world of academia consists of numerous tribes with their own territories and approaches to intellectual enquiry which mark the culture of their discipline. Thus, there are distinctive patterns of communication for the inhabitants of each academic discourse community. The studies in this respect are usually based on corpus of academic writing from different disciplines and their findings often indicate a sharp contrast among these disciplines as to how writers use their language differently. To illustrate, Hyland's (2004) study, which is based on various categories of lexical items such as reporting verbs and connectives, reveals that engineers 'report' their findings whereas philosophers 'argue' for their viewpoints because those verbs '*report*' and '*argue*' are frequently found in only one discipline and not in the other. Moreover, philosophers use more conjunctions when compared to engineers. By implication, it can be argued that engineers prefer to describe and explain their research whereas philosophers love to dispute and interpret their study.

One approach to academic socialisation for multilingual writers who write in English is 'contrastive rhetoric'. Scholars from this approach explore how the first language and the culture of multilingual writers influence their rhetorical construction in their English writing (Connor, 2002). To illustrate, Ädel (2006) compares English essays written by Swedish, American English and British English writers and highlights expressions as well as words which are overused

by Swedish writers (such as *'in this essay'*, *'conclusion'*, *'question'* and *'answer'*) in comparison to the English native speakers. These findings suggest cultural preferences of Swedish writers in comparison to their English counterparts in that the Swedish writers in her analysis prefer a clear-cut question-answer approach to writing whereas the English counterparts in her analysis engage in the complex interplay between questions and answers without explicitness. For her, if the aim of academic socialisation for multilingual writers is to write more prototypically argumentative essays, multilingual writers might need to draw on argumentative texts written by English native speakers as a model and point of departure (Ädel, 2006). In this way, multilingual writers can move from 'sociolinguistic' towards 'sociorhetorical' features (such as similar moves, similar foci and similar interests) in their academic writing.

However, the concept of academic socialisation through argument literacy cannot fully explain the intricacies of academic writing because there are cases which go beyond the rhetorical realm of argument to the epistemological dimension in which the way of seeing the world is more important than the way of saying things. In each area of research, there might exist its own literacy; hence, 'literacies' rather than universal literacy. Academic writing needs to be analysed in relation to the power of discourse and ideology within each discipline. Therefore, Lea and Street (1998) propose the 'academic literacies' model to explain these differences in meaning-making of language use and knowledge.

2.1.3. Academic Literacies Model

The academic literacies model of academic writing is concerned with the power of discourse and ideology which prevails among academic communities. It raises the question as to what counts as knowledge for a particular discipline, how the concept of identity is relevant to writing, and how literacy practices are associated with institutional discourses and genres (Lea & Street, 2006). Some other existing approaches to academic writing may also fit into this model and these include systematic functional linguistics (SFL) and critical discourse analysis (CDA).

Arguing for the academic literacies model, Lea and Street (1998) have showed that what underlies a well-structured and a well-argued piece of writing varies from one academic tutor to another. They gave an account of one student who used standard cohesive ties (i.e., conjunctions and adverbs between sentences such as *therefore* and repetition of key terms) to connect with the essay question in two written assignments. One tutor said that the piece of writing lacked structure and argument because the tutor could not grasp the connection between the ideas presented by the student and as such suggested the student to go to writing clinics to get support in general writing skills. However, the same student received excellent marks in the other written assignment although it was written in a similar manner. This experience caused confusion for the student, implying that the twin concepts of 'structure' and 'argument' which are focused on in the two previously-mentioned models are not helpful in practice.

Lea and Street (1998) argue that what makes a successful piece of writing involves the issues of epistemology rather than the surface features of form. Their evidence is based on the ways in which the commitment to the truth of a statement—which is referred to as 'modality'—is expressed in a text. On the margins of the student paper with negative feedback, the tutor wrote many markers such as '?', '!', '(...)' and comments which indicate disagreement, doubt and criticism such as *Explain* and *A bit confused*. These markers suggest that the tutor was giving a kind of categorical comment that the student's point was not correct; hence, the negative feedback for the student. This is an example of how the epistemological issues between tutors and students play a role in a piece of writing but the emphasis of the feedback is often placed on structure and argument rather than modality and literacies.

In order to understand how academic literacies are influenced by epistemological issues as well as discourses and how they influence identity, I draw on systemic functional linguistics (SFL) and critical discourse analysis (CDA), each of which has its own robust framework for these aspects.

2.1.3.1. *Systemic Functional Linguistics*

The Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) framework posits that language is a resource for meaning (Halliday & Martin, 1993). When people use language in a

written mode, they are producing a text, or an instance of language which makes sense to those who know the language. Therefore, there is a relationship between a clause, a text and a culture for people to make meanings in their social activity.

Applying the SFL approach to discourse analysis, Martin and Rose (2007) argue that there are three strata of language. The relationship between these strata can be described through 'realisation' in which 'social contexts are realised as texts which are realised as sequences of clauses' (p. 4). As such, SFL-based discourse analysis is at the interface between the work of grammarians—which involves an analysis of the roles of wordings in the texts—and the work of social theorists—which involves an explanation why such roles become meaningful. For SFL linguists, a textual analysis is based on the assumption that there are patterns of meaning-making in the discourse (i.e., the text) which can be decoded.

Since a text can be considered an instantiation of the higher system in which many variables play a role in the realisation, Martin and Rose (2007) explore genres by looking at the type of social activity a text enacts instead of looking at rhetorical moves in a text as proposed by Swales (1990) in the academic socialisation model. To illustrate, Martin and Rose claim that the argument genre known as 'exposition' differs from the argument genre known as 'discussion'. The 'exposition' type has two stages as in thesis and supporting arguments and its social purpose is to persuade an audience of the writer's point of view—that is, the 'thesis'. On the contrary, the 'discussion' type usually consists of two or more points of view and only one point of view is argued for over the others. Based on this SFL approach, genre is considered to be a 'staged, goal-oriented social process' in which writers participate in genres with other people ('social') and use genres to achieve the social purpose ('goal-oriented') by taking certain steps to realise such a goal ('staged') (Martin & Rose, 2007).

Besides, the SFL model of language proposes three general social functions of language known as 'metafunctions' which are:

- the ideational metafunction to represent experiences

- the interpersonal metafunction to enact social relationships
- the textual metafunction to organize discourse as a meaningful text

These metafunctions are related to the social context in which the language is used and this relationship gives rise to register variations as in field, tenor and mode which are embedded in genre and can affect genre as shown in Figure 2.1.

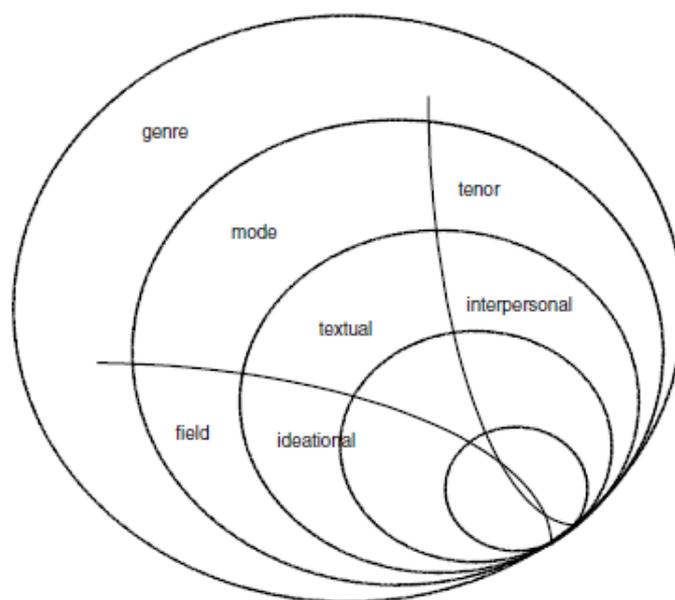


Figure 2.1 The relationship between metafunctions and social contexts (Martin, 2010, p. 16)

Based on this model, SFL scholars use a shared language to talk about discourse called 'metalanguage' to analyse discourse in social context based on these metafunctions and this metalanguage consists of many discourse systems. Martin and Rose (2007, p. 8) propose six discourse systems in relation to metafunctions as a tool for discourse analysis as shown in Table 2.2 below:

Table 2.2 The metalanguage framework based on discourse systems in relation to metafunctions

Discourse system	Function	Metafunction
Appraisal	negotiating attitudes	interpersonal
Ideation	representing experiences	ideational
Conjunction	connecting events	ideational

Identification	tracking people and things	textual
Periodicity	information flow	textual
Negotiation	enacting exchanges	interpersonal

From this metalanguage framework, SFL scholars can analyse how a writer encodes their experiences and social events in a text and how different strata of language are bridged systematically, from grammar to text to social activity (Martin & Rose, 2007).

The SFL model of language not only helps linguistic scholars understand how a speaker and a writer encodes and construes their meanings in a text but also proves useful to scholars in composition studies to understand how a writer achieves their rhetorical purpose. Drawing on these metafunctions from the SFL model as their basis, many scholars in composition studies (e.g., Crismore & Farnsworth, 1989; Hyland, 2000; Vande Kopple, 1985) posit that as people write, there are two levels going on during the process of writing. On one level, writers talk about the subject matter or a proposition. On the other level, writers help their readers to evaluate, interpret, respond and react to such material. To do so, writers add a non-propositional element to their ongoing discourse. Therefore, writers use discourse about discourse or 'metadiscourse' to interact with their readers. From this adapted framework which sets the ideational metafunction apart on one level and foregrounds the two other metafunctions on the other level, metadiscourse is classified into the non-propositional level of language use and there are two categories as in textual and interpersonal aspects.

Because metadiscourse is related to the non-propositional level of language which involves the writer's audience awareness, Crismore and Farnsworth (1989) develop a metadiscourse taxonomy as shown in Table 2.3 to analyse two chapters of Charles Darwin's *The Origin of Species*. They suggest that interpersonal metadiscourse plays an important role for Darwin to establish his ethos for his readers.

Table 2.3 The metadiscourse taxonomy as proposed by Crismore and Farnsworth (1989) in which (T) refers to textual aspect and (I) refers to interpersonal aspect

Metadiscourse type	Function	Example
Text connectives (T)	connecting blocks of information	<i>First, Lastly, As I noted earlier</i>
Code glosses (T)	helping readers to grasp the meaning	<i>is defined as, the definition of</i>
Action markers (T)	marking the author's discourse	<i>I hypothesise that, To sum up</i>
Narrators (T)	letting the readers know who said/wrote it	<i>Mrs. Wilson announced that, According to Jane</i>
Modality markers (I)	assessing certainty of the propositional material	<i>perhaps, might, clearly, It is obvious that</i>
Attitude markers (I)	revealing the author's attitude	<i>surprisingly, interesting</i>
Commentary (I)	drawing the readers into an implicit dialogue	<i>You may not agree, It might be difficult at first</i>

Crismore and Farnsworth's (1989) analysis indicates that modality markers account for 83% of all interpersonal metadiscourse items in Darwin's two chapters, implying Darwin's need to assess the certainty of his statement to prevent an uproar over his argument. By using a higher number of uncertain expressions than emphatic comments, Darwin signals the vastness of human ignorance in order to make a claim based on his limited knowledge as shown in the quote below.

... these facts alone incline me to believe that it is a general law of nature (utterly ignorant though we be of the meaning of the law) that no organic being self-fertilises itself for an eternity of generations; but that a cross with another individual is occasionally—perhaps at very long intervals—indispensable. (Darwin, 1859, Chapter 4 "Natural Selection" of the Origin of Species; my underlining)

Over the past decades, many metadiscourse taxonomies have been developed and based on different theories (e.g., Ädel, 2006; Beauvais, 1989; Hyland, 2005; Ifantidou, 2005). These taxonomies are often used as a tool for

contrastive rhetoric, as mentioned in the academic socialisation model, to highlight the differences among disciplinary discourses and to better understand the relationship between writers and readers for rhetorical purposes.

Due to different theoretical underpinnings, these taxonomies overlap with one another and cover different aspects of textual analysis. To illustrate, Beauvais' (1989) taxonomy is based on John Searle's concept of speech act and as such it focuses only on the statement which acknowledges human beings as its interlocutor, i.e. the author (*'I'*), the direct reader (*'you'*) and third person (*'he'* and *'she'*) and discards statements without an interlocutor at the beginning. Hyland's (2005) taxonomy is a modified version of Crismore and Farnsworth's model which is based on Halliday's metafunctions of language and as such it only focuses on interactional and textual aspects of language use and discards the ideational metafunction. Ifantidou's (2005) taxonomy is based on Dan Sperber and Deirdre Wilson's relevance theory and as such it focuses only on inter-textual and intra-textual features which refer or allude to other statements and discards all code glosses which refer to lexical items (such as *'e.g.'*, *'i.e.'* and *'namely'*). Ädel's (2006) taxonomy is based on Roman Jakobson's reflexive aspect of language and as such it focuses only on the interaction between writers and readers in the text and discards the stances or the attitudes expressed by the writers.

Although all these taxonomies prove useful for our understanding of how academic writers develop their academic literacies in a text, they tend to support the assumption that as language is a resource for meaning, writers can make choices from the available resources to marshal their argument as well as to achieve their rhetorical goal without constraint. However, a power struggle for expression in academic writing is often noted. This issue is usually highlighted in research studies which draw on a critical discourse analysis approach to their textual analysis.

2.1.3.2. *Critical Discourse Analysis*

A critical discourse analysis (CDA) approach to language studies attempts to analyse concrete instances of discourse in order to examine why certain linguistic forms are preferred although there are numerous linguistic choices for users.

To give an example, Fairclough (2003) analyses a politician's account of the global economy and points out such features as nominalisation and the use of inanimate objects as the agents of verbs. He suggests that nominalisation is heavily used in the account to represent the process of change in the world as entity and that statements like *'technology can migrate quickly'* contribute to a view that human responsibility is absent from the process. Through textual analysis based on a CDA approach, many discursive practices in a text can be unpacked to show how different ideologies shape the way language is used (Weiss & Wodak, 2003). Moreover, there is a growing trend towards a systematic and institutionalised configuration of language use, which Fairclough (1996) calls 'technologisation of discourse', to make people more aware of correct ways to produce language according to the orders of discourse established by the social institutions.

In this respect, CDA scholars try to raise awareness of a power struggle for expression, suggesting that discourse conveys more meanings than meets the eye. Generally, SFL-inspired discourse analysts tend to treat discourse as a text but CDA scholars (e.g., Cameron & Panovic, 2014; Ivanič, 1994) acknowledge that there are at least three definitions and conceptions of the term 'discourse' as follows:

1. discourse as a text or language 'above the sentence'
2. discourse as language 'in use'
3. discourse as a form of social practice in which language plays a central role

Based on these overlapping definitions of discourse of which the first two are evident in a SFL textual analysis, a CDA approach embraces the issues of power, ideology and identity in its textual analysis. Therefore, an in-depth understanding of academic literacies cannot do without accounting for these issues.

To make a case that literacy is the pivot of social practice, Barton (2007) proposes three relevant concepts as in register, genre and discourse. Registers (or ways of talking in different situations) contribute to the identification of genres (or forms of written language). However, both registers and genres contribute to discourses (or different ways of using language). Although these

three concepts appear similar and might be used interchangeably in certain cases, Barton argues that discourses provide ways for members of different communities to structure knowledge and relationships. Discourse community members generally have a set of common knowledge, interests, values and purposes which can be viewed as literacy. Further, their ways of using such literacy can be considered as literacy practices (Barton, 2007). These literacy practices are almost always linked to wider social practices which require background knowledge. The purpose of literacy practices is that the members can read and write in a similar manner. In short, discourse can identify people of the same community members.

Similarly, Gee (2008) argues that discourse is an identity kit and he moves our focus from 'discourse' with a little 'd' which is language in use to 'Discourse' with a capital 'D' in order to appreciate language use in social contexts. To illustrate, Gee argues that it is very unlikely that a motorcycle rider who enters a bike bar will say to his leather-jacketed and tattooed buddy that *'May I have a match for my cigarette, please?'* because that would be socially 'wrong' although it is 'correct' English. A biker is likely to say *'Gotta match?'* or *'Give me a light, wouldya?'* to his buddy. Therefore, Gee advocates the idea that to be recognised as a certain kind of people requires a 'right' way of using language. Moreover, he suggests that there are many 'Discourses' and that these reflect many kinds of people because Discourses are 'ways of behaving, interacting, valuing, thinking, believing, speaking and often reading and writing, that are accepted as instantiations of particular identities (or 'types of people') by specific groups' (Gee, 2008, p. 3); hence, Discourses as resources for identification.

Although the distinction between 'discourse' and 'Discourse' is useful, such distinction can be cumbersome in research studies since many CDA scholars have already acknowledged that the term 'discourse' conveys multiple meanings. Therefore, in this research I shall only use the term 'discourse' to convey different conceptions of the term.

CDA scholars also argue that identity is not fixed. Rather, identity is multiple. With many discourses available in a society, there are also many identities available. People display who they are to one other in different contexts through

different discourses. For instance, a man is not just a man. He can be heterosexual, Christian and single or he can be homosexual, atheist and married. Alternatively, a man can be a son of a vicar and a father of an atheist daughter. In other words, people do 'identity work' in different discursive (or discursal) environments (Benwell & Stokoe, 2006). Therefore, identity becomes 'performative' or a discursive construction when a person enters a different context.

Although there can be many discourses in one context, each discourse tends to carry its own ideological underpinning and when one way of linguistic production is preferable in a particular context, it is usually considered a 'dominant' discourse (Foucault, 1981) or a 'privileged' one if such production contains a certain form of speaking and thinking, becoming a 'voice' of the mind (Wertsch, 1991). In academic writing, Ivanič (1994, 1998) argues that higher educational institutions seem to sustain certain patterns of privileging for academic assignments. Although the writer is both free and constrained to select the discourses which are socially available to them, the writer's choice can cause tension because they might resist it (Ivanič, 1998) or they might do it just to gain favour (Harwood & Petrić, 2012). Therefore, writing needs to be reconceptualised as an act of identity to construct a discursal self which is privileged in the academic context. Ivanič's (1998) intertextual analysis of student extracts from many disciplines reveals that each discourse seems to manifest its own lexico-syntactic characteristics. For example, the use of number and quantity expression is obvious in the discourse of natural sciences while the reference to other texts is common in the discourse of literary studies.

In addition to textual analysis, many scholars inspired by a CDA approach conduct an interview to get an 'insider' perspective on the writer's struggle with the 'identity work' during their writing. Ivanič (1998), for example, notices that her co-researchers often recounted their uncomfortable sense of 'real' self when they did academic writing because their real self which valued honesty was lost in their writing. Some of them did not want to 'own' academic language if it meant they had to lose a part of themselves, namely, an ability to talk to friends at home. They did not feel proud when their friends started to say that they used 'big words' because they did not want to belong to the 'big word' club of academia. Gourlay (2009) also points out that undergraduate students who

were new to academic writing requirements at university struggled with their identity work in the process of academic achievement, resulting in their indeterminacy and status ambiguity on the threshold of belonging as a university student. It can be said that these studies have shed light on how discourses have a power relation with the way writers perform their identity during the transition.

Although there is a constraining power relation between discourses and identity work, CDA scholars also suggest that engagement in literacy practices can contribute to spontaneity, empowerment and mastery of the discourses. Writers might be not fully aware of their empowerment but their power can at least be found in the use of 'metatext' in which Holme (2004) has given an example of students who express their view both implicitly and explicitly on their sources of reference. Therefore, a CDA framework can help writers to become more aware of their resources when they write an academic paper, making them feel more empowered with the academic discourse.

It is with this 'academic literacies' model that the issues of discourse and personal identity play an important role in the literacy practices of academic writing, forming the nexus of 'text work/identity work' (Thomson & Kamler, 2012). Therefore, the relationship between discourse and identity needs to be explored. To do so, I turn to social theories on identity to understand the relationship between discourse and identity.

2.2. Social Theories on Discourse and Identity

What does it mean to be or become an academic scholar using academic discourse? This is a question of social identity because an academic scholar cannot do without academia. Therefore, social theories about identity will be useful for asking a question on the identity of academic scholars. In this section, I look at three social theorists—Bourdieu, Foucault and Bakhtin—who have contributed to an in-depth understanding of discourse and identity in a social world. Each theory is also related to power and ideology in the use of language to perform an identity. Therefore, it can be applied in academic contexts. These

concepts include 'habitus', 'discourse' and 'dialogism'. Yet, there are also other related concepts, such as 'cultural capital', 'interpellation' and 'heteroglossia' which I shall refer to where necessary.

2.2.1. Bourdieu and habitus

The term 'habitus' is considered to be mainly related to Bourdieu's work on social structure and agency although this concept exists implicitly in works by Durkheim, Hegel and Aristotle (Stones, 2006). As mentioned earlier, Becher and Trowler's (2001) notion of academic tribes and territories implies that academic members are classified into groups according to their intellectual enquiry and culture of the discipline. Academics learn about the culture of the discipline when they enter the tribes to mark out their territories; hence, the acculturation of members to their group norms. For Bourdieu, however, it is the other way around. Habitus is not a physical place; rather, it is embedded inside people's mind with a transposable disposition for them to act, as in his argument:

The habitus is necessity internalized and converted into a disposition that generates meaningful practices and meaning-giving perceptions; it is a general, transposable disposition which carries out a systematic, universal application—beyond the limits of what has been directly learnt—of the necessity inherent in the learning conditions. (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 170)

Instead of getting into the community to learn about the culture of the discipline and act like others, Bourdieu argues that members are living in their own habitus and they act according to the disposition which is embodied in them. With these embodied dispositions, people have different social life styles and these differences contribute to identity, class and culture distinctions. Bourdieu argues that people have a predisposition to show their visceral taste or visceral disgust towards things around them, for example, food, dress, newspapers, furniture, gesture and even social manner. Habitus provides individuals with a condition to create social identity. To illustrate, Bourdieu's (1984) analysis of people from different classes shows that the upper and middle classes such as executives, professionals and big employers choose bouillabaisse (a thick soup made of fish) as their favourite dish in contrast to the working classes such as clericals, manuals and small employers who prefer pot-au-feu (a soup of boiled

beef). This judgement of taste in food is an example of the identification of a person's social class.

In relation to the concept of habitus, Bourdieu (1990) also provides the notions of 'field' and 'practice'. Individuals must engage in a kind of 'regulated improvisations' with the same life conditions before they share the same habitus. This explains why when individuals encounter the same class situation, they react with similar actions which constitute their acceptable ways of doing. For Bourdieu, this same class situation which is shared by individuals is defined as 'field' and this acceptable way of doing, 'practice'.

Bourdieu (1979) also likens social life to a game and the space for such game, 'field'. All games have rules to guide what players can and cannot do. The actions by the players in the field are analogous to practices. When individuals move within their own field, they have 'the feel for the game' and they feel 'at home'. They just know what to do. However, when individuals move away from their own field and face unfamiliar situations, they may exhibit various reactions ranging from unease to disgust. It implies, therefore, that habitus is like a set of rules of conduct to guide individuals to act, i.e., to engage in practices in the field.

Practices, nevertheless, are not solely governed by official rules. Bourdieu (1979) explains this by arguing that all practices are equipped with a practical sense or a practical logic which is tacit. In other words, individuals practice or act according to what they find 'obviously right' or what makes sense for them (Cuff, Sharrock, & Francis, 2006). Since in the field of the game there are many positions with their own rules of conduct to achieve the target, individuals usually identify themselves with a certain position or role in their field so that they can perform according to the logic of practice. Further, every field is a social arena where people struggle for power and resources. This is where Bourdieu introduces the concept of 'cultural capital', based on Marx's notion of 'capital', to explain the social classes within the same field. However, he goes beyond Marx's economic capital to include cultural capital (or personal attributes which accumulate over time as part of acculturation) and symbolic capital (or personal roles and positions in the field). It is this symbolic capital which allows individuals to access and gain power. For example, those people

who have a good educational background (cultural capital) can turn their degree into a well-paid profession (symbolic capital) in a much easier way than those who lack it. Therefore, individuals with a larger amount of capital are likely to belong to a dominant group in the field because they have access to power.

One form of cultural capital is literacy because literacy can have an enormous impact on individuals. Carrington and Luke (1997) argue that this cultural capital of literacy can be classified into three types: embodied, objectified and institutional. Embodied cultural capital refers to knowledge, skills, dispositions and linguistic practices because these are directly connected to (or 'embedded' in) individuals. Objectified capital refers to transmissible material objects such as books and paintings. Institutional cultural capital might come in the form of academic qualifications, certificates and credentials approved by a legitimate authority or an institution. However, although these forms of cultural capital are valuable, they are so only in particular fields and not in others. Therefore, the problem in education is that school-based literacy achievement cannot guarantee social success of students because school literacy might be of no value in other fields apart from school. Therefore, it is argued that a combination of these forms of capital needs to be taken into account on the life path of students to fully understand their social achievement (Carrington & Luke, 1997).

As regards this relationship between literacy and symbolic power, Bourdieu (1991) remarks that it is through the 'correct', or to be precise 'corrected', expressions which are socially acceptable by institutions (e.g., in the case of irregular verb forms) that individuals can manifest their cultural capital and practical mastery which they inculcate. In this way, a person can say they use the legitimate language.

With regard to academic writing, Bazerman (2001) draws on Bourdieu's notion of capital to argue that academic writing is a kind of capital for scholarly writers to gain access to power in the academy. To become a successful scholar in the discipline, writers need to adopt the appropriate ways of using the knowledge and expressing it with a powerful voice. To be specific, the knowledge of the writers, which is cultural capital, can be converted into symbolic capital such as membership, career success and powerful voice in the academic world through academic writing, as Bazerman (2001) puts it:

The university provides students with the means and motives to become members of one or another elite. Even the most democratic and egalitarian universities are about access to power. Learning academic writing sits even more at this tension point between power and democracy, for learning academic writing entails learning to wield tools of symbolic power for immediate rhetorical purposes. (Bazerman, 2001, p. 25)

Although Bourdieu's concept provides a useful framework for the development of academic writers as they live in habitus and accumulate their cultural capital for scholarly publication to achieve symbolic capital as an authority in their discipline, the problem with Bourdieu's concept of habitus is how individuals develop habitus in the first place to have a predisposition towards the situations surrounding them. For me, 'habitus' sounds and seems to be like 'habit' or a repeated action of which individuals are sometimes unaware although Bourdieu denies it. Bourdieu also suggests the innateness of habitus in individuals, leaving only a few alternatives for them to act against the force of their own habitus, like the phrase 'a creature of habit', unless they encounter a new field and a new form of practice. Moreover, Bourdieu's concept of cultural capital undermines the performative aspect of identity since it emphasises the accumulation of cultural capital as part of identity formation. Therefore, I shall consider Foucault's notion of discourse which implies no predisposition within individuals but an external condition for individuals to subject themselves to it either consciously or unconsciously. Moreover, Foucault is often cited for the concept of discourse as a social practice which incorporates ideology and power to create a discursive self.

2.2.2. Foucault and discourse

The term 'discourse' in social sciences is generally associated with Foucault and his works on knowledge and power. Linguistically, discourse is a stretch of connected sentences or utterances with coherence and cohesion in either written or spoken mode (Brown & Yule, 1983). Moreover, discourse is about how people use language to do things in life, especially through the 'illocutionary force' of statements (Austin, 1976) which allows people to justify their action through language use as in the case of marriage when we hear *'I now pronounce you husband and wife'*.

These 'performative' statements are what Foucault is interested in when he examines 'archaeology of knowledge'—how a group of statements of knowledge are considered not only as truth but also as practice—as Foucault puts it:

[I]nstead of gradually reducing the rather fluctuating meaning of the word 'discourse', I believe I have in fact added to its meanings: treating it sometimes as the general domain of all statements, sometimes as an individualizable groups of statements, and sometimes as a regulated practice that accounts for a number of statements (Foucault, 1972, p. 80).

From this quotation, Mills (2004) contends that Foucault provides three definitions to the word 'discourse'. The first one is that all statements which have meanings and effects in the real world are considered discourse, i.e. discourse in general. The second definition is that discourse is a group of statements or utterances which are regulated, coherent and force-driven, possibly in the form of texts. The third definition treats discourse not as actual statements and texts but as 'rules and structures which produce particular utterances and texts' (Mills, 2004, p. 6).

It is argued that discourse holds power and dominion over speakers, as in the comment: 'You don't speak the discourse, the discourse speaks you!' (Winch & Gingell, 2008, p. 60). Foucault emphasises that people have knowledge of something, not from the things in the world, but only from the discourse, as he puts it: 'One remains within the dimension of discourse' (Foucault, 1972, p. 85). To illustrate, Foucault (1978) explains that the concept of homosexuality first appeared in the late nineteenth century and only in the discourses of morality, law, medicine and psychiatry. These discourses not only make it possible for people to talk about homosexuality in relation to moral conducts, legal matters, therapies as well as mental illnesses but also allow them to treat a particular group of people as 'homosexual subjects' and to create discursive practices for dealing with such subjects.

Discourse, therefore, produces a particular group of people, or 'subjects'. This is the concept of 'subjectivity' which Weedon (1997) refers to as 'the conscious and unconscious thoughts and emotions of the individual, her sense of herself and her ways of understanding her relation in the world' (p. 32). This subjectivity

is also constructed in discourse whenever individuals think or speak. This discursive process in which people engage in discourse through thinking and speaking is usually referred to as 'subject positioning' (Hall, 1997).

Further, discourse can identify individuals. For example, a person who subscribes to the discourse of conservatism can be called a 'conservative'. Therefore, it is argued that individuals do not have an identity in themselves but individuals always produce, create and perform their identity through discourse which is in the realm of language (Blommaert, 2005). However, there are many discourses in society and a person's subjectivity can encounter both continuity and change, depending on the discourses available to them (Burr, 1995).

The issues of discourse, subject positioning and identity lead Ivanič (1998) to argue that writing is an act of identity. Discourse plays an important role for writers because discourse constitutes 'a culturally recognised way of representing a particular aspect of reality from a particular ideological perspective' (Ivanič, 1998, p. 17) and as such writers mediate various discourses to construct their identity.

However, the multiplicity of discourses in the world means that individuals are facing difficult choices to make when certain discourses are conflicting. Therefore, individuals are usually in the process of negotiation and contestation, which Bakhtin (1981) refers to as the process of 'hybridisation'. Individuals might speak what others have said before them but they can have their own accents in what they say. This is one characteristic of the concept 'dialogism'.

2.2.3. Bakhtin and dialogism

The term 'dialogism' is usually associated with the works by Bakhtin (1981, 1986) who asserts that in every dialogue, there is an internal dialogic relationship. Dialogue requires not only speakers and listeners but also their interactions. Moreover, Bakhtin emphasises that words are always equipped with evaluative accents before we pick them up and use them in our utterance. Therefore, words are living organisms, not just a thing in the dictionary; individuals can never use words as if words did not contain evaluative accents.

Since the author of a literary work uses words which have been previously used by others, this implies the existence of social speeches apart from the author's speech. The multiplicity of speeches which circulate within the society, which Bakhtin refers to as 'heteroglossia' allows the author to express their intentions in multiple directions. Therefore, the author's utterance is argued to be at least double-voiced—if not multi-voiced—because the utterance serves two people (the actual author and another speaker) at the same time. If the author can control the others' speech in their utterance, they can either re-accentuate it as an assertion or mock it as a parody. However, in certain cases, the others' speech resists the author's control, resulting in the blurring between the author's intention and the others'. In such case, it is called 'hybridisation' and it is clearly evident in literary works where there is a mixture of both the author's and the characters' speech:

The same hybridisation, mixing of accents and erasing of boundaries between authorial speech and the speech of others is also present in other forms for transmitting characters' speech (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 320)

Bakhtin also argues that language is more than a system of signs because language always incorporates world views and belief systems. Words used by any speakers or writers can be dubbed 'ideologemes' because their words always resonate with particular world views through their evaluative accent. This is another conception of ideology, different from the Foucauldian tradition.

However, it seems that many linguistic scholars attempt to find the underlying structure of language. Bakhtin considers such attempt to be a linguistic mistake because there is no systematic order in the words. Instead, Bakhtin suggests a 'metalinguistic' approach to analysing language, maintaining that a metalinguistic analysis goes beyond linguistics (or a system of sign structure) towards the level of dialogicality (or a living interaction in language usage).

With regard to the metalinguistic approach, Bakhtin criticises the realm of word relationship in linguistics and proposes the notion of 'utterance' instead of 'sentence' (Vološinov, 1986). Bakhtin considers 'sentence' to be like a dead language which no human being uses because sentence can stand on its own; hence, its lack of interaction. In the dialogic level, it is utterance which makes language alive because utterance posits interaction. When we speak, we talk

about the 'thing-in-the-world'. However, Bakhtin argues that 'the thing' which we talk about always includes others' utterances because every utterance must be addressed to past utterance and anticipates future one as an answer. No utterance can stand on its own. Therefore, dialogue is unfinalisable. Moreover, all utterances require time and space, or 'chronotope', to engender their context. Therefore, each utterance is not a repeated sentence but a new, unrepeatable event between speakers and listeners who always need each other. However, two parties are not sufficient to understand each other because there must be a superaddressee as a third party for both to turn to so that they can check their understanding (Morson & Emerson, 1990). This process also happens inside our mind when we talk to ourselves and we address our utterance to that inner somebody, or 'voice in the mind'. Therefore, a dialogue can also be viewed as a 'triad' (Holquist, 2002) and a metalinguistic perspective always involves 'extralinguistic' elements—namely, addressivity, answerability, unfinalisability, unrepeatability, chronotope, evaluative accent and superaddressee—which are not found in linguistics as a system of sign structure (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986).

In the world of literary works, there are many cases of allusion, giving rise to the concept of 'intertextuality' (Kristeva, 1980). In other words, there is no text which does not relate to other texts. A literary work contains sources and analogies from other texts. Likewise, an academic work is intertextual because it cites other authorities to engage in a dialogue.

The main arguments from these three social theories will be discussed in the next section to formulate different conceptions of authorial identity.

2.3. Conceptions of Authorial Identity

The three social theories by Bourdieu, Foucault and Bakhtin are useful for examining the nature and characteristics of discourse, community, power relationship, ideology and identity. Therefore, each theory can represent a framework. In this section, I shall use these theories to present three conceptions of the identity of an academic writer.

Bourdieu's theory has shown the relationship between discourse and identity through habitus in the process of differentiation, or 'distinction', within a class system. Habitus is 'the principle of division into logical classes' so that a social identity can be 'defined and asserted through difference' (Bourdieu, 1984, pp. 170-172). Grenfell's (2011a) interpretation of Bourdieu's works on academic life suggests that education and schooling is the system of perpetuating inherent talent and worth inside elite students whereas the students from the lower classes fail because they consent to fail as they believe they do not have such talent inside them. That is the reason why there exists an ideal concept of *homo academicus* in the French society. To be an academic, one must be a son or a daughter of teachers and one must be highly literate in the sense that one should finish reading the whole canon of French literature before going to college. And even in college, one normally engages in the activities which one can perform very well. This implies the existence of an already established pattern, i.e. *habitus*, for one to 'practice' according to the internal logic of such 'field'. Therefore, an academic scholar is viewed as a 'personified' form of cultural capital (Grenfell, 2011a).

However, linguists seem to overlook Bourdieu's framework (Grenfell, 2011a) probably because his theory is mainly intended as an anthropological study of a large group of people, not each individual, to understand the relationship between habitus and field. This tradition with 'group' is echoed in Grenfell's (2011b) study of language variations within the French town of Orléans where 600 inhabitants were sampled through a questionnaire. However, Bourdieu's notion of 'habitus' has been used in a case study (Dressen-Hammouda, 2008) about one student who tried to shift from novice status to expertise in his academic writing by talking, doing and behaving like disciplinary experts in a particular community of practice. It is argued that writers can draw on shared symbolic genres to develop disciplinary identity instead of relying merely on habitus.

Foucault's theory influences various studies into academic discourse and disciplinary community although he might not be explicitly mentioned. Research studies which foreground 'subject positioning' and a CDA approach tend to adopt Foucault's framework because Foucault identifies the institutional discourse with the process of treating people as subjects. In this sense,

academic writing is related to the disciplinary discourses which writers draw on in order to portray themselves as 'subjects'—or, to put it appropriately in this context, members—of such disciplines. In other words, institutional discourses are more important than members. 'What difference does it make who is speaking?' asks Foucault (1984, p. 120). Therefore, the author of a written work is only an ideological product of institutional discourses which circulate within a society.

As for Bakhtin's theory, it has also been applied in many research studies about discourse and identity. However, Foucault's and Bakhtin's ideas are often fused and synthesised. There is also a perception that Foucault is pessimistic but Bakhtin is optimistic because Foucault does not concede agency in individuals whereas Bakhtin argues that voices can be made one's own through evaluative accents (Hyland, 2010; Ivanič, 1998).

To clarify the difference between Foucault and Bakhtin, I argue that part of this (con)fusion is due to the blurring distinction between instantiation and intertextuality. Foucault focuses on instantiation while Bakhtin emphasises intertextuality. Instantiation is the process of reproducing the original discourse or identity in a new instance whereas intertextuality refers to the relation between two discourses or two identities. Therefore, a Foucauldian discourse analysis seems to emphasise the echoing effect whereas a Bakhtinian approach allows room for refraction through intonation. Gee's account of a motorcyclist is a good example to distinguish between instantiation and intertextuality. From an instantiation perspective, it would be 'wrong' for a motorcyclist to say '*May I have a match for my cigarette, please?*' to his buddy because the way of using language needs to be 'right' to be recognised as a certain kind of people (in this case, a motorcyclist) because discourse is an identity kit. From an intertextuality perspective, however, people can make use and make fun of language in real life, depending on the context in which it is used. Asking such a 'wrong' question, even by a motorcyclist to his buddy in a pub, would convey an intonation, such as surprise, irony or politeness. This intonation would be enacted through the relation between the motorcyclist and the motorcyclist's buddy when they anticipate a response or address (i.e., direct to) the question. This ability to create an intonation, including evaluative accent and intention, is thanks to what Bakhtin calls 'chronotope' or time-space of such

expression. Each time-space is unique and on-going. By extension, language on a chronotopic plane is unique, living and on-going as part of a wider dialogue. Therefore, Bakhtin does not take language use as a mere instance of the social speech communication because he recognises the intertextuality between the utterances within the social world which express the authorial speech.

As discussed above, the issues of academic discourse and identity can involve Bourdieu's differentiation, Foucault's instantiation and Bakhtin's intertextuality and each framework provides an insightful dimension of the relationship between individuals and their social worlds. Therefore, the relationship between authorial identity and academic writing based on these three frameworks leads to three conceptions of authorial identity as follows:

1. The author as part of the authority
2. The death of the author and the birth of the institution
3. The rebirth of the author(s) and reader(s)

2.3.1. The author as part of the authority

For Bourdieu (1988), *homo academicus* or academic scholars, as mentioned earlier, are cultural capital *personified* because these scholars have access to the cultural capital or valued products at home and from education, such as the 'right' accent, familiarity with 'high culture', the 'right' books as well as 'formal' qualifications. These are 'valued' products because they are 'recognised' within the social institution of symbolic power to which the cultural capital belongs. In this sense, academic scholars are 'authorised representatives' of the academic institution when they use the 'authorised language' to exercise the symbolic power of the academic institution.

To put it another way, academic scholars represent the authority of academic discourse. Regarding academic writing, Bazerman (2001) clearly articulates that academic discourse is such cultural capital for success in higher education and one's academic career. To succeed, writers need to express themselves with a powerful voice by drawing on the cultural capital vested in them through access to academic resources so that they can be recognised as *homo academicus* in their writing. Moreover, their writing needs to be 'recognised' as a valued

product within the academic circle so that the authorship of such work can turn it into symbolic capital such as membership and reputation.

Owing to the notion of 'symbolic capital' as proposed by Bourdieu, it is possible to imagine academic authors as part of the authority. Therefore, 'voice' is an important element for academic writers to achieve authority.

Authority in academic writing through 'voice' involves the issues of legitimate language, accent and opinion. By extension, voice covers the style, the manner and the attitude expressed by the author. Therefore, voice is 'embedded' in each author and it is a personal property. Moreover, there are issues of contents and currency in academic publication. This is a matter of who discovers something important first and takes ownership of such contents through publication in the academic circle before others. The published paper will then become the author's 'currency' (Becher & Trowler, 2001) which can be translated into authority. As Bourdieu argues, these reputable academic writers will become an icon, or a 'personified' form of authority in their field of discipline for others to recognise them as a legitimate, warrantable and authoritative voice. Presumably, the notion of 'the man and his works' in a capital-valued society is engendered by this concept of 'voice' to signal the importance of personal property and ownership.

For many EAP researchers, it is argued that academic writing and voice are inseparable (e.g., Matsuda & Tardy, 2007; Richards & Miller, 2005; Thompson, 1996, 2001). However, it is often the case that novice writers perceive others' voice to be louder and more powerful than their own voice, resulting in a tension between using one's own quiet voice and using others' powerful voice, thereby losing one's own voice amidst the others'. Gerri is an example of those who were afraid to use their own voice and chose to hide themselves behind others' voices instead (Thomson & Kamler, 2012).

To deal with such tension in academic writing, two ways seem to have been proposed. Either novice writers use their own voice throughout their whole text (Elbow, 1998) or they balance between editing the others' voice and inserting their own (Pittam et al., 2009). These approaches have different implications for the development of authorial identity.

In the first scenario, the whole text belongs to the author although they have mentioned other sources in it. The author may paraphrase the others' contents, retell the others' stories and quote the authorities with a proper acknowledgement to avoid plagiarism but the integrity of voice in the whole writing is the key element. Otherwise, the author's work is likely to be viewed as 'patchwriting' (Pecorari, 2003) in which the reader cannot find the author's real voice and style because too many voices want to achieve prominence.

In the second case, it is acknowledged that different voices can be heard but the main point is that it must be clear who is speaking what at any particular moment. Good academic writers must make their readers aware between their personal voice and the others' voice (Pittam et al., 2009). With the identification of sources through citation to make clear who is responsible for a proposition, the author can develop their own position as well as their authoritative persona in the text (Thompson, 2005). In this way, plagiarism is about appropriating the others' voice and stance without a proper acknowledgement.

Also central to the concept of authority in academic writing is the level of voice to be heard. An obvious example of the authorial voice is the first personal pronoun in writing (*I*), as shown in Figure 2.2. There are many occasions for *I* to be used and each usage has a different value and impact, for instance, *I* as the architect of the writing as in *I will discuss* or *I* as the opinion-holder as in *I think* (Tang & John, 1999). However, it is noted that college students tend to avoid using *I* in their writing whereas social science scholars use it more frequently for their argument (Hyland, 2002). Given below is the typology of *I* in academic writing.

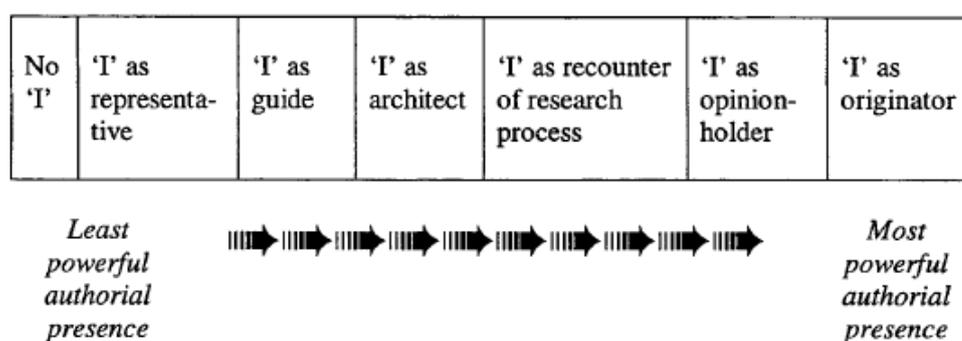


Figure 2.2 Levels of authorial presence (Tang and John, 1999, p. S29)

It has been noted that academic papers in certain disciplines contain only a few instances of 'I', or no 'I' at all because the authority to write in those fields is often governed by the 'disembodied voice' (Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007) to reflect the inculcation of cultural capital, such as the idealism of scientific ('positivist') methodology. Therefore, an academic paper without 'I' in natural science research communities is likely to achieve the symbolic power of scientific discourse as well as to signal the authorship of rationality.

Yet, it has also been noticed that these supposedly 'author-evacuated' articles can occasionally contain 'I' to publicise their author by displaying their methodological diligence and rigour such as '*I hoped to counteract the memory problem, but I made no impact whatsoever*' (Harwood, 2005a) or by suggesting novelty and newsworthiness of their research such as '*Nowhere has anyone attempted ... In this article I aim to do just that*' (Harwood, 2005b). Although this methodological 'I' does not appear to carry the tenor of original argument contributor, this 'I' often highlights the author's procedural innovations in comparison to other authors; hence, it can become an implicit tool for self-promotion, authority and authorship in academic writing.

Instead of the first personal pronoun 'I', senior academic writers can cite their own previous works in their texts. White (2001) has analysed eight authors from information science and has noticed that as the authors' oeuvre grows, they 'cite themselves most frequently' (p. 93). In other words, their 'citation identity'—namely, a set of all names cited in their oeuvre—almost always contains their own name at the top of the frequency list, though still less than 10 percent of the total references (Cronin & Shaw, 2002). Therefore, self-citation is possibly another mark of the author's manifestation in their work.

Still, this conception of authorial identity seems to put a greater emphasis on the author in the academic institution than the institutional practice. In the next section, I shall present another conception of authorial identity which suggests that the academic institution occupies centre stage in the author's writing practice.

2.3.2. The death of the author and the birth of the institution

In this section, I consider Barthes' argument about the death of the author and other discourse analysts who argue for the significance of discourse communities. Besides, I acknowledge Foucault's criticism about the 'author function' to complement our understanding of the author and the institution.

Barthes (1977) argues against the traditional approach in literary studies in which both the author's life and their works are examined together in order to understand the authorial intentions in the text. Barthes believes that there is no connection between the author's life and their works and that '[t]o give a text an Author is to impose a limit on that text, to furnish it with a final signified, to close the writing' (p. 147). Barthes argues that the term 'author' should be replaced by the term 'scriptor' because the scriptor can be conceived only when the text is written. For Anglophone scholars, the alternative term for 'author' might be 'writer'. Moreover, Barthes argues that each reading of the same text is new and as such there can be no stable interpretation of the text. In this way, Barthes is against deciphering, or a practice in which literary critics try to understand the motives of the authors to explain what they have written. What Barthes proposes is to 'disentangle' everything in the text and this means that readers refuse to accept authors as God or the originator of meanings.

Foucault's notion of 'the death of man' is similar to this because the author does not speak the discourse; rather, the discourse speaks the author. Foucault (1984) stresses that an author's name which is connected to a body of texts need to be reconceptualised, not as a mark of genius of such an author, but as a 'founder of discursivity' who creates the possibilities and the rules for the formation of other texts. Therefore, Foucault opts for the notion of 'author function' instead. To illustrate, Marx is the founder of the discourse of capitalism (including Marxism) whereas Freud establishes the discourse of psychoanalysis (including Freudism).

However, there are many discourses circulating in society and authors become subject to multiple discourses. Since identity is constructed in discourse, a single author can display many discursive identities. Therefore, Ivanič (1998)

argues that the identity of the author is in flux. Like Barthes, Ivanič argues that the author does not have a stable identity.

Ivanič's framework for 'writer identity' should be mentioned here because it effectively explains the discursive construction of identity in academic writing. Her term is also 'writer', not 'author' because she reserves the term 'author' for authority and authorial presence. Each time a person writes, they are acting an identity through the discursive construction. Therefore, there are multiple identities and these identities fluctuate all the time. Writers are not themselves when they write; they need to put on something out there to create their identity because identity is not something a person can have but it is something a person must perform.

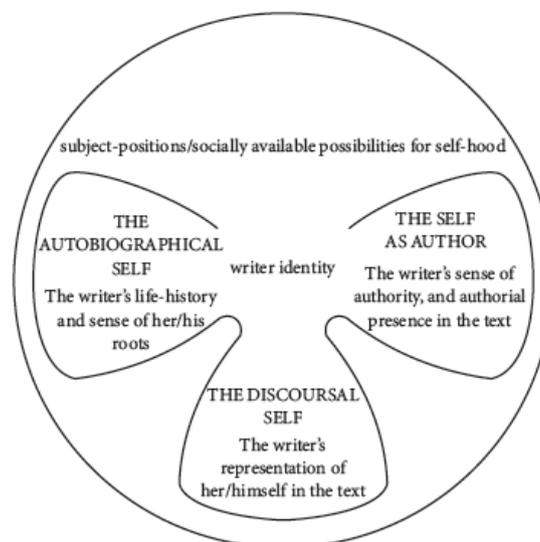


Figure 2.3 Aspects of writer identity by Clark and Ivanič (1997, p. 137)

According to this framework of writer identity as shown in Figure 2.3, there are four aspects, three of which belong to the actual writer during the act of writing whereas the one remaining aspect remains in the socio-cultural context of writing. The three aspects inside the actual writer are the autobiographical self, the discursive self and the self as author. These three kinds of 'self' are continually constructed by and constructing the socially available possibilities for self-hood. Writer identity is created through subject positions. The main aspect

in an academic text is 'the discursal self' because it is the manifest representation of the writer in the text through the use of discourses.

Ivanič (1998) also contends that certain lexico-syntactic features in extracts written by her co-researchers 'position' these writers momentarily in relation to their field of study, or discipline. To give an example, she suggests that her co-researchers would quantify world phenomena with objective modality in natural sciences papers but would mention names of specific people and express their feelings in literary studies papers.

These examples suggest that academia as an institution is not a monolithic site because there are many disciplines or fields of study. Becher and Trowler (2001) propose four major disciplinary groups according to the criteria of knowledge and application as shown in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Four disciplinary groups (Becher and Trowler, 2001, p. 36)

<i>Disciplinary groupings</i>	<i>Nature of knowledge</i>
Pure sciences (e.g. physics): 'hard-pure'	Cumulative; atomistic (crystalline/tree-like); concerned with universals, quantities, simplification; impersonal, value-free; clear criteria for knowledge verification and obsolescence; consensus over significant questions to address, now and in the future; results in discovery/explanation.
Humanities (e.g. history) and pure social sciences (e.g. anthropology): 'soft-pure'	Reiterative; holistic (organic/river-like); concerned with particulars, qualities, complication; personal, value-laden; dispute over criteria for knowledge verification and obsolescence; lack of consensus over significant questions to address; results in understanding/interpretation.
Technologies (e.g. mechanical engineering, clinical medicine): 'hard-applied'	Purposive; pragmatic (know-how via hard knowledge); concerned with mastery of physical environment; applies heuristic approaches; uses both qualitative and quantitative approaches; criteria for judgement are purposive, functional; results in products/techniques.
Applied social science (e.g. education, law, social administration): 'soft-applied'	Functional; utilitarian (know-how via soft knowledge); concerned with enhancement of [semi-] professional practice; uses case studies and case law to a large extent; results in protocols/procedures.

Still, it is argued that in each disciplinary site, many discourses are competing against one another. There are 'dominant' and 'dominated' discourses (Fairclough, 1992) or at least 'privileged' and 'less privileged' discourses (Wertsch, 1991).

In order to know exactly the features and characteristics of the dominant or privileged discourses, evidence is needed, not just speculation. Corpus linguistic studies have provided strong evidence of dominant discourses within the academic institution to depict the differences between two or more disciplinary groups. For instance, Hyland (1999) examines the differences in eight disciplinary discourses by using a taxonomy of metadiscourse and points out the disciplinary differences in terms of the frequency of citations, the reporting structures and the verb forms as shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 Disciplinary differences in terms of reporting structures and verb forms (Hyland, 1999, p. 349)

Discipline	Reporting structures		Most frequent forms
	per paper	% of citations	
Philosophy	57.1	67.0%	say, suggest, argue, claim, point out, propose, think
Sociology	43.6	42.0%	argue, suggest, describe, note, analyse, discuss
Applied Ling.	33.4	44.4%	suggest, argue, show, explain, find, point out
Marketing	32.7	34.5%	suggest, argue, demonstrate, propose, show
Biology	26.2	31.7%	describe, find, report, show, suggest, observe
Electronic Eng.	17.4	40.6%	propose, use, describe, show, publish
Mechanical Eng.	11.7	42.5%	describe, show, report, discuss
Physics	6.6	27.0%	develop, report, study
Averages	28.6	42.6%	suggest, argue, find, show, describe, propose, report

The findings from this type of research are helpful for our understanding of how the dominant and privileged discourse in each discipline appears to be. To illustrate, the dominant practices in philosophy are to cite a lot of references and to *argue* whereas the dominant practices in biology are to *describe* and to *observe*. Therefore, *arguments* have no special privileges in a biology paper

because the corpus-based evidence suggests that the dominant discourses of biology grant privileges to *descriptions* and *observations*.

This concept of disciplinary discourse is intriguing because scholars from different approaches might form a different viewpoint regarding the issue of power and agency. On the one hand, scholars from the CDA approach seem to foreground the power of discourse on individual writers by illustrating which practice is 'dominant' or 'privileged' in each disciplinary discourse. On the other hand, scholars from the corpus-based approach suggest that the findings only identify tendencies in each disciplinary discourse rather than pinpoint the dominance of such practice. Therefore, the nexus of power and agency is debatable. Foucault (1984), however, believes that individual's engagement in discourse usually results in the institutionalisation of discourse. In the future, nobody will ask who is speaking because the mode of discourse is much more influential than the person who speaks it.

So far, I have discussed two conceptions of authorial identity (the author as the authority and the death of the author). Both seem to be too extreme and be on the opposite sides of the same pole. The first argues for the authority of the individual whereas the second supports the authority of the institution. In the next section, another conception of authorial identity will be presented.

2.3.3. The rebirth of the author(s) and reader(s)

In this strand, I am influenced by Bakhtin and Burkitt's (1998) argument for the rebirth of the author. However, I prefer the term 'authors' because it acknowledges the multiplicity of many authors in any single piece of writing.

For Bakhtin, all writings form a big dialogue. To put it simply, a text needs both an author and a reader so that it can be written as an utterance or a chain in a wider circle. However, Bakhtin argues that the addressee (or the reader) always comes first before the utterance can be made. Therefore, the reader is actually the co-author of the text because the actual writer needs at least a reader in mind, or at least the previous text which they can address the current text to.

Based on Bakhtin's concept of intertextuality, Smith (1998) likens academic writing to a dialogue and explains that when we read, we act like eavesdroppers in the conversation. Moreover, 'the cited authors in the text act as characters; they are cited as authorities; attributed theoretical positions; attacked; quoted to support a position taken by the writer, or to illustrate the writer's interpretation' (Smith, 1998, p. 76). Therefore, the written text is a place where the author can weave up the story using what others have said as characters and ideologues.

Citation is presumably an obvious indication of intertextuality among academic papers. Scholars from information science have been examining how citation networks can contribute to the creation of author's intellectual image and identity (e.g., Cronin & Shaw, 2002; White, 2001). In this regard, authors are related to one another through citations in their bibliography lists and it is argued that 'the essence of [an individual] scholar's personal intellectual history is mirrored (or refracted) in bibliometric data' (Cronin & Shaw, 2002, p. 33). White (2001) suggests that the relationship between citers and citees can be viewed with two aspects—citation identity and citation image. An author's citation identity is 'the set of authors that an author cites', including oneself, whereas an author's citation image is 'the set of all authors with whom one has been cocited' (White, 2001, p. 88). In other words, when an author cites a source, he is creating his own citation identity and at the same time he is contributing to others' citation image; therefore, every author is both identity-creator and image-maker through citation networks (Cronin & Shaw, 2002). To illustrate, Cronin and Shaw's citation analysis of the author named 'Kling' in the whole canon of 31 papers of Kling's career is shown in Figure 2.4.

Identity-creation		Image-making	
197	KLING R	31	KLING R
21	KRAEMER KL	11	KRAEMER KL
18	DANZIGER JN	10	RICE RE
15	LAUDON KC	9	JOSHI K
15	STERLING TD	8	DUTTON WH
13	RULE J	8	MARKUS ML
12	GERSON EM	7	DANZIGER JN
12	LUCAS HC	7	KING JL
12	SIMON HA	6	BLACKLER F
12	STRAUSS AL	6	HIRSCHHEIM RA
10	MOWSHOWITZ A	6	IVARI J
8	ATTEWELL P	6	SILLINCE JAA
8	BECKER HS	6	STERLING TD
8	COLTON KW	5	CRONIN B
8	DUTTON WH	5	ROMM CT
8	KEEN PGW	4	AVGEROU C
8	MARKUS ML	4	GRINT K
8	MUMFORD E	4	LYYTINEN K
8	ORLIKOWSKI WJ	4	NISSEN ME
7	KING JL	4	ROBEY D
6	FROOMKIN AM	4	SCACCHI W
6	GOODMAN SE	4	VENKATESH A
6	IACONO S	4	VITALARI NP
6	PARKER DB	4	WALSHAM G
5	ALBRECHT GL	4	ZMUD R

Figure 2.4 Citation identity and image makers for the author named Kling (Cronin & Shaw, 2002, p. 47)

The left column—'identity-creation' or all citations in Kling's all academic papers, including self-citations—shows that Kling cites himself 197 times and Kraemer 21 times. The right column—'image making' refers to works which cite Kling—shows that there are 31 papers which cite Kling and these 31 papers are written by Kling himself whereas 11 papers written by Kraemer cite Kling. Therefore, it is quite obvious that Kling and Kraemer are highly cocited as colleagues and that their academic papers reflect their intellectual, social and institutional ties.

Although this technique of citation networks can be used to illustrate the intertextual features, there are other relevant concerns as in the egotism from a high rate of self-citation, the use of others' voice and the citations readers anticipate.

As regards the high rate of author self-citations in relation to egotism, Lawani (1982) suggests that not all self-citations are the same; these should be classified into two main groups—synchronous self-citations and diachronous self-citations. 'An author's synchronous self-citations are those contained in the citations the author *gives*, whereas diachronous self-citations are those included in the citations an author *receives*' (Lawani, 1982, p. 281, his emphasis). Lawani gives an example of four articles from one journal as shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Synchronous and diachronous self-citation rates of 4 sample articles (Lawani, 1982, p. 282)

Article	Synchronous Rate	Diachronous Rate (1977-1980)
1. Ogunmola, G. B.; Zipp, A.; Chen, F.; Kauzmann, W. <i>PNAS</i> . 74: 1-4; 1977.	Total of 22 citations of which 6 were self-citations, i.e., synchronous rate is 27.3%.	Total of 11 citations of which 1 was self-citation. Diachronous rate is thus 9.1%.
2. Hindman, J.C.; Kugel, R.; Svirnickas, A.; Katz, J.J. <i>PNAS</i> . 74: 5-9; 1977.	Total of 16 citations. No self-citation, i.e., synchronous rate is 0.0%.	Total of 17 citations of which 4 were self-citations. Diachronous rate is thus 23.5%.
3. Lee, S-H.; Jhon, M.S., Eyring, H. <i>PNAS</i> . 74: 10-12; 1977.	Total of 17 citations of which 6 were self-citations, i.e., synchronous rate is 35.3%.	Total of 1 citation which was a self-citation. Diachronous rate is 100.0%.
4. Van Wart, H.E. and Scheraga, H.A. <i>PNAS</i> . 74: 13-17; 1977.	Total of 24 citations of which 8 were self-citations, i.e., synchronous rate is 33.3%.	Total of 8 citations of which 1 was self-citation, thus Diachronous rate is 12.5%.
All four articles	Total of 79 citations of which 20 were self-citations, i.e., synchronous rate is 25.3%.	Total of 37 citations of which 7 were self-citations, thus Diachronous rate is 18.9%.

It can be seen that the first article in Table 2.6—Ogunmola et al. 1977—cites 22 sources, 6 of which are their own works (self-citations); therefore, the synchronous self-citation rate is 27.3% (i.e., $6 / 22 \times 100$). Over the next four years (1977-1980), this 1977 article by Ogunmola et al. was cited in 11 articles, one of which was written by Ogunmola et al. themselves; therefore, the diachronous self-citation rate is 9.1% (i.e., $1 / 11 \times 100$). Based on this approach to calculation, Lawani suggests that these self-citation rates can indicate an author's egotism. He then argues that '[a] high synchronous self-citation rate does not necessarily imply egotism whereas a high diachronous rate definitely does' (Lawani, 1982, p. 282). However, White (2001) disagrees with the interpretation. He argues that generally authors would cite themselves along with other academic scholars through citation networks to boost both their profile and others'; hence, their synchronous self-citation rate is usually less than 10%. Nonetheless, a high diachronous rate of self-citation 'seems more an indicator of what might be called *intellectual isolation*' (p. 89) probably because these authors are inclined to limit themselves to a tight-knit citation network in which they are the centre.

Because an author often cites other sources, what is said in an author's text might belong to the others' voice rather than the author's. This is an issue of voice ownership and Prior (2001) argues that both the source as well as the intentionality of voices are important for textual analysis. In one study on textual voices in academic writing, Bondi (2009) examines three types or aspects of textual voice in history book review articles written in English and Italian. These aspects are: (a) the nature of argument, which is either monologic or dialogic; (b) the voice directionality, which expresses either agreement or disagreement; and (c) the meaning, which can be literal or metaphorical. Bondi's analysis suggests that history book reviews in English manifest a 'dialogic' representation of argument through the use of verbs which indicate the reviewer's agreement or disagreement with the sources. Therefore, the role of the reviewer is explicit and the reader can notice whether their voices (of the reviewer, the reviewed author and the community) are converging or diverging. In the Italian corpus, however, Bondi considers its argumentative interaction to be quite 'monologic' because the reviewer seems to highlight contrast rather than express disagreement. Bondi also notices that the metaphor of argument

in Italian is related to 'vision' rather than 'fight'. Therefore, she argues that the aim of an Italian argument is to reveal the truth, not to defend or attack the standpoint like an English argument.

With respect to the relationship between authors and readers, Dahl (2004) examined 180 research articles written in Norwegian, English and French by looking at the frequency of rhetorical metadiscourse items used by authors to their readers. Her analysis indicates that the frequency of metadiscourse items in English and Norwegian papers is double the frequency of these items in French papers. Therefore, she contends that 'English and Norwegian are both representatives of writer responsible cultures, while French represents a reader responsible culture' (Dahl, 2004, p. 1807). In this way, it can be implied that English and Norwegian authors put an emphasis on communication with their readers by acting as a guide along the text, trying to anticipate what the readers will say during the course of writing and reading.

The social theories by Bourdieu, Foucault and Bakhtin can elaborate our understanding of the relationship between discourse and identity but it still requires further investigation in terms of how individuals develop their identity through discourse. Therefore, I will examine social theories on development to understand what it means for a person to develop themselves in a social world.

2.4. Social Theories on Development

The social theories by Bourdieu, Foucault and Bakhtin prove useful for the explanation of relationship between discourse and identity but the issue of development needs to be explored from an educational perspective. Vygotsky seems to be the most prominent scholar well worth mentioning here because his theory contributes to three concepts of development as in maturation, participation and expansion.

2.4.1. Development as Maturation

Vygotsky's (1978) theory of development emerges as a critique to Piaget's theory of developmental stages in which children go through different levels of development in relation to their age. For Piaget and psychologists in the same

tradition, when a child fails to learn or answer a mathematical question, it is often explained that the child's mental functions have not matured to the extent that they can learn. Therefore, no instruction is useful because maturation is required before learning. With this view of development as maturation, individuals can be assumed to develop naturally into maturity according to their lifespan.

In the context of writing from this perspective, writing development can refer to linguistic maturity or the fact that diversity emerges in syntax and vocabulary usage by writers of different ages (Hudson, 2009). It is assumed that as a person gets older, their writing will be mature in the sense that their syntax will be more complex and their vocabulary range will become wider to reflect their increased innate abilities.

Maturation, or the increased innate ability, might be comparable to the notions of mastery and control. To explain a child's mastery of language, Grenfell (2011a) uses Bourdieu's notion of habitus and suggests that language development is 'a certain autonomy within the *field*' (p. 60, his italics), namely a kind of 'control' over its environment. Therefore, literacy refers to a student's development to achieve a 'literate' thought and a sense of mastery by emphasizing abstraction and other related higher order thinking skills (Grenfell et al., 2012). To illustrate, young writers learn to recognise the 'exposition' genre through 3 stages in their writing: *Thesis, Arguments and Restatement of Thesis* (Rose, 2009). They perceive and read these 3 stages as the 'literacy' and the 'normal' way of thinking and practice for the 'exposition' genre and this aesthetic sense is inculcated as part of their habitus and cultural capital. Over time, young children accumulate this cultural capital or ways of thinking and practice into their 'funds of knowledge' (Pahl, 2012).

The concept of development as 'maturation', therefore, might extend towards the assumption that individuals develop their innate abilities, achieve a sense of mastery and accumulate cultural capital through habitus. Nevertheless, Vygotsky argues that development is not only about individual maturation but also involves social and historical dimensions.

2.4.2. Development as Participation

Vygotsky (1978) proposes that humans use or 'mediate' cultural tools for such development. In the past, humans might have used tools to help with physical tasks but Vygotsky argues for their social implications which contribute to human development in general. One such tool is language. For example, children learn language from social interaction and then develop their inner speech. This process is called 'internalisation' in which the development appears twice: first, on the social level (between people—or interpsychological) and later, on the individual level (inside the person—or intrapsychological). Vygotsky's theory is widely applicable in the literature on language acquisition (e.g., Lantolf, 2000)

Vygotsky (1978) also proposes the concept of 'zone of proximal development' with two developmental levels: the actual developmental level and the zone of proximal development. He argues that children's ability to solve problems with the assistance of others is more indicative of their development. When teachers initiate the solution or when children collaborate with other people, children are working in the zone of proximal development and later they can solve the problem; hence, their actual development.

One major application of Vygotsky's theory can be seen in Lave and Wenger's (1991) interpretation of the zone of proximal development with a 'collectivist' perspective to argue for the process of social transformation in which newcomers and old-timers engage in a shared practice within a community. Therefore, learning is viewed as 'increasing participation in communities of practice' (p. 49). In other words, learning is a legitimate peripheral participation in which apprentices learn to become full members of their community through practice, which can be elaborated in the notion of 'communities of practice' (Wenger, 1998).

From this perspective, writing development refers to the fact that writing is a mediational means which exerts a significant social effect, i.e. literacy (Holme, 2004). Further, literacy is viewed as 'a set of social practices' in order to realise 'the link between the activities of reading and writing to the social structures in which they are embedded' (Barton, Hamilton, & Ivanič, 2000, p. 7).

2.4.3. Development as Expansion

Vygotsky's (1978) argument implies that children will become 'educated' like their more knowledgeable adults in thinking abilities as they progress from their zone of proximal development. However, Wertsch (1991) suggests that each individual can also develop their thinking in a different way. He proposes the concept of 'voices of the mind' to argue for the heterogeneity in thinking, speaking and representing reality (or 'multivoicedness') which circulates within a society.

The reason why a certain 'voice' (or a way of thinking, speaking and representing reality) gains centre stage within a particular occasion despite the fact that there are many voices is because of 'privileging' (Wertsch, 1991). An example of 'privileging' can be found when 'everyday' concepts are discouraged in classrooms so that 'academic' concepts can be privileged. To illustrate, a group of schooled and non-schooled subjects were shown drawings of a hammer, a saw, a hatchet and a log and were asked which one does not belong. Schooled subjects knew that a log does not belong because all other items are considered to be tools. However, one non-schooled peasant insisted that all four items were needed because without a log, these tools would become useless. This account gives evidence that in a formal schooling context there is the process of 'privileging' by decontextualising mediational means (or words) from their extralinguistic realities (Wertsch, 1991).

The notion of 'voices of the mind' or the heterogeneity in thinking suggests that human development does not necessarily mean a progression from lower level to higher level of thinking. Therefore, Engeström (1996) challenges Vygotsky's view of development and argues that the notion of 'border' is also important in our understanding of human development. Instead of 'level' and 'vertical movement' in the development of human thinking, Engeström emphasises the notion of 'border' which suggests a 'horizontal movement' in human development. Therefore, human development not only increases, but also expands (Engeström, 1996).

This kind of development or change can be both positive and negative as in the case of bicultural bilingual writers who lost their linguistic identities when they learned a second language (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000). Further, change not only goes up the level but also goes beyond the border as in the case of senior

academic researchers who not only express a disciplinary identity but also experience a liminal status through their interdisciplinary affiliation (Brew, 2007).

With these three social theories on human development, I will apply them to the issues of academic writers and their development in the next section to formulate three conceptions of writer development.

2.5. Conceptions of Writer Development

Based on the social theories of development in the previous section along with the social theories by Bourdieu, Foucault and Bakhtin, I shall present three different ways to understand the development of academic writers as in individual maturity, collective transformation and multivoiced negotiation.

2.5.1. Writer Development as Individual Maturity

In this theme, writer development is equal to maturity. It involves progress and mastery. Therefore, the concept of timeline is important to this theme because it affirms the potential growth, like a flower which blooms under the right circumstances. This theme of maturity encompasses the following concepts: trajectory, increase, perfection, distinction, and stage.

In terms of trajectory, one taxonomy for development in writing as proposed by Myhill (2009) includes three developmental trajectories: from speech patterns to writing patterns; from declaration to elaboration (of information); and from translation to transformation (of knowledge). These trajectories come with variables regarding sentence length, thematic variety, text output counts, clauses and syntactical structures. This taxonomy has been applied with secondary pupils and results in a model of linguistic development of the sentence in relation to age and level of writing achievement (Myhill, 2008).

In terms of increase, it is easy to notice the differences between two levels of writers or between two groups of writers through linguistic evidence through contrastive rhetoric device called 'metadiscourse'. It has been noticed that doctoral students use more metadiscourse items in comparison to Master's

students as shown in Table 2.7, signalling an increased engagement with their readers (Hyland & Tse, 2004).

Table 2.7 A metadiscourse comparison between theses written by Masters' and Doctoral students (N.B. metadiscourse items per 10,000 words) (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 170)

Category	Master	Doctoral	All	Category	Master	Doctoral	All
Transitions	75.8	95.6	89.0	Hedges	86.1	95.6	92.4
Evidentials	40.0	76.2	64.1	Engagement mkr	39.7	51.9	47.8
Code glosses	27.4	40.6	36.2	Boosters	31.7	35.3	34.1
Frame mkr	20.7	30.3	27.1	Attitude mkr	20.4	18.5	19.2
Endophorics	22.3	24.0	23.4	Self-mentions	14.2	40.2	31.5
Interactive	186.1	266.7	239.8	Interactional	192.2	241.5	225.0

Likewise, it is noted that English writers use more 'we' such as '*as we have seen*' in the closing section of academic papers to interact with their readers whereas their Swedish counterparts almost never do so (Ädel, 2006). Another recent study also shows that expert writers use more citations than novice writers and that experts tend to cite many sources in the same parentheses whereas novices tend to use citations in isolation (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011).

In terms of perfection, Bourdieu (1991) remarks that people from different social classes use language as their symbolic tools differently. Those who are in the middle class are prone to hypercorrection or perfectionism because their linguistic habitus is to achieve the legitimate competence, which is gained through symbolic capital. Dessen-Hammouda (2008) has shown that novice writers draw on shared symbolic cues (such as lexis and syntactical structures) to portray themselves as a disciplinary expert as they acquire genre mastery.

In terms of distinction, it might be identified with uniqueness in writing style. Hyland's (2010) textual analysis of publications by John M. Swales and Deborah Cameron suggests that each author has their own distinctive sets of word clusters they prefer to use in their writing. Therefore, it has been argued that both authors have their own distinctive rhetorical identity and that this distinction seems to be an individual property.

In terms of stage, there is a classic understanding of skill development in five following stages as proposed by Dreyfus and Dreyfus (1986): novice, advanced beginner, competent user, proficient user and expert. Their framework has been largely used in professional contexts with pilots, engineers and nursing practitioners to argue for the fact that novices are in the realm of pure rules whereas experts are totally immersed in their work. To illustrate the case of airplane pilots, 'as beginners they felt that they were flying their planes but as experienced pilots they simply experience flying itself' (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986, p. 30). In the context of literacy and writing skills, Carter (1990) adopts Dreyfus and Dreyfus' five stages model and suggests that two kinds of knowledge—general and local—play a role in the development of writing expertise. He contends that within the first three stages of development—novice, advanced beginner and competency—writers rely on knowledge of global strategies to write in different domains. By contrast, writers in the two uppermost stages of development—proficiency and expertise—have acquired the local knowledge of a particular domain to help them write because as writers 'continue to work in a domain, their knowledge becomes more local as their experience grows and their domain becomes more specific' (p. 282). In other words, experts are more specific and more local than beginners.

It seems that Carter's contention that expert writers display both specificity and locality of domain is debatable among academic scholars, especially in the domain of science (e.g., Emerson, 2012; Yore, Hand, & Florence, 2004; Yore, Hand, & Prain, 2002). Studies by Yore and his colleagues support Carter's argument as they found that the scientist writers in their study

target their writing to a few journals that they also read regularly, use writing in their teaching and scholarship to inform and persuade science students and other scientists, but do little border crossing into other discourse communities. ... [T]hese scientists perceived writing as knowledge telling not knowledge building, their metacognition of written discourse was tacit, and they used a narrow array of genre, strategies, target audiences, and expectations for their writing. (Yore et al., 2002, p. 672)

However, Emerson's (2012) study gives a different picture of expert scientist writers who are not narrowly focused in terms of audience and task, as

contended by Carter and depicted by Yore and his colleagues. The academic science writers in her study engage in a wider domain of scholarship and work with a broader focus as they become senior. One of the academic scholars also proposes:

the idea of the “lifecycle” of scientific writers, postulating that scientific writers go through several stages in the types of writing they engage with post-PhD and that the final stage involves a more expansive view of science which leads to a perceived need to bring science into a broader arena for various publics. (Emerson, 2012, p. 368)

Therefore, it is still unclear whether writers will become more narrowly focused or broadly engaging as they become more experienced in their academic literacies and more involved in their academic communities. This theme of writer development mainly provides an account of how individual writers develop to their full potential. However, it seems to set the finish line to the development, for example, writers begin as novices and end as experts. Moreover, it suggests that the apotheosis can be reached even though that means no more progress, like the term ‘final stage’. Linguistically, this apotheosis might emerge as the unique style of writing as part of the authorial identity, as in the case of John M. Swales for collegiality and Deborah Cameron for radical personality. Another criticism of this theme is that it does not seem to explicitly acknowledge the participation or the interaction between writers and their community, namely the influence which other members may have on the writers’ pathway of progression. For example, how can doctoral students use a higher frequency of metadiscourse markers than Master’s students? Do they just mature into more competent writers as they move on to do a PhD? Or is their changing pattern of use informed by interactions with their discourse community? Therefore, another conception of writer development is needed.

2.5.2. Writer Development as Collective Transformation

In this theme, writer development is more than just individual maturity because it involves collective transformation or the changes across the whole group of writers through social participation.

In line with Vygotsky’s notion that children learn from more knowledgeable others in their interaction to reach higher level of thinking, novice writers learn

from expert writers as regards their writing to become more experienced. As a consequence, writers move from apprenticeship to full member status within their communities of practice which share an 'intersubjective' understanding of the subject matter, resulting in collective transformation. My use of the term signals two meanings: (a) individuals transform themselves collectively within their communities of practice and (b) communities of practice transform their individual members collectively. Still, it is possible that some members cannot achieve the full status because they are of peripheral status or they are marginalised (Wenger, 1998).

An understanding of collective transformation also involves time and era, not only participation. When a timeline is used in this aspect, it is not for showing an individual's growth like the maturity tradition, but for identifying changes which concern 'rupture and discontinuity' (Foucault, 1970) from the past stage, or a diachronic dimension of language changes.

In an academic context, Salager-Meyer's (1999) study provides evidence of collective transformation. She examines a diachronic evolution of referential behaviours in English medical research articles over a century (1810-1995) and suggests that there are ruptures and discontinuities in recent papers. She has noticed that general references (or vague personal allusions to other authors) and verbatim quotes (or long passages in original languages even they are not in English) are typical of the 19th century English medical discourse but they are extremely rare nowadays because English medical papers in the late 20th century more commonly feature short quotes (and only in English) and an end-list referencing pattern in which cited authors and cited works are provided in a list at the end of the paper.

For a shorter period of collective transformation, a writer might develop themselves through participation in their communities of practice in which expert writers tend to write similarly and novice writers learn from these experts. For example, university students engage in literate practices to develop their disciplinary identities. Prior and Bilbro (2012) call this process 'academic enculturation' of disciplinary discourses and identities. To cite an example of disciplinary discourses (Hyland, 2000) from Table 2.8, it seems to be a common practice in philosophy journals that academic writers use a lot of first person

singular pronouns ('I') to express their opinions in their texts. The use of first person singular in applied linguistics journal is also frequent, though not as frequent as the one in philosophy journals, in comparison to journals from any other disciplines in Hyland's study. These findings suggest that the frequency of linguistic items can be examined to reflect a collective identity of disciplinary discourses and the implication is that novice academic writers can benefit from these tendencies of linguistic usage as part of their academic enculturation.

Table 2.8 Metadiscourse items in academic textbooks per 1,000 words (Hyland, 2000, p. 162)

Category	Applied						Mechanical Electronic		%
	Philosophy	Sociology	Linguistics	Marketing	Physics	Biology	Engineering	Engineering	
Transitions	33.1	26.1	21.9	29.6	22.6	25.9	21.1	19.0	37.0
Frame markers	3.3	2.6	4.6	3.5	3.5	3.1	3.2	3.5	4.9
Endophoric	0.3	0.8	3.7	1.6	7.9	6.5	8.5	9.2	6.7
Evidentials	0.8	4.9	4.3	0.7	0.8	1.9	0.1	0.1	2.7
Code glosses	4.0	5.3	7.6	5.1	5.8	5.3	5.4	5.6	8.0
Interactive	41.5	39.7	42.1	40.5	40.6	42.7	38.3	37.4	59.3
Hedges	12.3	10.6	8.5	10.3	5.5	8.7	4.4	4.8	12.2
Boosters	8.3	4.6	5.3	5.1	3.8	5.4	4.9	5.1	7.9
Attitude markers	5.9	5.1	4.2	6.4	2.7	3.8	4.2	3.3	6.6
Self mention	5.7	0.7	1.8	1.1	1.2	0.7	0.7	0.8	2.5
Engagement markers	19.7	5.5	8.4	3.4	6.0	2.4	6.2	4.7	11.3
Interactional	51.9	26.5	28.2	26.3	19.2	21.0	20.4	18.7	40.5
Totals	93.4	66.2	70.3	66.8	59.8	63.7	58.7	56.1	100

Another way to understand collective transformation is through interaction between writers in communities of practice. It is suggested that academic development is a process of peer learning (Boud, 1999) and that academic research identity can be developed through participation in writing groups in which all participants mutually engage rather than leaving writers to develop alone (Lee & Boud, 2003).

In the context of academic publication, there is the process called 'peer-review' in which academic scholars interact with one another, including authors, editors, reviewers and readers. Their interaction often contributes to literacy practices of their communities. Therefore, it is suggested that individual linguistic and rhetorical competence is insufficient for the development of academic writers because literacy requires social practices. It is more likely that academic writers, especially early career researchers and multilingual scholars, develop

themselves through participation in 'academic research networks' (Curry & Lillis, 2010). Further, it has been argued that as new academic writers co-author their papers with senior writers, they are engaging in academic enculturating tasks (Florence & Yore, 2004). In other words, the peer-review process as well as academic research networks can be viewed as a drive for the collective transformation of authors.

2.5.3. Writer Development as Multivoiced Negotiation

In this conception based on Wertsch's and Engeström's development of Vygotsky's theory, a writer's development is viewed as an expansion in a horizontal border—to complement a vertical level (namely, increase)—in which there is heterogeneity in thinking, or multiple forms of thinking, writing and doing. With 'multivoiced' perspectives available for individual writers, human development is expansive. Yet, there is a pattern of 'privileging' within a society, resulting in a certain level of negotiation. Therefore, the term 'multivoiced negotiation' is proposed in this theme as a third way to conceptualise the notion of writer development.

Smidt (2009) uses the metaphor of 'ecology' to argue that writing development involves the interrelationship between writers and their environments. In a school setting, the influence on this interrelationship can arise from teachers, classmates, written genres, norms in classrooms and social cultures. In line with Bakhtin's concept of utterance in a wider chain of speech communication, Smidt points out that writing development involves a personal negotiation of 'discourse roles' and 'positionings' because texts are written at the intersection of a social relationship between writers and their addressees where the writers' voices or inner meanings are in contact with other voices. Writers are not mere meaning makers but also meaning negotiators during the dialogical process of writing.

With regard to multiple meanings of language use, Harwood's (2006) study on pronoun use by academic scholars in the field of politics is an example of '(sub)disciplinary heterogeneity' in academic writing. He noticed that the use of 'I' and 'we' varied widely among the five academic scholars in his study due to their different beliefs about the appropriate and inappropriate use of first person pronouns in their own academic papers and their colleagues' texts. Some prefer

to inject a personal element into their text whereas others make it clear that such use of pronouns is 'not to their taste'. Therefore, Harwood (2006) contends that 'there is a wide variety of practices and a lack of intradisciplinary conformity with regard to pronoun use' in political science (pp. 431-432) and that 'distinguishing between writing practices only at the disciplinary level is an oversimplification' (p. 443).

Because academic writers develop themselves through the process of multivoiced negotiation, Ivanič (1998) suggests that writer identity has multiple aspects and that writer identity is in flux. She points out that university students often negotiate various discourse roles and voices in their essays to identify themselves with various positions. Some positions are safe whereas others are risky. Therefore, students often express ambivalence about certain roles and reject certain identities through the pattern of 'privileging' along the trajectory of their academic writing development.

Examples of negotiation of multivoicedness, or 'heteroglossia' according to Bakhtin's terminology, can be found in several research studies (e.g., Burgess, 2012; Gourlay, 2009; Lillis, 2003). These can be grouped around three aspects as in space, level and time.

In terms of space or border for an expansive development, negotiation might be identified with a threshold, or a 'betwixt space' in which there is status ambiguity before transformation. Gourlay (2009) has conducted a study about new undergraduate students regarding their academic writing and she has found that the notion of 'communities of practice' is dubious and inapplicable in those cases because 'emotional destabilization and struggles around identity are a normal part of both transitions and writing' (p. 181). As students develop themselves to become academic writers, they enter the 'liminal' or indeterminable status, or the 'threshold' of their identity.

In terms of level, Lillis (2003) argues that the negotiation of voices might bring about two levels of dialogue, as shown in Table 2.9. In the first level, writing is an utterance and becomes part of a wider dialogue between writers and readers within a community. She views dialogue in the first level as a 'given'. In the second level, writing becomes a site of struggle as two forces are trying to occupy centre stage. Therefore, she views dialogue in the second level as

'something to struggle for' because the goal of a dialogic approach is to keep both forces in play.

Table 2.9 Two levels of dialogue (Lillis, 2003, p. 198)

<p>Level 1: Dialogue as a 'given' <i>Descriptive as to the nature of language</i></p>	<p>All utterances</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • are dialogic • involve addressivity • are part of a chain of communication
<p>Level 2: Dialogue as something to struggle for <i>Ideal as to the nature of language in human communication</i></p>	<p>All utterances involve a tension between <i>centrifugal/centripetal</i> cultural forces and <i>authoritative/internally</i> persuasive discourses</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Centripetal-monologism – one truth, one voice, one identity, binary logic, authoritative discourse • Centrifugal-dialogism – many truths, many voices, many identities, hybridity, internally persuasive discourse

In terms of time with regard to negotiation of meanings, it can be argued that many timescales come into play during an act of writing as part of the writer's development. Extending Ivanič's previous framework of writer identity, Burgess and Ivanič (2010) contend that the construction of writer identity through discourse choices can change over time. From a timescale perspective, authorial identity can be seen as a process of identification through the discursual construction. Therefore, authorial identity develops over time as a continuum in which all stages can never be isolated. Moreover, there is a coordination of time and aspects of writer identity during the very act of writing, suggesting that the concept of perceived writer emerges during the very act of writing and reading. In this respect, there will be more possibilities of selfhood available in the discourse for both new and current writers to adopt in the future (Burgess & Ivanič, 2010).

According to Table 2.10, there are five aspects of writer identity in relation to timescales and they can exist, develop and change on various timescales from sociocultural time (decades), ontogenetic time (months), mesolevel time (weeks) and microgenetic time (seconds).

Table 2.10 Aspects of writer identity in relation to timescales (Burgess & Ivanič, 2010, p. 243)

Aspects of Writer Identity					
	Socially available possibilities for selfhood	Autobiographical self	Discoursal self	Authorial self	Perceived writer
Timescales Identified by Wortham	Relevance of timescales to each aspect of writer identity				
Sociocultural time (Decades, centuries)	Persist and change over sociocultural time				
Ontogenetic time (Months, years)		Exists within the lifespan of each individual			Persists over the lifetime of the reader(s)
Mesolevel time (Weeks, months, years)	Adopted and adapted in mesolevel time	Develops and changes in mesolevel time			
Microgenetic time (Seconds, minutes, hours)	Exist empirically in particular acts of writing and reading		Constructed in particular acts of writing		Constructed in particular acts of reading

However, two aspects of writer identity require attention here and these are discoursal self and authorial self because they are constructed only at microgenetic time (seconds), or ‘in particular acts of writing’, to resonate with the assumption that identity is in flux. Nevertheless, this assumption is problematic because it does not acknowledge the fact that writers can have ‘signature voice’ or unique style in their texts—a key point emphasised in the notion of individual maturity. Therefore, one important question arises: ‘What aspect of writer identity does this ‘signature voice’ refer to?’ Furthermore, this assumption suggests that discoursal self and authorial self cannot develop over time to reach mesolevel and ontogenetic times. If it is so, what about the identity in texts? Is the identity in texts only constructed at seconds, minutes and hours?

To perceive identity in writing as both synchronic and diachronic, it is likely that authors need to examine the continuum of experience. Zerubavel (1981) argues that humans as social actors use time with their ‘undifferentiated continuum’ of experience to give classification, categorisation and meaning to their identity development. This continuum is understood as ‘a continuous sequence in which adjacent elements are not perceptibly different from each other, but the extremes are quite distinct (Oxford Dictionary of English, 2010, p. 377).

Although the stages model of development contends that novice depend on rules and expert rely on their intuition (Dreyfus & Dreyfus, 1986), Carter (1990) also argues for a pluralistic, dynamic view of writing expertise as a continuum because continuum 'graphically represents both the developmental relationship between general and local knowledge and the principle of relative generality of knowledge' (p. 274). To put it another way, he argues that expert writers use both rules and intuition during their writing but both elements are fused and it is difficult to tell immediately whether it is influenced by rules or by intuition. Carter's view implies that in each piece of writing, there is a represented world in which the author performs their identity by a mixture of both rules and intuition.

Also from a dynamic perspective, Knight (2010) proposes two trajectories to consider how identity is constructed as in (a) affiliation and (b) individuation, shown in Figure 2.5. The affiliation trajectory refers to 'the communal identification of participants into communities of bonds' (Knight, 2010, p. 35). People negotiate who they are with shared identities of the community and then they identify themselves as members of such culture. As for the individuation trajectory, Martin (2010) argues that it deals with classification, power and recognition as one conceives of culture dividing into smaller communities with shared identities, sub-culture and persona which shape individual members. The hierarchy can be looked either upwards or downwards as people negotiate or classify identities on the affiliation or individuation trajectory.

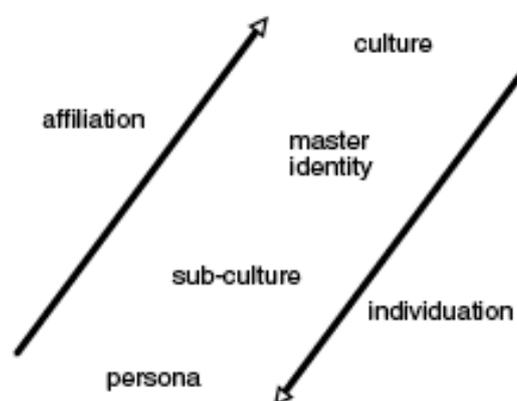


Figure 2.5 Two directions of identification: affiliation and individuation (Martin, 2010, p. 24)

With regard to language, Prior (2001) argues that voice is a situated product mingled between personal and social practices. Writers are likely to fuse their personal voice and their social voice in their act of speech. Therefore, there is a cline (a gradual change) of cultural reservoir to individual repertoire, and vice versa, as shown in Figure 2.6 (Martin, 2006).

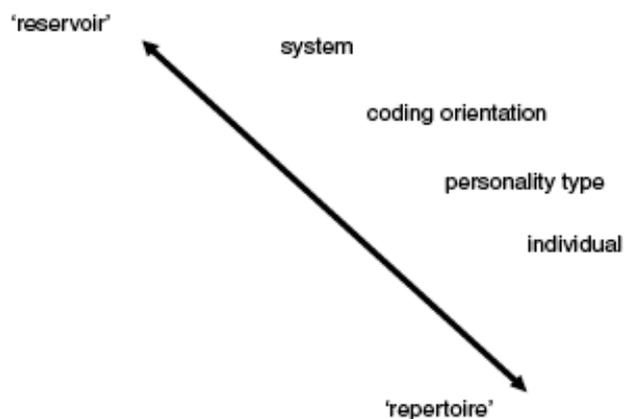


Figure 2.6 A cline (a gradual change) between cultural reservoir and individual repertoire (Martin, 2006, p. 294)

With regard to the individuation trajectory, it can be argued that writers draw on discourse as reservoir to create their own repertoire. At the same time, writers follow the affiliation trajectory as they negotiate shared identities in the community from which they claim membership.

These three conceptions of writer development are rooted in different social theories and provide different kinds of evidence and questions regarding the issues of authorial identity in academic writing. Rather than synthesising these conceptions to offer absolute truth, I decide to keep them all in play and use them as a theoretical background to formulate my research question and design my study which will be discussed in the next chapter.

2.6. Summary

In this chapter, I began my literature review by discussing the issues of academic writing from the perspective of the academic literacies model. Then, I

examined relevant social theories on discourse and identity as well as social theories on development to formulate different conceptions of authorial identity and writer development. My aim in the literature review chapter was to highlight that the issues of academic writing are complex. Moreover, I suggested that different social theories provide different views of the same research phenomenon which are helpful for guiding the research design of this study.

Chapter 3. Methodology

In this chapter, I present the research focus and address the research question. Then, I describe my methodological perspective regarding the research design along with the methods to collect and analyse the data. Afterwards, I present the issues of research rigour, potential difficulties, limitations and ethical considerations of this research.

3.1. Research Focus

3.1.1. Research Gap

The literature review has provided an overview of the issues of identity in writing. However, there are still many issues arising from the existing literature.

First, although Ivanič's (1998) framework of writing and identity urges researchers to examine academic papers in relation to the actual writers, most existing studies focus on either authors or their papers separately. To illustrate, scholars from corpus studies examine academic papers written by writers from different disciplines to highlight variations among disciplinary discourses without interviewing the actual authors of such papers (e.g., Hyland, 1994, 1996a, 1996b, 1999). This corpus-based approach is criticised for the fact corpus analysts can only observe the tendencies but they cannot know the insider's perspectives. Yet, when researchers focus on the author's perspectives and beliefs, they do not analyse the actual author's texts in relation to the author's perspectives (e.g., Emerson, 2012; Yore, Florence, Pearson, & Weaver, 2006; Yore et al., 2004; Yore et al., 2002). This is a research gap which needs to be explored because there is a linguistic and contextual interplay between identity and writing as it has been argued that writing is both identity work and text work (Thomson & Kamler, 2012). Existing studies which focus on the authors and their actual papers tended to include struggling writers as the participants such as students, multilingual scholars or novice academic writers, not the experienced senior academic writers.

Second, the extant literature on experienced senior academic scholars tends to focus on the synchronic nature of identity rather than how the identity in writing develops over time. Studies which examine academic papers written by senior

academic writers tend to give an impression that these writers' texts are associated with the same set of distinctive features throughout their careers. To illustrate, Hyland (2010) examines academic papers written by two applied linguistics for over 10 years and argues that these authors perform a unique identity in their writing, suggesting the stability of their identity performance over time. Further, although there are many studies which explore the differences between novice and expert writers (e.g., Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011), they do not show how the differences take place over the trajectory of expertise because all the sample texts were written by different authors, not the same authors.

Third, the interaction between authors and readers as well as the negotiation between authors and their colleagues within academic communities are still underexplored. Authors tended to be excluded from the textual analysis and they are rarely asked for reflection on the analysed texts. Although it is true that scholars from information science studies have done a great job through their citation studies to determine the intellectual, social and institutional ties among academic authors (e.g., Cronin & Shaw, 2002; White, 2004), the findings are limited to the citation practices as manifested in the academic papers, not the experiences of these authors. Because Cronin and Shaw (2002) analysed academic papers written by themselves and the authors who they knew personally, they could explain the relationships among these authors which outsiders could not know (Cronin is an insider—not an observer—because he analyses his own papers). They acknowledge that the relationship between authors and their colleagues contributes to the identity-making practices among academic scholars. Although other educational studies have been done to explore the relationship between authors and their colleagues within the academic communities, these authors tend to be early career writers who are struggling to write (e.g., Lee & Boud, 2003; Murray, 2008). Yet, studies which involve interviews with experienced senior writers tend to give an impression that professors are models of expertise (e.g., Carnell et al., 2008; Dysthe, 2002) even though this might not always be the case.

This research, therefore, aims to fill the research gap by including the academic authors and their actual academic papers in the analysis and by looking at the developmental aspect of their identity rather than focusing on the stable

distinctive features in order to explore their interaction and negotiation within the academic communities over the course of their professorship through both their texts and their reflection on the analysed texts.

3.1.2. Defining Authorial Identity

I shall use the term '*authorial identity*' for my research question. Therefore, I would like to define it here.

According to the sources cited in the literature review, writing is an act of identity (Ivanič, 1998) and, by extension, academic writing as an act/action/activity forms the nexus of 'text work/identity work' (Thomson & Kamler, 2012). However, this notion seems problematic for this study because it does not seem to signal a potential for individual development over time.

Ivanič's (1998) framework entails four aspects of writer identity as in: (i) socio-culturally possibilities for self-hood, (ii) autobiographical self, (iii) discoursal self and (iv) authorial self. In their revised framework, Burgess and Ivanič (2010) have added the fifth aspect of writer identity which is (v) perceived writer. However, two aspects of writer identity—discoursal self and authorial self—are still constructed at the microgenetic timescale (seconds, minutes, hours) as shown in Table 2.10 in Chapter 2. This microgenetic timescale is problematic because it does not signal any development towards the ontogenetic timescale of an individual. This problem might be related to their assumption that identity is not a static entity and that identity is in flux. Ivanič's (1998) framework seems to echo Fairclough's and Foucault's emphasis on discourse and the birth of the institution through discourse which exercises authoritative power on individuals' identity through the 'order of discourse'. To put it another way, identity is a 'subject' to the order of discourse in which individuals subscribe to a particular group of statements, e.g. conservatism as the subject for conservative members; hence, identity as 'subject positioning'. Ivanič's use of the term '*writer identity*' also suggests that there are differences between '*writer*' and '*author*'. For Foucault and Barthes, authors are 'dead' and the only role the authors play is to function as the 'founders of discursivity' who create the possibilities of identity for others as well as the rules for the formation of other texts. Therefore, discourses play a much more important role than the 'actual' authors and this is summarised as '[w]riting is an act of identity in which people align themselves

with socio-culturally shaped possibilities for self-hood, playing their part in reproducing or challenging dominant practices and discourses' (Ivanič, 1998, p. 32, my underlining). In other words, writers either reproduce or resist the discourses for their identity construction.

To formulate the research question, I shall use the term '*authorial identity*' to shift the focus towards Bakhtin who argues that writing as utterance *not only* deals with the institutional discourse *but also* anticipates other texts in the act of writing. Authors cannot stand alone without their readers or their addressees. In this respect, the actual authors also have a role in their social world, not just a subject of the institutional discourse. Like Smith's (1998) analogy of academic writing as story writing, past authors can be cited as characters in a new dialogue.

Moreover, my use of the term '*authorial identity*' is intended to signal the authority of the academic scholars in relation to their writing for publication in which publication plays a major role in the formation of academic identity.

In order to connect the relationship between writer and identity for development, I provide two broad dimensions of authorial identity as in:

- Identity as authors (a personal dimension): This involves 'text work/identity work' in actual life and it covers such issues as their sense of authorship and authority, their engagement with their readers as well as other scholars and their participation in their research community.
- Identity in texts (a textual dimension): This involves 'text work/identity work' in written texts and it covers such issues as their interaction with their readers or their audience in written texts and their treatment of writing as an utterance or part of a wider dialogue where flow of information is necessary.

These two dimensions are shown in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Two dimensions of authorial identity

Identity as Authors (Personal Dimension)	Identity in Texts (Textual Dimension)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Sense of authorship and authority through writing for publication • Participation in research 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interacting with readers and addressees in texts • Writing texts as utterances of

community through research publication	dialogue with flow of information
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engagement with other scholars through academic writing 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negotiating multivoiced perspectives through sources of information and attitudes for proper argumentation

These two dimensions of authorial identity will be a useful framework to examine the development of academic scholars in terms of their identity and their writing. By looking at both personal and textual dimensions, I will examine how academic scholars develop their identity as academic authors and their identity in their writing along their career path.

3.1.3. Research Question

The literature review has provided me with a fruitful understanding of identity, author and development. Nevertheless, the research gap remains and it is related to the development of research scholars as academic authors (a personal dimension) and their writing for publication over time (a textual dimension) to fill the lack of empirical understanding of their development in relation to the relevant conceptions as in individual maturity, collective transformation and multivoiced negotiation. Therefore, this research seeks to answer the following question.

How do senior academic scholars develop their authorial identity [namely, their identity as academic authors and their identity in their writing] along the trajectory of professorship?

This research question can be divided into three sub-questions. Each sub-question represents a phase of the whole research and involves its own approach to data collection and analysis.

1. How do the professors develop *their identity as academic authors* over time?
2. How do the professors' texts indicate *their identity in their writing* over time (according to a textual analysis of their use of language as a means to portray themselves and engage with readers)?
3. How do the professors reflect on and make sense of the findings from the textual analysis of their writing?

These three sub-questions will help answer the overarching question by combining different directions in research on writing: (i) author-oriented, (ii) text-oriented and (iii) audience-oriented (Hyland, 2009). In the author-oriented direction, the main focus is on the writer's experience of writing. An author-oriented example study is when teachers ask younger students about their writing problems to better understand their problems. In the text-oriented direction, the main focus is on the written texts and the researchers analyse these texts using their own methods without asking the writers or the audience. A text-oriented example study is when linguists analyse a corpus or a group of texts for textual features. In the audience-oriented direction, the main focus involves the issue of writing as a social activity and researchers want to understand why a certain way of writing is preferred or chosen by the writers. An audience-oriented example study is when researchers interview the writers to examine a social dimension of such preferences. These three directions will form three phases of my research design.

3.2. Philosophical Assumptions

Every research study is based on philosophical assumptions which involve ontology and epistemology and these assumptions will influence the methodology and the research design (Crotty, 1998). Ontology is related to the study of 'being' or 'social reality' and the ontological dimension of research is to investigate to what extent we can treat the social world as an object of inquiry (Mouton, 1996). Epistemology is related to the study of 'knowledge' and the epistemological dimension of research is to investigate whether and how we can gain knowledge of reality (Jupp, 2006).

Pring (2004) suggests that in educational research there is 'false dualism' about philosophical assumptions which lead to the great divide between quantitative and qualitative research studies. Research traditions are mostly classified into whether the methods are quantitative or qualitative, suggesting that these two groups have contrasting views about ontology and epistemology. Concerning this false dualism, Pring (2004) argues that it is a mistake to think that quantitative research implies a positivist approach and that qualitative research implies a constructivist approach because the terms 'quantitative' and

'qualitative' signal the types of data, not philosophical assumptions. Therefore, the term 'qualitative research' refers to research with qualitative data although researchers who use qualitative data might follow a positivist paradigm without awareness if they do not fully appreciate their own ontological and epistemological values.

To make a clear distinction among various philosophical assumptions, Cameron, Frazer, Harvey, Rampton, and Richardson (1992) propose that there are three major positions or '-isms' in social research which are (i) positivism, (ii) relativism and (iii) realism. They contend that each philosophical assumption can affect the research design and comes with different research purposes as in '**on**', '**for**' and '**with**'.

Positivism—the first position in social science—entails a commitment to observable phenomena and a distinction between fact and value to generate a law-like regularity. Researchers influenced by positivism tend to believe that they can observe a social phenomenon without interference in the social world. Therefore, they often maintain distance from the social phenomenon they examine by circumventing the observer's paradox, for example, by concealing the tape recorders during the conversation or disguising themselves as members of certain religious groups or hiding the real purpose of the research. These manoeuvrings often indicate a lack of ethical considerations because researchers tend to do research '**on**' their human respondents as 'subjects' of the study without any ethical concerns.

Relativism—as a non-positivist approach—does not recognise the fact/value distinction and will not try to circumvent the observer's paradox because researchers influenced by relativism believe that all human perceptions are relative. Therefore, they aim to unpack the respondent's subjective experience of a situation instead of observing him/her and to explain the situation using the respondent's perspectives. Therefore, researchers are often seen as advocates for the researched with the hope that they could correct the 'error' or any misleading concepts in society surrounding the respondent. This kind of research can be described as a study '**on and for**' the subjects. However, the problem with this approach is that the description of the phenomenon by the social actors (namely, the respondents and the researchers) tends to 'give the

last word' about the situation because there is no theoretical warrant to know to what extent the social actors are constructing the world as they please or as they wish to see it.

Realism—another non-positivist approach—differs from relativism in that although social reality exists outside of and is independent of the researcher, it may be impossible to describe it in a definite manner because the social world is full of ambiguities and offers multiple realities. Researchers influenced by realism embrace the fact that their perception of the social world is theory-laden but not theory-dependent. Therefore, the respondent's understanding constitutes an important part of the reality for the researchers to co-construct. This kind of research is three-fold in that researchers conduct research '**on, for and with**' the subjects who become participants in the construction of social reality. By 're-search', the extant corpus of knowledge can be challenged or more powerfully reformulated. Therefore, this kind of research is 'empowering' (Cameron et al., 1992).

My research into the study of authorial identity development is based on the third philosophical assumption which also resonates with social constructionism in which knowledge and meanings of the social world are socially constructed. As a researcher influenced by realism/social constructionism, I aim to observe this social reality and co-construct my knowledge with other scholars who are part of this reality. However, I cannot proclaim that I will be able to describe it in a definitive manner because there are always ambiguities and multiple realities. Still, this kind of philosophical assumption gives me hope that my research is 'empowering' in the sense that the findings may contribute to the extant corpus of knowledge about academic literacies, writing, identity and development. Further, to use Pring's (2004) word, I hope to 'illuminate' the context of academic scholarship and writing for publication.

3.3. Research Design

There are several approaches to research into social reality and the choice of approaches is related to the issues of methodology and methods. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) explain that methods refer to the range of techniques and procedures to gather data for analysis, interpretation and

explanation and therefore the aim of methods is to achieve the 'products of scientific inquiry' whereas the aim of methodology is to describe and analyse the process of scientific inquiry. Crotty (1998) suggests that methodology is the strategy which 'guides a researcher in choosing methods and shapes the use of the methods chosen' (p. 3). Likewise, Wellington and Szczerbinski (2007) consider methodology to be 'the ability or business of choosing, reflecting upon, evaluating and justifying the methods' which a researcher uses in the research design (p. 33). Therefore, methodology involves the questions about the appropriateness of research design, the sampling choice, the methods of data collection, the effect of researchers on the data collected, the quality of the data collected, the methods of data analysis and the limitations of the methods chosen in relation to other possible methods.

Given the false dualism in educational research regarding quantitative and qualitative paradigms as Pring (2004) argues, many researchers have started to reject the traditional dichotomy between 'quantitative methods' and 'qualitative methods' and to embrace 'mixed methods' (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003) which have become 'a third methodological movement' to challenge the dominance of single methods in educational research (Gorard & Taylor, 2004). Further, the 'mixed methods' approach not only crosses the great divide between quantitative and qualitative approaches but also provides 'a series of frameworks' for 'an integrated methodology' which enable researchers to think about their research design holistically and to apply different approaches to each stage of the research (Plowright, 2011).

It has been noted that even in a small-scale study, a mixed methods approach can enrich our understanding of the complexity of social reality due to the fact that the data are collected and analysed from a variety of sources and methods (Wellington, 2000). Moreover, the findings from the mixed methods approach can provide 'converging evidence' to rule out alternative explanations and to support a claim made from the findings (Stavonich, 2000; cited in Wellington & Szczerbinski, 2007).

For this research, I adopted the mixed methods approach to my research design because the issues of authorial identity involve both personal and textual dimensions and therefore one individual approach is insufficient to understand the complexity and the relationship between these two dimensions for the

development. My research design was aimed to achieve the integrity of the research issues at hand and to provide empirical evidence from different sources and different analytical methods to further our theoretical understanding of the development of authorial identity along the trajectory of professorship.

The details about my research design are given in the next sections regarding each research phase, the timeline, and the professor participants. Then, I shall describe how I had collected and analysed my data for each phase.

3.3.1. Research Phases

My research study followed a three-phase design. Each phase focused on one research sub-question with its own data set, which successively unfolded the main study holistically. The research design also covered three directions in research on writing (Hyland, 2009) and reflected the three research purposes (Cameron et al., 1992) as shown in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 Research phases, sub-questions, directions, purposes and data sets

Phase	Research Sub-Question	Research Direction (Hyland 2009)	Research Purpose (Cameron et al. 1992)	Data Set
1	Identity as an Author over Time	Interest in Individual Writers and their Contexts (Author-Oriented)	To Unpack the Respondent's Subjective Experience (Research 'For')	Interviews
2	Identity in Writing over Time	Analysis of Text as a Written Product (Text-Oriented)	To Observe Phenomenon without Interference (Research 'On')	Sample texts
3	Reflection on Identity in Writing over Time	Relationship between Text and Social Interaction (Reader-Oriented)	To Engage with Respondent to Enhance our Understanding (Research 'With')	Interviews

In Phase 1, the focus was on the development of identity as an academic author over time and the aim was to unpack the academic author's subjective experience as to how they have developed themselves over time. The data were collected through an interview with each author. This phase reflected the

author-oriented direction in research about writing and the notion of ‘**research for**’ in which I aimed to gain access to the insider’s experiences.

In Phase 2, the focus was on the development of identity in writing over time and this meant that I conducted an analysis of the texts written by each academic author in order to observe the changes in their texts without my interference. Therefore, I collected the sample texts written by each academic scholar in this study. This phase reflected the text-oriented direction in research on writing and the notion of ‘**research on**’ in which I aimed to look for any visible changes in those texts.

In Phase 3, the focus was on the academic author’s reflection on the textual analysis which I conducted in Phase 2 in order to understand how they make sense of the findings. In other words, I interacted with the academic researchers and asked them about their viewpoints and explanations for the textual features which occurred in their sample texts in order to understand how their texts were embedded and related to their social contexts. This phase reflected the reader-oriented direction in research on writing and the notion of ‘**research with**’ in which I aimed to co-construct an understanding of authorial identity development with my participants.

3.3.2. Research Timeline

The timeline in Table 3.3 below is only approximate in order to give an overview of this research. Full details of each method will be explained later.

Table 3.3 Research timeline (approximate)

Phase	Time	Procedure
0	January 2013	Securing ethical research approval
	February 2013 – April 2013	Piloting with 1 professor and 1 academic lecturer (Their information were omitted from the main study)
	May 2013	Inviting potential professors to participate
1	June 2013 – July 2013	Interviewing the professor participants about their experiences; Selecting sample texts
	July 2013	Gathering all sample texts

Phase	Time	Procedure
	August 2013 – December 2013	Transcribing and verifying the interviews; Analysing the data; Reading through the sample texts
2	January 2014 – April 2014	Conducting a textual analysis
	May 2014	Sending a textual report to the professor participants
3	June 2014	Interviewing the professor participants about their reflections
	July 2014 – August 2014	Transcribing and verifying the interviews; Analysing the data

Before I began Phase 1, I sought ethical research approval from the Graduate School of Education (see Appendix A: Ethical Research Approval) and then I piloted my interview schedule with 1 professor and 1 academic lecturer to practise my interview skills and data analysis. These academic scholars and their information were omitted from the main study. Then, the interview schedule was revised before it was used in Phase 1. I initially made contact with potential professors by email along with my research overview and the ethical research approval form in order to invite them to participate in this research. These professors were randomly selected from one college in a UK university. After the professor participants agreed to take part in this research, I then began Phase 1.

In Phase 1, I asked the professor participants to provide me with their list of publications. I then arranged a meeting with the professor participants to inform them of the research and to get their consent before I started interviewing them. I also discussed the sample texts to be used in this study from their list. I asked them to provide a copy of such texts and in case they did not have one at hand, I tried to find those texts online and sought them through an inter-library loan. I then transcribed the interview scripts and sent these back to each professor participant for verification before I analysed the data. At the same time, I read through the texts written by each professor participant to make myself familiar with their writing and I converted those articles which were in paper format to digital format so that I could use them in computer software for qualitative data analysis.

In Phase 2, I conducted a textual analysis of the sample texts written by each professor participant and then I wrote a report of the textual findings to them to arrange another interview about their reflections on the textual analysis.

In Phase 3, I interviewed each professor participant about their reflections on the textual findings. Then, I transcribed each interview and sent it to them for verification before I analysed the data.

3.3.3. Professor Participants

This research focuses on professors (who hold the highest rank in academic institutions) as my participants because academic professors epitomise expertise and authority which is the main topic of this research. Other reasons for choosing professors include their considerably long experiences in the academic life, their large number of published articles and their engagement with a vast number of texts which they have cited in their written works.

The professor participants in this study came from one college from a university in the UK due to practicality and accessibility. I wanted to ensure that I could gain access to the professor participants who were generally busy and that I could read and analyse their academic papers both quantitatively and qualitatively. Therefore, I chose the college in which the fields of study were close to, but not identical to, my own field of study. There were over 40 professors in the college at the time when I started to make contact with potential professors to take part in this research in January 2013.

My specific requirements were that the professors in this study are native speakers of English, that they have held their professorship for at least 3 years and that they continue writing for publication. This was due to the fact that I wanted to focus more on the nature of academic writing than on second language barriers and the pressure for publication. The average number of publication was expected to be at least 20 texts (including articles and book chapters) which can be classified in terms of early and recent writings.

My intention was to have 3 or 4 professor participants in this research for two reasons. First, the small number of participants in this study allowed me to collect the data in depth to explore the richness of their experiences in academic writing. Second, there was an issue of time constraints. Professors

are generally busy as they have many projects to manage. To ask professors to participate in a research study which covers three phases requires a lot of time and effort from them. Moreover, I needed to collect and analyse the data within the timeframe for the doctoral study and it might have taken longer if I had more data to collect and analyse.

I randomly selected four professors from the department list and then I emailed them a letter of invitation to participate in this research (see Appendix B: Letter of Invitation to Potential Professors). After two weeks, I received two acceptances. Then, I randomly selected two more professors from the remaining list and I received another acceptance a week later. Therefore, I decided to stop looking for another professor participant because 3 professors had already volunteered and it had been almost a month since I first contacted the potential professors. Afterwards, I provided them with more details along with a consent form and I informed them that they could withdraw at any time.

Given in Table 3.4 below are the details of the professor participants in this study. To protect their anonymity, I replaced their names with the aliases they chose. They had also been informed that by giving details of their discipline, it might be easy to identify them. However, they all agreed to give such details. In order to further protect their anonymity, any information which might identify them was omitted or edited before I presented the findings and the textual extracts.

Table 3.4 The details of the professor participants

Professor	Discipline	Years in Academia	Numbers of Publication
Prof Bracton	Law	over 15 years	over 30 papers
Prof Wonnicot	Politics	over 15 years	over 30 papers
Prof Woodworth	Law	over 15 years	over 30 papers

3.4. Data Collection

In parallel with the 3 sets of data for the whole research, I present 3 sections on data collection to focus on each research sub-question which will eventually add up to answer the overarching research question.

To organise the data collected from all three phases in this research, I chose to use the software NVivo 10 as my managing tool for data collection and analysis to increase my effectiveness because NVivo comes with many sets of tools to manage qualitative data (Bazeley, 2007). This research contained 3 sets of data and each set was driven by a different kind of question which required a different approach to analysis in order to answer the overarching question. Therefore, it was important for me to be able to manage and keep track of many kinds of data so that they were well organised and the analytic process was rigorous throughout the research project.

3.4.1. Data Collection for Research Sub-Question 1

In order to gain the professor participants' experiences about the development of their identity as academic authors to answer the first research sub-question, I chose to collect the data by interviewing them because the professor participants as the research respondents are 'gatekeeper[s] to lived experience' (Sullivan, 2012). Therefore, interviews can be a short cut to get direct access to the respondent's experience and perception of the situation (Robson, 2002). Moreover, interviews can be understood as 'inter-views', as Kvale (1996) puts it, in the sense that an 'interview is literally an *inter view*, an inter change of views between two persons conversing about a theme of mutual interest' (p. 2, his emphasis). Therefore, interviews are co-constructed between researchers and respondents through participation in a mutual conversation so that knowledge of the situation can emerge. In this research, I decided to use a semi-structured interview schedule because of its flexibility. Although there are many approaches to interview schedule as in fully structured (fixed wordings in a pre-set order), semi-structured (flexible wordings and sequences) and unstructured (informal conversation), Robson (2002) suggests that fully-structured interviews are like surveys and questionnaires whereas unstructured interviews might lead nowhere. With semi-structured interviews, therefore, researchers can explain the questions when the respondents do not understand them and, vice versa, researchers can ask for further information which is related to the topic.

Specific issues related to the research question were derived from the literature review as shown in Table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Specific issues from the literature review and possible interview questions

Literature Review	Specific Issue	Possible Interview Questions
Ways of Understanding Identity as an Academic Author	Self-identification	- What do you think about yourself as an academic author?
(a) Author as part of authority	Authority through academic discourse	- Could you tell me about the work which gives you a sense of authority?
(b) Death of author and birth of institution	Alignment and resistance to academic discourse	- Do you find the language required in academic publication comfortable to write?
(c) Rebirth of authors and readers	Textual voice through academic discourse	- What kind of voice do you express in your writing? - What do other scholars in the research community tell you about your writing?
Ways of Understanding Authorial Development	Self-perception of development	- Could you share how you develop your writing for publication? - When you look at your earlier writing, what do you think?
(a) Individual Maturity	Progression from novice to expert	- When did you first feel that you have become an established figure in the field? - What do you think makes it difficult for younger academics to publish?
(b) Collective Transformation	Participation in research community	- How are you initiated into the world of scholarly publication? - Do you think your experience with publication in the research community over the years affects your writing?
(d) Multivoiced Negotiation	Struggle for meanings and voices	- Is there any area of writing that gives you concerns? - How do you negotiate feedback you received? - Is writing for publication easier over time?

These possible questions were useful but asking all of them in an interview session without modification in succession would render such interview as a verbal questionnaire instead. In order to make the interview schedule an initial foray into the professor participants' experiences rather than imposing these theoretical ideas on the professor participants, some questions were omitted, merged, modified and rearranged in the final version of the interview schedule as shown in Table 3.6. However, the nature of a semi-structured interview schedule means that these questions may be modified and other questions may be asked over the course of the interview as deemed necessary.

Table 3.6 The interview schedule for this research

Topic	Subtopic	Main Interview Question
Identity as an author	Self-identification	1. Which paper are you most proud of? Why?
	Sense of authority/ Turning point in identity work	2. When did you first feel that you have become an established figure in the field?
Self-perception of development	Changes in their writing to better fit their current text work	3. When you look at your earlier writing, what do you think? Is there any area of writing that gives you concerns?
Publication in research community	Participation, Feedback, Revision	4. Do you think your experience with publication in the research community over the years affects your writing? How?
	Academic discourse	5a. Do you find the language required in academic publication comfortable to write? 5b. Has it become easier over time? How?
	Novice-expert difference/continuum	6. What do you think makes it difficult for younger academics to publish?

Before I began the interview with the professor participants, I introduced myself and discussed my research study with them. I also asked them whether they allowed the interview session to be recorded and they all agreed. I also informed them that if they wished me to stop recording the interview session for any reason, I would be happy to do so. However, this did not arise.

After each interview session, I transcribed each interview and sent it back to each professor participant for their verification and clarification in some parts. During the transcription process, I followed Jones' (2011) guideline that the aim of transcription is to 're-present' social interaction so that researchers can use it to answer the research questions. To illustrate, some researchers might transcribe all the hesitation words such as '*mm*' and '*hh*' in the transcript because they want to examine the power of discourse and point out the frequency of reluctant answers to explore the uncomfortable feelings whereas other researchers might omit such hesitations during the transcription process because they look for the contents. In this study, I omitted the hesitation words from the interview transcript because my focus was mainly on the themes and the experiences of the professor participants. Moreover, I took great care that I did not change what was said during the interview and each professor participant had an opportunity to verify and clarify the transcript. An example of one interview transcript can be seen in Appendix C: An Example of Interview Transcript.

3.4.2. Data Collection for Research Sub-Question 2

In this research, I focused on published articles in research journals only because of the following two reasons. First, journal articles indicate the professor participants' engagement with their academic communities through a peer review process. Second, their experiences of writing for publication were likely to involve feedback and comments by their reviewers and these experiences would be useful when they reflected on their written works in the interviews.

Since the professor participants had written over 30 papers and I conducted a manual textual analysis in this research, I asked the professor participants to choose 5 texts as the sample texts according to the following criteria:

- First, these papers must be mainly written by the professor participants. This is because academic papers are not always single-authored but to see the development of an individual author requires that the works are mainly written by the same author.

- Second, the five papers chosen must come from different points of their academic journey from their early career up to being appointed professor and thereafter.
- Third, the five papers chosen must contain (a) the paper which the professor participant was most proud of and (b) the paper which was written when the professor participant first experienced their sense of authority.

I discussed the use of the academic papers with my professor participants after the first interview session with them, based on the publication list provided by them. The professor participants gave me a copy of the academic papers which they had. For the papers which they did not have at hand, I sought a copy through an inter-library loan system and I managed to get all of them.

After I had all these 15 sample texts, I scanned them using OCR (optical character recognition) software and converted them into text-friendly files. Then I read through the files to remove paper cover pages, headers, footers and page numbers. I also corrected typographical mistakes due to the OCR error such as '*frdm*' (which should be '*from*') and joined several hyphenated words between two lines such as '*inten-tion*' so that the whole texts were readable. In some cases, I retyped the whole papers. After all this process, the sample texts were transferred and stored in NVivo.

The papers were also categorised according to Swales' (2004) taxonomy of the traditional journal articles into 4 genres: theory pieces, review articles, data-based research articles and shorter communications.

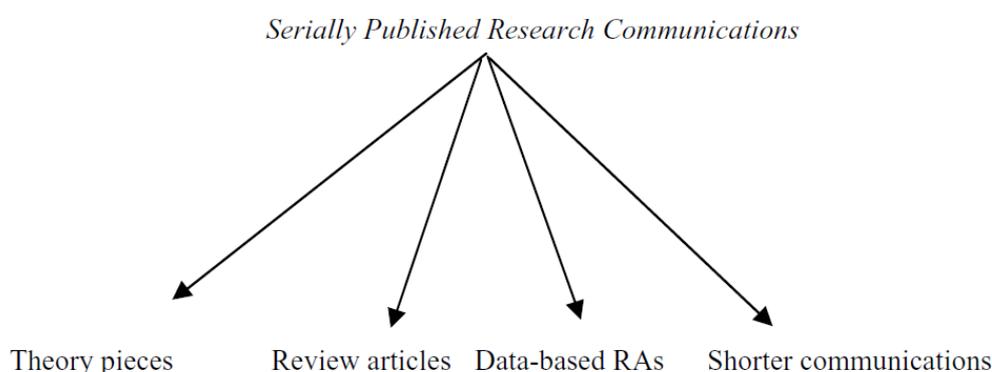


Figure 3.1 Four genres of journal articles (Swales, 2004, p. 213)

However, Swales argues that subcategorizations are still possible. To illustrate, data-based research articles in natural sciences can be subcategorised as 'clinical' and 'experimental' (Swales, 2004, p. 213). He also argues that certain papers are largely hybrid, making it difficult to put them into one genre. In this study, certain social science papers from law and politics can be viewed as hybrid (a cross between theory pieces and review articles) because they offer theoretical perspectives based on an extensive review of other pieces of writing such as acts, government reports and other scholars. To resolve these issues, I only focused on these four genres rather than a further subcategorization and I wanted to clarify each genre as follows: theory pieces are articles which do not contain empirical data and they offer a clear argument for or against the subject matter. Review articles are similar to literature reviews and they function as a 'bridge' (Swales, 2004, p. 212) to provide an overview of, or to problematize, the subject matter rather than giving a clear argument. Data-based RAs refer to those papers with empirical data including interviews although these data would form a basis for their theoretical argumentation. Shorter communications refer to any short pieces of writing such as letters, 'forum' pieces, notes and ripostes. The details about all the sample texts written by the professor participants can be found in Appendix D: The Sample Texts in This Study.

3.4.3. Data Collection for Research Sub-Question 3

To collect the data for the third phase to answer the third sub-question about the professor participants' reflection on the textual findings, I needed to finish analysing Phase 1 and Phase 2 first. I attached the research poster which showcased the findings from the two phases (see Appendix E: Poster for Research Showcase) and I wrote a summary of the textual findings to each professor participant according to the aspects of authorial identity in writing which I analysed (see Appendix F: An Example of Textual Report).

Then, I arranged a second interview session with each professor participant. In this interview session, the questions were driven by the topics raised by the findings from the textual analysis. It was a semi-structured interview approach because it contained topic headings along with some commentary explanations. However, the summary report which I gave to each professor participant contained only the extracts of their own works, not work from the other two

professor participants, but I added some comments regarding the comparison of the data among themselves in order to make them aware of some features which make them unique or similar to others.

The aim of the questions in the second interview session was to help my professor participants reflect on the textual findings. Therefore, the questions for this phase were to elicit their awareness, their understanding and their attitude towards the textual findings. The main questions during the second interview session included:

- *What do you think about this? What is your view about this?* (e.g., the findings and the comments; its aim was to open up space for interpretation and explanation and to know their attitude)
- *Are you aware of this? Why do you think this happened?* (e.g., changes in their texts or the frequency of certain use; its aim was to raise their awareness of writing development and to elicit their reflection)
- *How and when do you use this feature in your writing?* (e.g., the use of passive form over active form or the use of first person singular/plural form; its aim was to gain their understanding of such features)

Before I began the second interview session with each professor participant, I asked them to give me their permission to record the interview and they all agreed. Afterwards, I transcribed each interview and sent back to them for their verification and any clarification. Then, the interview scripts were ready for data analysis for the third phase.

3.5. Data Analysis

In this research study, there were 3 research sub-questions, each of which had its own data. I initially analysed the data from each phase before I put all 3 sets of findings in the final stage to discuss the overarching research question in relation to the social theories.

3.5.1. Data Analysis for Research Sub-Question 1

I adopted Miles and Huberman's (1994) iterative process of qualitative analysis in this research and it consists of three activities as in data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing. The process is iterative because I needed to

repeat the process as often as I could to crystallise the data. Moreover, as this was my first experience of doing qualitative data analysis, I had made many attempts at coding and the analytical process until I could eventually code and analyse my data in an effective manner. Initially, I followed Cresswell's (2012) inductive coding process in which many initial open codes were applied to the interview transcripts before these codes were reduced, merged and collapsed into no more than five themes as a broader level of abstraction. However, I found that this approach was not effective in my research because I had too many codes in my data and I tended to cherish some of these initial open codes, especially the *in vivo* codes which honour my professor participants' voice, such as 'tone', 'cadence', 'bashing over the head' and 'young person railing against'. Therefore, it was difficult for me to merge, reduce and collapse them because I was afraid that I might lose important and interesting information in the process of data reduction. Although I managed to achieve five themes in the end, I found that it was not satisfactory and effective in terms of data display and conclusion drawing. I then abandoned these codes and the themes derived from this attempt.

I found that Gibson and Brown's (2009) approach to data analysis was helpful in my research. They suggest that codes are created to examine commonality and difference of a topic within the data set. These codes can be created either *a priori* before marking up the data when they are driven by research theories or *empirically* during the coding process as they emerge. In many situations, however, researchers use a hybrid of these deductive-inductive approaches because even when the researchers use the inductive approach, their thoughts, ideas and perceptions are typically present and implicitly guiding their code development (Boyatzis, 1998). Nonetheless, Gibson and Brown argue that the main focus of generating codes is that codes work as conceptual devices so that researchers can see the relationship between these codes. In this way, the relationship of codes—i.e., a code family—emerge and they argue that 'unlike code merging, where the codes are simply amalgamated, code families involve maintaining the original codes as distinct features of analysis, but drawing attention to some important relationships between the codes' (Gibson & Brown, 2009, p. 138). Therefore, codes are not merged into a bigger theme but stand on their own in relation to other codes to reflect a bigger picture.

In this research, I developed codes in a hybrid manner because I acknowledged that my perception of the social world is theory-laden but not theory-dependent, in the same way that researchers influenced by realism argue (Cameron et al., 1992). I also followed Gibson and Brown's (2009) guideline that a good code needs a definition and a quote from the data in order to achieve explicitness in coding procedures (see Appendix G: Code Families in Phase 1).

After I had finished coding the data with many codes, I moved beyond individual codes to achieve the relational analysis of these codes by creating code families. A code family is a group of codes which bear some 'family resemblance' (Gibson & Brown, 2009). I considered this approach of code family to be helpful because it helped me see a conceptual relationship among codes. Therefore, I did not merge codes together when I assigned their relationships as shown in Figure 3.2.

The screenshot shows the NVivo interface for 'Authorial Identity Development version 2.nvp'. The 'Nodes' pane on the left shows a tree structure with '2013-14' selected. The main window displays a table of codes for '2013-14' with columns for Name, Sources, References, Created On, and Created By. Below the table, a selected code 'Sense of Authority' is shown with its definition and a quote from a transcript.

Name	Sources	References	Created On	Created By
Academic Authorship	0	0	15/11/2013 05:09	SP
Personal Experience	0	0	03/12/2013 06:44	SP
Academic Influence	3	17	13/11/2013 07:58	SP
Personal Growth	3	16	22/08/2013 07:24	SP
Self-Perception	0	0	07/08/2013 16:22	SP
Sense of Authority	3	10	07/08/2013 15:34	SP
Sense of Pride	3	17	07/08/2013 15:03	SP
Sense of Weakness	3	11	03/12/2013 07:16	SP
Academic Language	0	0	15/11/2013 05:11	SP
Attitude towards Academic Language	3	11	07/08/2013 16:27	SP
Personal Use of Academic Language	3	13	07/08/2013 16:26	SP
Academic Publication	0	0	03/12/2013 04:11	SP
Writing Development	0	0	15/11/2013 05:19	SP

Sense of Authority
 <Internals\Bracton\Y Transcript Bracton> - \$ 4 references coded [4.33% Coverage]
 Reference 1 - 1.28% Coverage
 Do I feel I'm established in the field?
 SUTHEE: Yes
 BRACTON: Mostly. When I speak to university managers, less so. But certainly, I suppose that people who I want to regard me highly are people who work in my field of research. Um, so if they value my work, and I respect their opinions, that means more to me than somebody who engages in management who would tick boxes of various kinds. So, yes on a good day I do feel established in my field. Sometimes people undermine that, you know, but it's the same everywhere. Sometimes I would feel maybe I'm not good. Maybe I don't have the reputation I thought I have but mostly, I think yes.

Figure 3.2 A screenshot of codes and code families in NVivo

Given in Table 3.7 below are all code families, code members and sub-code members in the data analysis in Phase 1.

Table 3.7 Code families, code members and sub-code members in the data analysis in Phase 1

Code Family	Code Members	Sub-Code Members
Academic Authorship	(a) Personal Experience	(i) Academic Influence (ii) Personal Growth
	(b) Self-Perception	(i) Sense of Authority (ii) Sense of Pride (iii) Sense of Weakness
Academic Language	(a) Attitude towards Academic Language	-
	(b) Personal Use of Academic Language	-
Academic Publication	(a) Getting message across	-
	(b) Feedback received	-
	(c) Decision on revision	-
Writing Development	(a) Writing difficulty	-
	(b) Writing support and learning to write	-
	(c) Concerns for young academics	-

3.5.2. Data Analysis for Research Sub-Question 2

My approach to textual analysis for the second research sub-question incorporated Hyland's (2005) taxonomy of metadiscourse, as illustrated Table 3.8, and Fairclough's (1995) approach to textual analysis. Both approaches were largely based on Halliday's systemic functional linguistics which acknowledges three metafunctions of language: ideational, interpersonal and textual. Nevertheless, the ideational metafunction seems to be played down in all metadiscourse taxonomies (cf. 2.1.3.1 'Systemic Functional Linguistics') but the advantage of this omission is that the identity of the academic author—which is often closely identified with their disciplinary vocabulary, and, by extension, their ideational metafunction—can be protected to a great extent.

Table 3.8 Examples of metadiscourse items used in this research (Hyland, 2005)

Category	Function	Example
Interactive		
Endophorics	referring to other parts of the text	<i>see Figure 2, as noted above</i>
Code Gloss	elaborating more information	<i>in other words, can be defined as</i>
Evidentials	representing ideas from other sources	<i>(Authors, Year), Smith suggests</i>
Frame Markers	signalling boundaries and structure	<i>This paper aims to, Secondly</i>
Transition Markers	signalling steps in the argument	<i>However, Furthermore</i>
Interactional		
Attitude Markers	expressing affective attitude towards the statement	<i>Unfortunately, remarkable</i>
Self-Mention	displaying the authorial presence	<i>I, my, We, our, us</i>
Hedges	expressing incertitude towards the statement	<i>seem, might</i>
Boosters	expressing certainty towards the statement	<i>undoubtedly, show</i>
Engagement Markers	addressing readers during the discourse	<i>You, one, It should be noted</i>

Hyland's (2005) taxonomy of metadiscourse contains a list of 407 lexical items to signal the interaction of academic writers as members of the academic community, suggesting the identity in their writing. There are two categories as in (a) interactive and (b) interactional. The interactive category involves the writer's approach to organising their text in a way that reflects their assessment of their audience. The interactional category involves the writer's interaction with their audience by opening up space for them to experience the writer's personality.

However, Hyland's (2005) taxonomy of metadiscourse is not definitive and he acknowledges that there can be other lexical items which work as metadiscourse items but are not evident in his list.

To expand and add other lexical items which function as metadiscourse items but are not evident in the list, I adopted two approaches: synonyms and Fairclough's (1995) approach to textual analysis.

As the textual analysis in my study was manual, I read through all the sample texts used in the analysis. For synonyms, when I read the sample texts and found lexical items emerging from the actual papers which function as metadiscourse items but are not included in Hyland's list, I put them into relevant categories. These new lexical items are synonyms of the words in the list, for example, the emerging metadiscourse item '*indubitably*' which is a synonym of '*undoubtedly*' in the category of boosters. In other cases, the new lexical items have the same function as the metadiscourse items in the list, for example '*Having said that*' for transition and '*noticeably*' for attitude. Therefore, I did not create any new categories for the metadiscourse taxonomy, only new lexical items.

As for Fairclough's (1995) approach to textual analysis, I focused on those features which are relevant to the issues of authorial identity: intertextuality, meaning relations between sentences and modality/evaluation.

Intertextuality refers to the level of dialogicality in the text. Intertextuality can appear in the form of (a) quotes or attributed sources with a little modification, (b) interpretations of the sources and (c) a reference without explicit sources. These are classified into the evidential category of metadiscourse. Examples are full quotes, words with quotation marks, and words which refer to a group of persons without explicit sources such as '*analysts*' and '*linguists*'.

Meaning relations between sentences refers to the fact that words can be used to connect several ideas from many sentences into a coherent concept. These relations are realised using transition markers. Hyland's taxonomy includes all transition markers in one big category for analysis. Therefore, in this study I sub-divided them into addition, contrast, comparison, concession and cause and effect in order to more fully understand how two or more sentences are formed as a coherent argument.

Modality/evaluation refers to the fact that the writers exchange knowledge with the readers. It can be in the form of judgement and stance and it can signal the assumption expressed by the writers towards their audience. These lexical

items can be added in the metadiscourse category of attitude, booster, hedge or engagement marker, depending on their functions. Examples include *'accepted'* in *'It seems generally accepted that ...'*, *'even so'* and *'convincingly'* in *'Having demonstrated convincingly that ...'*

By adding other metadiscourse items which emerged from the actual papers written by the professor participants and adding Fairclough's features as in intertextuality, meaning relations and modality/evaluation to Hyland's metadiscourse taxonomy, the total number of metadiscourse items in my study was 610 items, compared to Hyland's list of 407 items.

Other related new lexical items are as follows:

- *Variations of verb forms in the metadiscourse taxonomy:* Hyland's taxonomy is inconsistent with verb forms. There are 3 forms of the verb *'appear'* as in *'appear'*, *'appears'* and *'appeared'* in Hyland's list but only one form of *'note'*. Therefore, I included other forms such as *'noted'* and *'notes'* when they function as a metadiscourse item.
- *Previous works of the professor participants cited in the sample texts:* I included their previous works as self-mentions rather than evidentials because evidentials and intertextuality are generally about other sources of information. Therefore, the terms *'Bracton'*, *'Wonnycott'* and *'Woodworth'* used as references in their own texts were considered as self-mentions in this study.

It should be noted that the list of metadiscourse items in this study was expanded along the research journey. It contained both the items from Hyland's existing list and the items emerging from the actual papers written by the professor participants during the mark-up process in NVivo which underwent three stages.

3.5.2.1. The Initial Stage of Textual Analysis

After the sample texts had been stored in NVivo ready for the data analysis, I read through all the sample texts for references and quotes which belong to the category of evidentials and intertextuality in order to mark up the words which did not belong to the actual authors. Then, these references and quotes were removed for the next process of data analysis. The reason why I had to remove references and quotes out of the texts was because they might contain all kinds

of metadiscourse items ranging from self-mentions, attitude markers and modality evaluation which the actual author, i.e. the professor participants, *did not* really use and the inclusion of them in the textual analysis might affect the findings about the textual dimension of their authorial identity. Still, these quotes *were counted* as part of the textual analysis in the category of evidentials in the metadiscourse taxonomy.

Because these quotes were removed out of the sample texts, I had two versions of each sample text: (a) the full version *with* all references and quotes and (b) the main version *without* any references and quotes. I then counted the number of words in each version as a basis for the measurement of frequency in the next stages, as shown in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9 The number of words in each paper from the 'FULL' version to the 'MAIN' version

Paper	Prof Bracton		Prof Wonnacott		Prof Woodworth	
	Full	Main	Full	Main	Full	Main
Paper 1 (Oldest)	9,403	5,710	4,841	4,663	20,047	13,814
Paper 2	6,495	5,327	8,421	6,884	13,010	9,216
Paper 3	6,595	4,745	5,637	4,602	21,353	13,954
Paper 4	16,049	9,917	7,557	5,452	18,902	13,328
Paper 5 (Newest)	13,008	6,105	10,484	8,854	13,787	8,310

3.5.2.2. *The Intermediary Stage of Textual Analysis*

I proceeded to conduct a textual analysis of the 'MAIN' version of each sample text since this version contains only the words which belong to the actual author. To facilitate the process of finding metadiscourse items, I used Word Frequency Tool and Text Search Tool in NVivo to list all the words from all 15 sample texts and then looked for lexical items which fit Hyland's list of metadiscourse items. I marked up each metadiscourse item *in vivo*—using its original form—because the categorisation of all metadiscourse items was to be done in the final stage of textual analysis.

The screenshot displays the NVivo interface with the 'Query' tab selected. The 'Queries' pane on the left shows a list of queries, with 'Corpus1 Results' selected. The main window shows a table of word frequency results for 'Corpus1'.

Word	Length	Count
undeterred	10	1
undifferentiated	16	1
undisputed	10	1
undo	4	1
undone	6	1
undoubtedly	11	4
undue	5	2
unduly	6	1
unemployment	12	1
unenforceability	16	1
unenforceable	13	1
unenviable	10	1
unequivocal	11	1
unesco	6	1
uneven	6	4
unexpected	10	3
unfair	6	11
unfairness	10	2
unfamiliar	10	1
unfettered	10	2
unforeseen	10	2
unfortunate	11	3
unfortunately	13	6
unfounded	9	1
unhappy	7	5

The status bar at the bottom indicates 'SP 9791 Items'.

Figure 3.3 A screenshot of Word Frequency Tool in NVivo

Nevertheless, it should be noted that *not* every lexical item retrieved from Word Frequency Tool and Text Search Tool functions as a metadiscourse item. Therefore, I needed to read through all the sample texts again to determine which instances of the lexical items function as metadiscourse items. Some examples are provided in Table 3.10. Further details can be found in Appendix H: Metadiscourse Items in Phase 2

Table 3.10 Examples of lexical items in the actual sample texts to determine whether they function as a metadiscourse item

Metadiscourse?	Example in the Context	Reason
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- there is no <u>figure</u> representing conviction rates	This ' <u>figure</u> ' is beyond the textual structure of the paper
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- see Figure 8.1	This ' figure ' is within the textual structure of the paper
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- [It] requires WTO members to protect copyright <u>according to</u> the Berne system.	In this case, ' <u>according to</u> ' means 'in accordance with'.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- iTunes is closely associated with Apple's portable digital player device, the iPod, which according to Apple sold over 730,000 units in the last quarter of 2003	In this case, ' according to ' suggests that the author refers to the information given by others.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- new forms of distribution [are] made <u>possible</u> by the internet	This ' <u>possible</u> ' is not about attitude.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- It is perfectly possible for individuals to take action - There are a number of possible exceptions available in domestic law	This ' possible ' is about the author's implicit assumption. So, it is hedging.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- [The views on the Internet] are presumed to be true until <u>proved</u> false.	This proof is an action which can be done by other people.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- It proved a highly successful strategy	This proof denotes the author's implicit attitude.

At the same time as reading the whole sample texts to determine each instance of lexical items, I also looked for other metadiscourse items from the two approaches I mentioned: synonyms and Fairclough's (1995) approach to textual analysis. These new lexical items were metadiscourse items emerging from the actual papers. An example of emergent metadiscourse items is shown in Figure 3.4.

The screenshot shows the AuthentiX software interface. The main window displays a table of metadiscourse items under the heading 'CorpusMainText'. The table has columns for Name, Nodes, References, Created On, Created By, Modified On, and Modified By. Below the table, a text snippet is displayed with several words highlighted in yellow: 'such as', 'or more correctly', and 'named'.

Name	Nodes	References	Created On	Created By	Modified On	Modified By
01-Bracton-NoFootNoQuote	478	2414	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	16/03/2014 15:53	SP
02-Bracton-NoFootNoQuote	412	1787	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	13/03/2014 17:14	SP
03-Bracton-NoFootNoQuote	352	1510	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	10/03/2014 11:52	SP
04-Bracton-NoFootNoQuote	458	3172	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	13/03/2014 16:35	SP
05-Bracton-NoFootNoQuote	381	1918	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	07/03/2014 18:03	SP
06-Wornicott-NoRefNoQuote	299	1268	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	10/03/2014 13:22	SP
07-Wornicott-NoRefNoQuote	401	2019	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	07/03/2014 18:03	SP
08-Wornicott-NoRefNoQuote	296	1342	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	07/03/2014 18:03	SP
09-Wornicott-NoRefNoQuote	321	1784	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	13/03/2014 16:29	SP
10-Wornicott-NoRefNoQuote	408	2549	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	11/03/2014 15:06	SP
11-Woodworth-NoFootNoQuote	573	4867	07/03/2014 18:03	SP	16/03/2014 15:10	SP

Moreover, reprocessing is an essential prerequisite to the installation of fast breeder reactors (FBR) to the national grid, a type of reactor that is enormously efficient and ought to reduce substantially the costs of electricity.

The environmentalists see this move towards the FBR as a leap towards the 'plutonium economy'. They conjure the dread spectre of a land pock-marked with these installations necessitating a massive security operation (and therefore a reduction in civil liberties) and polluting the environment for thousands of years. They draw on official support for their opposition, **such as** the moratorium ordered on American reprocessing (since lifted) by President Carter and the Flowers Report in Britain. The Flowers Report, **or more correctly** the *Sixth Report of the Royal Commission on Environmental Pollution* (Cmnd 6618, 1976), recommended extreme caution in proceeding along the FBR route. It came just before the Windscale Inquiry which studied a proposed expansion by BNFL at Windscale, now **named** Sellafield.

Figure 3.4 Emergent metadiscourse items: 'named' and 'correctly'

In many cases, however, the same lexical item can have two distinctive metadiscourse functions. For example, the lexical item *'indeed'* in Hyland's taxonomy of metadiscourse can function as either a booster or a gloss, depending on the context. To distinguish between these two distinctive metadiscourse functions, I created three mark-up items as shown in Figure 3.5. I first assigned the lexical item with the suffix *'-O'* to indicate that it was an ordinary lexical item at the moment; hence, *'indeedO'*. Then, I created two more items—*'indeedB'* for booster and *'indeedG'* for gloss. Afterwards, I read through all instances of *'indeedO'* in their context to mark them up with either *'indeedB'* or *'indeedG'* according to their appropriate category. In this case, the mark-up item *'indeedO'* was also a basis for my verification of the classification.

The screenshot shows the NVivo software interface. The 'Nodes' pane on the left lists various nodes, including 'indeedB', 'indeedG', and 'indeedO'. The main window displays a table for 'Corpus1' with the following data:

Name	Sources	References	Created On
inappropriately	1	1	13/03/2014 15:58
inarguable	1	1	13/03/2014 15:58
incidentally	1	1	13/03/2014 16:00
inconceivable	1	1	13/03/2014 16:00
increasingly	10	17	13/03/2014 16:02
indeedB	8	17	13/03/2014 16:04
indeedG	12	44	13/03/2014 16:06
indeedO	14	61	13/03/2014 16:03
indicate	1	1	13/03/2014 16:12
indicated	6	18	13/03/2014 16:12
indicates	3	3	13/03/2014 16:12
indubitably	1	1	13/03/2014 16:28

Below the table, the software shows a preview of the text for the selected node 'indeedG'. The text includes: 'Indeed,' and 'the case is heard.65 Indeed, the Rules aim to change'. The interface also shows a search bar and various toolbars.

Figure 3.5 Three mark-up items: 'indeedO' is a basis for the classification of 'indeedB' (a booster) and 'indeedG' (a gloss)

3.5.2.3. *The Final Stage of Textual Analysis*

When I finished marking up all metadiscourse items in the sample texts, I moved on to categorise all items into several groups according to Hyland's metadiscourse taxonomy as shown in Figure 3.6. Any mark-up items ending with the suffix '-O' such as 'indeedO' were excluded from the categorisation because they were used only as a reference basis, as mentioned in the intermediary stage. With regard to the category of transition, metadiscourse items belonging to this category were sub-divided into smaller groups based on Fairclough's features of meaning relations between sentences which are addition, contrast, comparison, concession and cause and effect.

The screenshot shows the software interface with the following components:

- Menu Bar:** File, Home, Create, External Data, Analyze, Query, Explore, Layout, View.
- Toolbar:** Advanced Find, Query Wizard, Text Search, Word Frequency, Coding, Matrix Coding, Group, Compound, Coding Comparison, Last Run Query, Add to Stop Words List, Run Query, Store Query Res, Other Actions.
- Nodes Panel:** A tree view showing a hierarchy of nodes including Coding Frame, Comparison, Corpus0, Corpus1, Corpus1 Arranged, CorpusMetadiscourse0, Discourse, Good, Theme, Z - Discontinued, Relationships, and Node Matrices.
- Search Panel:** Look for: [], Search In: [], Corpus1 Arrange, Find Now.
- Table:** A table titled 'Corpus1 Arranged' with columns for Name, Sources, and References. The table contains the following data:

Name	Sources	References
_ATTITUDE	15	479
_BOOSTER	15	629
_CODE_GLOSS	15	498
_ENDOPHORIC	15	190
_ENGAGEMENT	15	1525
_EVIDENTIAL	15	308
_GOAL_ANNOUNCING	13	50
_HEDGE	15	1783
_SELF_MENTION	8	53
_SEQUENCING	15	116
_STAGE_LABEL	4	6
_TOPIC_SHIFT	8	14
_TRANSITION	15	2559
- Bottom Panel:** Sources, Nodes (selected), Classifications, Collections, Queries, Reports, Models, Folders.
- Status Bar:** SP 610 Items.

Figure 3.6 The categorisation of all metadiscourse items

After this stage of textual analysis, I counted the number of metadiscourse items in each group and measured the frequency of metadiscourse items in relation to the main version of each text. Then, I presented *statistical* findings of the textual analysis for the second phase before I highlighted key features regarding the statistical findings in order to point out significant changes in their writing over time (see Appendix I: Examples of Metadiscourse Use over Time). Afterwards, I looked into details those key features of the changes and then I put them as excerpts to be included in the *textual* findings report for the professor participants.

The key features which signal the textual dimension of authorial identity over time were classified into five sections as in (a) referencing, (b) getting message across, (c) argumentation, (d) expressing attitude, and (e) being an academic author.

After I finished writing the textual findings of the data analysis in this phase, I wrote up a report summary for each professor participant and I sent it to them along with my research showcase poster to arrange a second interview session.

3.5.3. Data Analysis for Research Sub-Question 3

The purpose of data analysis for the third research sub-question was to elicit the professor participants' awareness and their understanding of the textual findings. The professor participants were asked to reflect on why certain writing features were preferred or chosen in their writing and their account might suggest a social dimension of academic publication. The findings from this phase were to be used alongside the findings from the second phase (textual analysis). Therefore, this stage of data analysis was relatively brief in comparison to the two previous phases. However, the aim of this phase was to move onwards to the next stage of analysis to unfold the overarching research question and discuss the findings in relation to the theories from the literature review which I shall elaborate in the next section.

Because each professor participant received their own textual analysis report with the five sections about their writing development, the questions in the second interview session entailed their reflection and their interpretation around these topics.

To analyse the interview script in this phase, the codes were deductively developed from the topics of the textual reports (see Appendix J: Coding Frame in Phase 3). In other words, the codes mirrored the five sections of the textual findings in order to present the professor participants' reflections on the textual findings in a coherent manner. These five codes were (a) referencing, (b) getting message across, (c) argumentation, (d) expressing attitude, and (e) being an academic author.

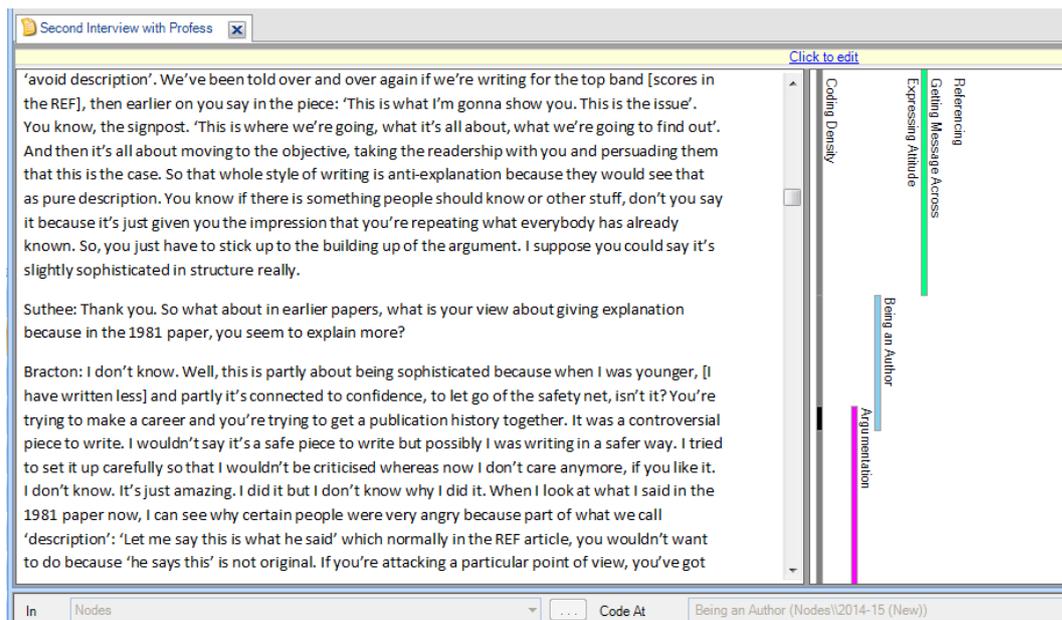


Figure 3.7 A screenshot of data analysis in Phase 3

3.5.4. Data Analysis for the Overarching Research Question and Discussion

Although I could answer each research sub-question with each set of findings, I still needed to look at the whole picture of the research problem so that I could discuss the findings with a better understanding of the research problem.

In this phase, therefore, I looked at the findings from each phase and treated them as data in order to explain them with social theories. My procedure followed a higher level of abstraction by working upwards to generate a theory. Miles, Huberman, and Saldaña (2014) offer three following steps:

- Moving from separate findings to interrelationships by connecting one discrete fact with other discrete facts
- Moving from interrelationships to constructs by grouping them to a comprehensible pattern

- Moving from constructs to theories by linking the empirical trenches to a more conceptual overview of the landscape

To do so, I first listed key findings from each phase and marked them with a code for easy identification along with a short label. For findings from Phase 1, I coded them with the prefix '#'. For findings from Phase 2, I coded them with the prefix '@' and for findings from Phase 3 I coded them with the prefix '~'. Two examples are shown below (see Appendix K: Key Findings from Each Phase).

Academic authors distinguish comments and make judgements about how to revise their works. They cannot accept everything that everybody says. They need to see the point of such revision rather than they revise just to please the reviewers. **[#7 Selective Revision] (Phase 1, Findings 7)**

There is a higher frequency in evidentials (or references) over time among all three professor participants' sample texts. **[@2 Higher frequency in references over time] (Phase 2, Findings 2)**

Argumentation is an exercise of persuasion. **[~4 Argumentation as an exercise of persuasion] (Phase 3, Findings 4)**

After I completed the process of listing key findings from each phase with an identifiable code, I connected one finding to other findings to establish an interrelationship among them according to their relevance. Then, I created a name to best describe the interrelationship or the 'construct' of each group. Afterwards, I linked these empirical data to a more conceptual overview of social theories in the literature review. In order to make theoretical coherence, Miles et al. (2014) suggest that the findings from across more than one set of data need to be tied up to overarching propositions that account for the 'how' and the 'why' of the phenomenon. Therefore, I re-read each construct and re-grouped the interrelationship of findings in order that each construct contained at least one finding from each phase. This process helped me clarify the conceptual overviews which I developed through the empirical findings from all three phases in order to discuss the whole research. After the whole process, I achieved the following six constructs to be discussed in light of social theories as shown in Table 3.11 (see Appendix L: Interrelationships of Findings, Constructs and Conceptual Overviews).

Table 3.11 Six constructs to discuss the findings in relation to social theories

Construct	Short Description	Conceptual Overview
The outstanding quality and level of academic scholarship	The professor participants learned what counted as better and poorer quality in terms of authorship and research papers.	These issues are related to Bourdieu's notion of dualistic typologies to make class distinctions among social groups.
Title of nobility and 'noblesse oblige' or the obligation to live up to the title of nobility	The professor participants wrote and revised their works to live up to their title of authority, i.e. professorship.	These issues are related to Bourdieu's concept called 'noblesse oblige', or the obligation to live up to the title of nobility.
Recognition of legitimate academic discourse and symbolic power	The professor participants' explanations for their writing features signalled their inculcation of legitimate ways of writing.	These issues are related to Foucault's concept of discourse, but more specifically related to Bourdieu's legitimate discourse and symbolic power.
Dialogicality or writing papers as utterances	The professor participants wrote their papers with a message and to answer a question or a hypothesis.	These issues are related to Bakhtin's notion of dialogicality.
Dealing with others' words or worldviews	The professor participants learned to deal with their feedback and to use others' words or worldviews	These issues are related to Bakhtin's theory about heteroglossia and hybridity.
Expressing extra-linguistic authorial speech	The professor participants learned to insert evaluative judgements in their writing as part of their worldview.	These issues are related to Bakhtin's concept of evaluative accents in language use.

3.6. Research Rigour

Every research study should be conducted in a rigorous manner. Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2000) suggest that research rigour is often identified with validity and reality. Generally, validity refers to the fact that a particular research instrument measures what it purports to measure whereas reliability refers to the fact a particular research instrument gives similar results when it is used in a similar context.

However, Lincoln and Guba (1985) note that validity and reliability seem to follow a positivist paradigm and suit experiments. Validity and reliability do not correspond to a non-positivist paradigm in which the research setting is naturalistic and beyond control of the researchers. Moreover, in naturalistic settings, the researchers themselves have become part of the research world and they—not just the research tools—are the key instruments of research because their aim is often to understand the situation through the eyes of their participants and from their perspectives. Therefore, the rigour of naturalist inquiry lies in the notion of ‘trustworthiness’. There are four criteria to achieve trustworthiness as follows:

- **Credibility:** Since non-positivist paradigms acknowledge many truths, credibility refers to the match between the constructed realities of the participants and the realities as represented by the researcher.
- **Transferability:** There should be sufficient information about the research study so that the readers could establish the degree of similarity from this case to other cases.
- **Dependability:** In naturalistic inquiry where human beings are involved, the data may not always be reliable and consistent because people are complex and multifaceted and they can change at any given time. Therefore, the research process should be established and documented so that the methodological protocols are dependable.
- **Confirmability:** The research data and the findings need to be trackable to their sources to ensure that the data and the findings are free from the bias or figments of the researcher’s imagination.

As an alternative, Yin (2011) proposes three strategies for trustworthiness: (i) Transparency in which researchers conduct their research in a way that others can see, try to understand and follow the procedures provided; (ii) Methodicalness in which there should be some order in the research design and the research procedures so that careless work, bias and distortion are minimised during the process; and (iii) Adherence to evidence in which conclusions should be drawn in reference to the research data.

The issue of trustworthiness is important for my research design. Therefore, I made every attempt to achieve all four criteria proposed by Lincoln and Guba. In terms of credibility, the question of prolonged engagement might be

questionable in this research but the professor participants had seen the interview scripts for verification, clarification and modification. Moreover, they had seen the findings of my textual analysis before they reflected on the findings. Through this approach, I hope to have co-constructed these realities with my professor participants in this research. In terms of transferability, I endeavoured to provide as much information as possible in this research so that the similarity of this study to other contexts can be judged but I also had to protect the anonymity of my professor participants. In terms of dependability, I went into detail about my data collection and analysis along with the interview schedules. Moreover, Hyland's (2005) taxonomy of metadiscourse for textual analysis is well-established and flexible for elaboration in this study. Also in line with the notions of transparency and methodic-ness as proposed by Yin (2011), I provided the details of my research design so that other researchers can see, understand and follow the procedures. These are well-documented in this chapter. In terms of confirmability, my findings and conclusions were based on the research data and interviews in order to reflect the fact that I adhered to the data when I presented and discussed the findings.

3.7. Potential Difficulties

There are certain potential difficulties in this research as follows:

One potential difficulty in this research is that academic writers can adapt their writing to accommodate the demands of each outlet. Harwood (2008) notes that academic writers cite differently in different outlets. With textbooks and book chapters, academic scholars cite fewer references and only famous authorities. By contrast, they cite more references and several authorities in peer-reviewed articles to meet the policy of the journal. However, it should also be noted that each and every journal is not the same because they might have different policies for academic authors to accommodate.

Another potential difficulty is concerned with the joint authorship of academic publication. It has been long noticed that many academic papers, especially in natural science disciplines, are written in joint authorship. Previous research into identity and writing focuses mostly on single-authored papers written by undergraduate students and early career academic scholars. In the field of academic publication, sole authorship for a whole career can be rare. In this

study, Professor Woodworth has not been writing any papers single-handedly for a long time. To choose papers for textual analysis in this case, I asked her to choose the papers for which she had main responsibility in the textual process. In her case, there were four joint-authored papers and only one single-authored paper for the textual analysis (see Appendix D: The Sample Texts in This Study). Therefore, the models of academic writing and the issues of authorial identity in academic publication still need sharpening to extend towards the real world practice in which many scholars collaborate on one piece of written work for publication.

3.8. Research Limitations

This study into the development of authorial identity among academic scholars has certain limitations as follows:

First, this study cannot claim to make a generalisation about the development of authorial identity because this research study was based on a constructivist approach to social reality in which there are multiple realities created, constructed and co-constructed by the professor participants, the researchers and the social world (Pring, 2004). The findings may only claim 'transferability' in which the readers need to judge the extent to which the conditions of this research are applicable in other contexts (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Furthermore, the findings from this research study cannot claim any significant similarities or differences among the professor participants. Yet, as Pring (2004) suggests, the findings can be 'illuminating'. In educational research studies, everyone and every group are unique in some respect and not in others but in many other ways they are not unique. The object of research in education is to discourage too hasty a generalisation from the research data and findings.

Another limitation of this research is the fact that the sample texts belong to only two disciplines—law and politics. Therefore, the findings from this research might be confined to only the disciplines to which the academic scholars belong and this means that the findings might be different in other disciplines. Therefore, the textual analysis of the sample texts in other disciplines and in other studies might give a different picture from this study.

Besides, the notion of authorial identity tends to be conceptually limited to the individuality of academic scholars. Initially, I intended to analyse only single-authored papers written by the same academic scholars over time. In real world research like this study, however, the fact that many academic papers were written in joint authorship was beyond my control. This limitation might prove a stimulus for a new area of research on how to reconceptualise the notion of authorial identity in academic publication written by two or more scholars in relation to social theories in the future.

3.9. Ethical Considerations

All research studies involve ethical issues but the character and importance of these often varies (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012). Some ethical issues are clearly related to research paradigms, as Cameron et al. (1992) mentioned, especially when researchers conceal their identity, disguise and distance themselves from the research context to follow a positivist assumption and to conduct research 'on' their subjects. This practice is regarded to be unethical because it does not ensure integrity and transparency from all persons involved in the research study (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012). Therefore, it is important to conduct research in an ethical manner.

For this study, ethical research approval was secured on the following grounds (see Appendix A: Ethical Research Approval).

3.9.1. Informed consent

In this research, all professor participants had been informed about the research project and that they could ask any questions and raise any concerns before participating in this research. They had also been informed that their participation was voluntary and that they might withdraw at any stage of the research. Before I started collecting the data and gathering their sample texts, I made sure that they did not have any doubts about this research and the research methods I followed. Moreover, all professor participants gave written informed consent before I interviewed them.

3.9.2. Confidentiality and anonymity

All three professor participants were informed that their contribution to this research was valuable and respected. Their information was treated with confidentiality and I made every effort to preserve their anonymity. To ensure confidentiality, all professor participants were guaranteed that their information and their identity were known only by me. As for anonymity, I asked my professor participants to choose a pseudonym for themselves and these aliases were used in the research study. However, this research also involved textual analysis and therefore I modified the sample texts by deleting identifiable information about the professor participants and in some cases, I rephrased the sentences. As for the titles of their papers, I changed them to protect the anonymity. Because this research was about academic publication and these written texts had been published before, I made every attempt to preserve their anonymity in their sample texts when I presented the findings. However, it might not be completely possible in all cases. I had informed all three professor participants in the second interview session about the possibility of being identifiable when the sample texts were used in the findings and asked them for their permission and they all gave consent to me to use their sample texts in my findings chapter.

3.9.3. Free from harm and stress

All three professor participants had been informed before each interview session that they could request me to disrupt the interview recording or to refuse to give any information about the questions which I asked in order to prevent any potential and ideological conflicts which might cause harm and distress to them. Moreover, I guaranteed all three participants that their information and the sample texts would be securely stored by me and that only I could gain access to. After the completion of this research, their information and data will be destroyed. In terms of data usage, presentation and publication, all identifiable information will be either deleted or modified to preserve their anonymity.

Every effort was made to ensure that the professor participants did not suffer any stress from participation in this research. Interviews were conducted at a time when it was convenient for each professor participant and the interview

scripts were sent back to each professor participant for verification, clarification and consultation. In some cases, certain parts of the interview script were deleted and omitted from the analysis to avoid the harm such information could result in. Some of the findings, especially the textual findings, were presented to them first so as to seek approval of the usage before the presentation of the findings.

3.10. The Allure of the Narrative Approach

Before I end this chapter, I would like to discuss the allure of the narrative approach which I initially aimed to use in the first phase of this research. I also explore the limitations of the narrative approach and give a justification for the reason why I did not pursue the narrative inquiry after my interview pilot.

Narrative inquiry is a useful approach to social research and it has been adopted in several studies into human development because it offers an excellent framework to examine social histories which influence identity and the development of human beings (Daiute & Lightfoot, 2004). In this study, I examined the identity development of academic authors and as such the aspect of social histories which influence their identity development is clearly linked to their life histories, which Ivanič refers to as the 'autobiographical self' and which has a connection with Bourdieu's concept of 'habitus'. Therefore, the narrative approach is appealing since it aims to generate insights into the relations between academic authors and their academic communities as well as their social practices from a developmental perspective. To get a glimpse of what narrative studies can offer, I will explain the potential of the narrative approach and give an account of what happened to my pilot interview.

The first potential of narrative inquiry as an excellent tool for a developmental perspective is that it allows individuals, namely participants, to create a plot as they tell a story of their life. For researchers who engage in narrative inquiry (e.g., Czarniawska, 2004; Mishler, 2004), a plot brings all sporadic events together into a meaningful unit. This means that researchers as well as participants can make sense of their life holistically. In my pilot interview, I asked my professor participant (whose account was omitted from the main research) about their trajectory of professorship. The professor participant mentioned many events from before she entered academia until she got

promoted to professorship but one plot is clear in her narrative: she treated all these events as 'accidents'—namely, unplanned events which have led to where she is now. She started her life story with the fact that she did not plan to work in academia. It began when she had to quit her job to take care of her children. Rather than merely raising her children at home without doing anything else, she decided to keep her intellectual activity going by pursuing a higher education degree while staying at home and then she was asked to do a part-time job at the place of her study before ending up with an offer for a full-time position in academia without asking.

The second advantage of the narrative turn in educational research is that it allows individuals to reflect on their identity work and their critical moment for change. The interview account of Professor Ronald Barnett (Section 1.1) is one example of his self-reflection on identity work which suggests the 'pretentiousness' of his early draft and his supervisor's accompanying criticism, until he became aware of the literature on writing which acted as his critical moment for change (cited in Carnell, MacDonald, McCallum, & Scott, 2008). In my pilot interview, I asked my professor participant about her critical moment in relation to her research publication. Her reflection points to her naivety about research grants and the fact that she received the first grant she applied for was her critical moment for change in writing for publication and doing research.

The third potential of the narrative inquiry is that although the issue of time is framed in the question, such question can bring the individual's point of view about the subject matter out of the narrative as well. One interview question related to this potential is: 'When did you find your voice?' because it signals the development of writer's voice (Section 2.3.1). In the pilot interview, my professor participant suggested that she does not have a voice in her research articles although she can have it in professional writing or creative writing because her voice would lower her research rigour. Her answer gives an insight into her conception of voice and her development as an academic author. It can be argued that her development of academic identity is linked to her loss of voice when she writes for publication.

Although narrative inquiry offers an appealing tool for this research, I decided not to pursue it due to the following reasons: time constraints, access, rapport, confidentiality and scope of analysis. First, the nature of narrative methods

means that extended accounts of the professor participants are required so that their life history can be treated and analysed as a whole story rather than fragments or themes (Riessman, 2008). However, the professor participants were generally busy since they had many responsibilities. To participate in this study which covered three phases required a lot of time and effort from them; many appointments with them had to be cancelled and new appointments were made according to their convenience. Therefore, the time constraints and the issue of access to the professor participants are also the reasons why the narrative approach could not have been done. Secondly, the issue of rapport needs to be carefully dealt with in narrative studies. Personal questions are quite intrusive in nature and it has been acknowledged that 'a long series of personal questions is hardly the best way to begin an interview of almost any kind' (Chandler, Lalonde, & Teucher, 2004, p. 256). This more personal approach usually fails to engage with the participants. Thirdly, there is a concern for confidentiality when personal data are given and the presentation of this information in the findings chapter is likely to reveal the identity of the professor participants. Fourthly, the scope of analysis is another reason why my interview schedule was not fully based on the narrative approach. With narrative inquiry, the questions mainly involve the participants' life experiences such as their trajectory of professorship. In this research study, however, the questions need to involve the participants' academic papers too. Therefore, the interview schedule which was based on themes and topics relevant to both their life experiences and their academic papers was more practical in the interview sessions with the professor participants.

Still, my research has been influenced by narrative inquiry although it was not fully adopted. Plot is discarded from the inquiry. Moreover, I did not specifically ask my professor participants to tell their stories as I did in the pilot. Yet, some questions in the interview reflect the kind of the questions which are indirectly linked to narrative approach, such as the question about the professor participants' developed sense of authority: 'When did you first feel that you have become an established figure in the field?' This question allows them to reflect on their development and also to convey their point of view about their sense of authority during interview. What I need to highlight here is that the aspect of the professor participants' development is framed in this question to underline the

themes of research rather than their life stories. The question indirectly functions as a way to elicit their narrative but it does not force them to tell their life story.

3.11. Summary

In this chapter, I have presented the focus of this research by highlighting the research gap, defining the two dimensions of authorial identity along with the main research question and its three sub-questions. I have also described and justified the methods of data collection and analysis for each phase which deals with each research sub-question and I have discussed the issues of rigour, difficulties, limitations and ethical considerations as well as the allure of narrative approach. In the next three chapters, I will present the findings for each research sub-question.

Chapter 4. Personal Dimension of Authorial Identity

In this chapter, I present the findings from the first interview session with the professor participants to answer the first research sub-question as to how academic scholars have developed their identity as academic authors over time. The main purpose was to explore the personal dimension of authorial identity of each professor participant.

I present the findings according to the code families as shown in Figure 4.1 and I have described my method of data analysis in Chapter 3: Data Analysis for Research Sub-Question 1. Each code is a theme and these codes are not merged but shown in relation to other codes as part of code families. Full details about the codes can be found in Appendix G: Code Families in Phase 1.

Name	Sources	References	Created On
Academic Authorship	0	0	15/11/2013 12:09
Personal Experience	0	0	03/12/2013 13:44
Academic Influence	3	18	13/11/2013 14:58
Personal Growth	3	13	22/08/2013 13:24
Self-Perception	0	0	07/08/2013 22:22
Sense of Authority	3	9	07/08/2013 21:34
Sense of Pride	3	16	07/08/2013 21:03
Sense of Weakness	3	9	03/12/2013 14:16
Academic Language	0	0	15/11/2013 12:11
Attitude towards Academic Language	3	11	07/08/2013 22:27
Personal Use of Academic Language	3	13	07/08/2013 22:26
Academic Publication	0	0	03/12/2013 11:11
Decision on Revision	3	18	08/08/2013 00:37
Feedback Received	3	19	08/08/2013 00:31
Getting Message Across	3	9	08/08/2013 03:00
Writing Development	0	0	15/11/2013 12:19
Concerns for young academics	3	8	08/08/2013 17:04
Writing difficulty	3	23	08/08/2013 01:22
Writing support	3	40	07/08/2013 22:02

Figure 4.1 Code families, code members and sub-code members

4.1. Academic Authorship

As a key element of the personal dimension of authorial identity, academic authorship brings about and circles around the professor participants' life story. As gatekeepers to lived experience and perception of the research situation, all three professor participants have shared their own accounts of personal experience as well as their perception of their identity as academic authors over time in relation to two related themes which I label as personal experience and self-perception.

4.1.1. Personal Experience

The experience of being an academic author over the course of professorship is unique to each professor participant. It differs and varies from one to another. Yet, their narratives suggest two significant aspects which have become central to their personal experience. One aspect is concerned with academic influence which—although its source of experience comes from the academic institution to which they belong—has shaped their development of academic authorship. The other one is quite personal and unique yet 'illuminating' and conceivable in the sense that it is a kind of personal experience which other academic authors can imagine but may not have undergone—that is, the experience of personal growth.

4.1.1.1. *Academic Influence*

The interview findings suggest that the personal experience of academic authorship is under the influence of academic conditions. The professor participants maintain that being an academic in a university is similar to being an author. Therefore, academic authorship is integral to their academic identity and there is an interrelationship between writing and identity. Still, the experience of academic authorship does not always run smooth. The recent academic climate has changed and these changes, they claim, have made an impact on their current experience of authorship.

Regarding the intertwined relationship between authorship and academic identity under the academic influence, Professor Wonnacott clearly states that to write for publication is part of being an academic. He remarks that a person becomes an academic because they enjoy writing for publication. Otherwise,

there is no point of being an academic. Moreover, Professor Wonnacott was 'taught' that many universities grant special privileges to academic scholars in the social sciences who establish sole authorship of academic books and articles. Therefore, most of his works are solely-authored and only some are written in joint authorship, especially those in recent years. Professor Wonnacott suggests that joint authorship in the social sciences in recent years is not a policy change but it seems to have evolved in the same way as the one in the natural sciences in which a lot of academic scholars are involved in the same paper and they all get cited.

Concerning the relationship between academic authorship and the influence of the recent academic climate, Professor Bracton gives another account and suggests that her recent experience of academic authorship is not as enjoyable as previously. She remarks that early on in her career, her articles were 'much simpler and about simple things' and that it was not difficult because:

When I started in the 70's, there wasn't the pressure to publish but there is now. So, 'cause I'm old now. You know you'll get [probation] as long as you come up with something. 'Could you do another little article?' 'Yes, I will do.' It was a much a gentler atmosphere because there wasn't the financial crisis in universities in those days. So, you could do it at your leisure and therefore really enjoy it. ... I didn't do it as any, for any particular reasons. Initially to get probation. They say you've got to have an article so I wrote an article. But you know I was in the game because I like to do that and I was wandering about the library, finding things and having opinions about them and writing them, trying to persuade people 'I'm right, everybody else's wrong.' (Professor Bracton)

Professor Bracton explains that her recent experience of academic authorship has changed because of the 'pressure to publish' which seems to originate from the Research Excellence Framework (REF) and Research Assessment Exercise (RAE).

In line with this pressure to publish, Professor Wonnacott also expresses his view that it is much harder now to publish because now it seems only 'high quality, highly cited' journals are required. In the past he was able to have fun, writing to the journals or anywhere he liked but the current system is far more 'rigid and mechanistic'; hence, the competitive experience of scholarly publication in recent years.

Nevertheless, the current academic climate can offer more than pressure to the academic scholars. Professor Woodworth is well aware of the fact that publication is an integral part of the academic identity but she suggests that quality of the publication brings about her current experience of identity as an academic author. She contends that with the introduction of RAE in 1986 in the UK, British universities can review the quality of their research and that this exercise forms a basis for funding decisions. The publication in the most prestigious journals also indicates the quality of academic output of an academic scholar and it helps to build up their 'academic credentials'. Further, academic scholars are willingly active in forming the panels of reputable reviewers in academic journals to judge the quality of the academic contribution made by other scholars; hence, the peer-review process as an important system of academic participation. Therefore, Professor Woodworth notes that it is not only the system but the academic scholars themselves who play a role in the quality control. Writing for publication—even though it may appear to be a lot of pressure and involve high competition—can meet the needs of academic scholars because their publication can act as an index of career advancement, and, as such, the current experience of academic authorship involves not only writing but also reviewing.

These three accounts of the academic influence on the experience of academic authorship given by the professor participants suggest a kind of external source of change for the development of academic authorship. Truly, to be an academic scholar is to become an author. Yet, the current status of academic authorship is likely to be interwoven with many changes, especially the participation in the peer review process to maintain the quality of academic scholarship in the recent academic climate. These changes might have taken away the 'gentler atmosphere' of writing for publication but they have benefitted both the universities and the academic scholars and, as will be described in the second aspect of personal experience of academic authorship, have contributed to the professor participants' personal growth.

4.1.1.2. *Personal Growth*

Although the academic influence can be seen as an extrinsic source of change, the professor participants suggest that the experience of writing for publication

has contributed to their personal growth to develop their current state of academic authorship.

One experience of personal growth is identified with the volition to improve the quality of academic publication and the appreciation of feedback. Professor Bracton provides a vivid account of her personal growth when she says that the participation in the peer review process has provided her with feedback to develop and to improve her academic scholarship. Before the REF, she could write her ideas freely and argue, 'I'm right, everybody else's wrong'. However, when she first wrote for the REF, there were a lot of practitioners who criticised her works on the ground that 'people may have a view'. Therefore, she has learned to deal with her 'polarised' worldview in her peer-reviewed publications because:

[I]f you write a book, nobody's really criticizing it. You can say what you like as long as you like if you've got a publishing contract and as long as the copyeditor is happy with it. But more recently, they wanted us to write in a journal where we would get peer review. So with feedback from the university, and the feedback from the reviewers of the journal who tend to say 'This is too polarised. This is too extreme. This needs to be a bit more nuanced, to be gentler. You know. You need to be appreciating that people may have a view. So I tried to calm it down a bit recently if that makes sense. So that you don't want to always say something awful, et cetera. I could say 'This could run into difficulty.'
[laughs] Something a bit less bombastic, I suppose. (Professor Bracton)

Similarly, the appreciation of quality control in scholarly publication is also evident in Professor Wonnacott's account and it has formed part of his personal experience of growth regarding his recent status of academic authorship. He comments that with the current competitive system of academic publication he cannot prevent his papers from being rejected by the journals to which he submitted. However, Professor Wonnacott thinks that rejection is a good thing because it is a kind of 'quality control'. Now he does not publish his papers in journals without peer review panels (or 'open access') because:

More people will be writing in blogs and in poor quality journals and [I] have a concern that in humanities and social sciences we would find it hard to maintain the quality control that we have of academic writing because the government policy and the research council policy is to go for more open access, to go for less quality control, to go for cheaper

publishing, and I think, that will harm British humanities, arts and social sciences, if it's going ahead. (Professor Wonnicott)

The experience of personal growth regarding the quality of academic scholarship is also manifested as the level of confidence. Professor Woodworth recounts how she has built up her confidence alongside her scholarship. When she started off as an academic, she always felt worried about how her article would be taken by others. She says that there was quite a 'big learning curve' at the beginning of her career but she then realised she was 'doing all right'. She explains many levels of confidence on her trajectory of academic scholarship. Her first level of confidence is her realisation that she knows more than her students and her second level derived from 'making networks of colleagues' and doing other jobs within her academic life. With promotions and trust from policy makers, she has now reached her third level of confidence, telling herself, 'actually I'm all right. I'm confident now.'

In sum, these accounts of personal growth indicate the endeavours made by the professor participants to improve the quality of their academic scholarship in the recent academic climate of scholarly publication. The feedback from the peer review process, including rejection, not only provides different worldviews but also maintains the quality control of research. Yet, the feedback may be a source of worry during the early years, as Professor Woodworth suggests, and academic scholars might need to undergo a big learning curve before they can reach their next level of confidence.

4.1.2. Self-perception

Besides the lived experience of being an academic author over time, the professor participants have shared their perception of such experience, or their understanding of themselves as academic authors. This self-perception will complement the story of their personal experience of authorship in the previous section and illuminate the picture of academic authorship in terms of meaning-making from such experience on the trajectory of their professorship.

4.1.2.1. *Sense of Authority*

As all participants in this research have held a professorship for a reasonable length of time, it seems logical to assume that they are an authority in their discipline and that they have developed a sense of authority. Interestingly, each

expresses a different sense of authority and their perception of their authority has changed over time. Professor Bracton tends to cherish her past sense of authority because she views her current position as one of managerial administration whereas Professor Woodworth identifies her sense of authority with the weight of academic reputation. However, Professor Wonnacott denies his authoritative status in his field, suggesting that such self-perception might prevent him from pursuing new academic interests.

For Professor Bracton, her current sense of authority derives from those who work in the same field as hers who value and respect her works, not from the university managers who tend to treat her professorship as a way of ticking off boxes of various kinds, presumably for university regulations:

Sometimes people undermine that, you know, but it's the same everywhere. Sometimes I would feel maybe I'm not good. Maybe I don't have the reputation I thought I have. (Professor Bracton)

That is in contrast to how Professor Bracton describes her sense of authority at an earlier stage of her career as recounted here:

I first applied for a chair when my book 'Evidence and Lawsuit' came out. So, that would be 1993, 1994 something like that. And so to have applied for it meant that I thought I was worthy of it. I have done this work which was regarded by people. ... This is a single-authored book, published at the time when there was a long track record of articles and I thought that it had established me. That book established me really. (Professor Bracton)

Professor Bracton's current sense of authority seems to waver due to managerial treatment but it is grounded in those who admire her works. Similarly, Professor Woodworth contends that her sense of authority comes from being known by different people at different points on her career path. Early on in her career, Professor Woodworth edited a book with her colleague and it became well known in academic institutions among students. Afterwards, she networked with other scholars and she became known by policy makers. For her, being known in the academic community is like having the 'weight of academic reputation' behind her. With these academic credentials, she has made different kinds of impact because she is 'closer to policy makers':

What makes the impact is that you write the article, you become known by the policy makers. You then do things like you respond to

consultations. You then get invited to give evidence to various committee enquiries. You might be commissioned to do a piece of research and that would be the work that you could point to, that then would be quoted by policy makers and they would say this actually makes a difference. That has impact. That has something that is very different. That comes from when you build up your academic credentials in your academic tradition. When you get trusted by your policy makers, your regulators, your legislators and that's when you could make that sort of impact. A different impact is when your, your work is taken up in university, for example, it's used by students, you see yourself cited regularly and their theses, stuff like that. (Professor Woodworth)

However, Professor Wonnacott denies his sense of authority and he suggests that a sense of being established can stop him from pursuing his academic interests:

I'm not sure I have ever become an established figure. But I suppose it would have been when I was made a professor ... And that was 15 years ago. ... because it's such a big field and I think if you consider yourself established, then you'd probably stop working. You should always be trying to find new things and try to develop things. (Professor Wonnacott)

Despite denying a sense of establishment, Professor Wonnacott's quote implies that his current sense of authority is firmly rooted in his academic works, in other words, his continued commitment to research and scholarship.

Based on these accounts, it appears that the professor participants' sense of authority is not derived from the position they have held but from the admiration as well as the recognition by other scholars which contribute to their weight of academic reputation. Yet, it is possible that a perception of authority can lead to retirement from scholarship and, therefore, it may be best to deny it.

4.1.2.2. *Sense of Pride*

Although each professor participant develops their unique sense of authority, they all seem to take pride in their academic scholarship, namely their satisfaction with their achievement in writing for publication.

One of the academic achievements which give the professor participants a sense of pride is promotion. Thanks to their academic publications, they all got promoted to a chair or a professorship.

Readership or audience is another sense of achievement which all three professors take pride in. This sense is experienced through citations made by others of their works. Professor Wonnacott says that one of his books called '*Management in Public Sector*', which is nearly 20 years old, is 'still cited extensively' and he views this work as his favourite one. Professor Bracton says that she is probably 'proudest' of her book '*Evidence and Lawsuit*' because people connect this book to her, making it a mark of her 'identity'. Likewise, Professor Woodworth enjoys seeing herself 'cited regularly' by students and policy makers.

Nevertheless, citation is not a mere source of pride because all three professors believe that their works are cited because their works can contribute to the academic community, making a difference and changing life. Professor Bracton says that she took great pride in her work when the top court in the country, or the House of Lords at that time, agreed with the point she made in her paper which she was not expecting anybody to notice. Owing to her argument, the trial process in certain cases has changed and she takes pride in that, saying: 'Actually, there is some purpose to what I'm doing. Somebody is listening and it might actually help people.' Similarly, Professor Woodworth says that her works are able to 'push the discussion on' and that her message has 'gone beyond the academy', making her feel 'able to make a bit of a difference'. She enjoys participating in the intellectual pursuit. Professor Wonnacott also says that his works are 'very beneficial academically' both to himself and to the debate.

Another kind of satisfaction involves the activities behind the actual writing scene, or the events which take place before publication. Professor Woodworth says that her research gives her 'plenty of space to think creatively' and that she often has a great opportunity to interact with other researchers and her colleagues to make valuable and interesting comments. By the same token, Professor Wonnacott mentions his pleasure in writing his book '*Management in Public Sector*' which took him two years but he is the most proud of this book because it contains 'original research [data] from cover to cover'. Likewise, Professor Bracton contends that writing an academic paper is her source of enormous satisfaction because she can 'wander about the library' to find new ideas and have opinions about them.

Therefore, it can be regarded that the experience of academic authorship has provided the professor participants with a sense of pride, achievement and satisfaction through promotions and citations, which can bring about a difference to the academic community. Moreover, thanks to their writing experience they sense the purpose of what they are doing and often have an opportunity to collaborate with others to pursue the subject matter further.

4.1.2.3. *Sense of Weakness*

Although all participants in this research are professors, they still have some concern about improvement. This might be described as their sense of weakness which forms part of their self-perception of academic authorship.

Professor Woodworth says that there is always room for improvement in her academic writing. She would like to have 'more control of the language', a broader vocabulary and better sentence construction skills to express her ideas in different ways as intended in her papers. Besides, she acknowledges that she tends to postpone her writing to the last minute when she would be 'chained' to the computer to finish her writing. In the past, she was quite worried about her avoidance activity. Now she accepts it, saying 'That's the way it works for me.'

In relation to her polarized worldview, Professor Bracton acknowledges that until recently she tended to adopt an 'angry' tone in her writing with 'some very rude things' because there is so much in her area of research which makes her 'very angry'. However, a lot of practitioners have given her this kind of comment: 'It's the end of everything', implying that such tone will put the readers off. Therefore, she has tried to be calmer but she admits, 'I'm not saying I'm completely changed at all'. Her argument in recent academic publication is not as overheated as in the past except when she has a go at a particular topic, which is her 'little battle'. Still, by writing 'something a bit less bombastic', she feels a 'mature' tone in her writing although she is aware of her irresistibly angry tone from time to time.

As for Professor Wonnacott, he makes a comment that he is no longer as mathematically good as he used to be and claims that this inability to do advanced mathematics is his concern. And he says that if he looks at his past writings, he hopes that he will not find many grammatical errors.

These accounts suggest that the professor participants have some concerns with their identity as academic authors, especially with expression. This sense of weakness implies that an ideal academic author must possess an ability to articulate the subject matter well, with a right tone and no linguistic mistakes. By looking back at their past writings, they feel that it is not always possible to live up to such ideals. They have acknowledged these concerns as part of their weaknesses, some of which they have accepted to be unavoidable but they have managed to control and improve in their future writings.

4.2. Academic Language

One thing which is connected to academic publication is the language used by academic scholars. Through academic language or 'discourse', they form their shared identity by drawing on the cultural reservoir to build up their individual repertoire through the process of affiliation and individuation. Based on the interviews with three professors, two aspects are explored in relation to this issue: (a) their attitude towards academic language as cultural reservoir and affiliation and (b) their personal use of academic language as their individual repertoire and individuation.

4.2.1. Attitude towards Academic Language

All three professor participants seem to contend that they are comfortable using academic language in their publication. Professor Wonnicott claims that he had 'extensive training' as a postgraduate student regarding a written style and he practiced a lot as well as learned from the comments received.

Professor Bracton says that her A-Level Latin courses provided her with the foundation for unambiguous language structure, which is mainly used by lawyers and in her academic law discipline:

... in Latin, you have one main verb clause at the end and everything else is subclauses. So it's: 'Having inspected the army, and having checked the river bridge is intact, and having done this and having done that, and once he realized there was a problem with the provisions but making sure that this wasn't solved first, Caesar invaded Gaul.' That's legal structure. You see what I mean? Because that is the way you are absolutely unambiguous. You have a main verb at the end; 'That would be an offence if, if it's a Monday and if you didn't do it on purpose, well, on the

other hand, subject to this sort of thing....' So, there are lots of subordinate clauses. And so, when I read statute, Acts of Parliament, or judicial decisions or court judgments, they're expressed like that, it was obvious to me because I was used to it. (Professor Bracton)

Although Professor Bracton feels comfortable with academic language in her discipline because of its unambiguity and clear structure, she finds that other disciplines are written with complicated language, especially English literature and sociology, and she believes that those disciplines value complication over simplicity and understanding:

If I read publications in English literature, I think, 'Why do they write in this foreign language? Why do they not want me to understand what they're saying?' I don't get it. It's the same with sociology, why don't they just say what they mean. Mm, so there's no, for lawyers, there's no value in complication for its own sake. I'm not succeeding if people say 'I don't understand what they say.' (Professor Bracton)

However, Professor Woodworth believes that the language used in law is not homogeneous, distinguishing between writing in practice (as used by lawyers) and writing for publication (as used by academics in law). She suggests that academic writing offer 'more scope for expression':

Writing in practice is very tightly controlled, you have to be very careful, not that you don't have to be careful in academic writing, but you've got much more scope for expression, I think, in academic writing. But writing in practice, you have to be very very careful about the correct choice of words, about how you express things. In academic writing you need to be accurate but you can also be colourful but you need to keep control. (Professor Woodworth)

These accounts suggest that the professor participants have formed a shared identity with their community by affiliating themselves with the language use within each discipline. Although they suggest that each field of writing might value different kinds of language use, their attitude towards the language used in their academic field is quite positive.

4.2.2. Personal Use of Academic Language

As all three professor participants feel comfortable using academic language in their writing, they recount how they establish their repertoire of language use in academic publication.

Professor Woodworth says that there was a big learning curve for her at the beginning of her academic career when she switched from the language used as a lawyer towards the language used as an academic. What she gained through her use of academic language was her control of the language to express the ideas in her academic publication.

It's playing with language and it's playing with ideas in your use of the language. And so, that's exactly what it is. It's having academic experience to have the ideas and the knowledge to have the ideas and then it's control of the language to be able to play with it in order to express the ideas in ways that attracts your audience, your reader.
(Professor Woodworth)

Professor Wonnacott claims that since he started to publish, i.e. during his doctoral degree, his style of writing does not change enormously. His language has been 'fairly clear' and 'recognisable fairly quickly' by his rhythmical pattern and wording:

I think it's the cadence and the phraseology. I would try and write so that it reads easily. So, even when I'm writing about a very difficult subject, I try and write it so that people who are not expert can understand it.
(Professor Wonnacott)

As for Professor Bracton, it seems that her repertoire of language use follows the traditional writing in law, namely, the clarity of the sentence through no use of commas:

I write like that without commas most of the time as many lawyers do because that's the style in which we express the law. To be as clear as possible. And my husband says I talk like that. Unstoppable because I haven't got any verb yet. 'Wait. Wait.' [laughs] So, what I'm saying is that I think if you've done that, that's a not such a huge leap. For others, there may be more of a leap. They want to write choppy sentences, which actually make it far from being clear. (Professor Bracton)

Based on these accounts, the professor participants suggest that by drawing on their cultural reservoir of academic language, they have built up their individual repertoire in their written publication with word play for a colourful expression, cadence for readability and no comma for clarity.

4.3. Academic Publication

In this theme regarding academic publication, three issues appear to be significant, which are (a) how the professor participants get their message across in their publication, (b) what feedback they receive and (c) how they decide on their revision, or how they deal with the feedback received.

4.3.1. Getting Message Across

The professor participants suggest that contribution and argumentation are integral to the message in their publication. Therefore, it is important for them to convey their message with new materials and a strong argument.

Professor Wonnicot believes that contribution is the most important aspect when he wants to get his message across in his publication. This 'contribution' is clearly linked to the 'originality' in the research which he claims led him to get his professorship:

I like to try and put together new materials in a way that is fresh, new, novel and contribute to the debate. ... very similar to the way that scientists and engineers do, it's the contribution to knowledge either through new empirical discoveries or through new theoretical developments, a reanalysis of something that exists or a new interpretation of, in my case, public administration and public policy.
(Professor Wonnicot)

As for Professor Bracton and Professor Woodworth, argumentation is the main factor in how successfully they can get their message across and it is implied in the interview that argumentation is linked to 'voice' or tone. Professor Woodworth remarks that:

I would mould my argument, mould and meld my argument. ... As long as I have a message I don't mind. My voice needs to be balanced but it needs to have a message. So, it needs to be balanced and make a message. And I always, because I don't believe in hectoring, I don't believe in 'bashing' people over their head with my views. I believe in arguments and I believe in making your argument in a moderated way. But I do believe also that, you know, making a strong argument is a good thing. Having a view is a good thing and making an argument is a good thing. (Professor Woodworth)

Also linking argumentation to 'tone', Professor Bracton admits that in the past she tended to argue like a 'young person railing against' the issues in law whereas nowadays she has developed a 'calmer' tone to be more persuasive:

I tried to be calmer particularly because what's happening in criminal trials make me so angry that I will lose the argument if I express myself in the tone I'm feeling. You can't do that. There's a lot of practitioners who go around and say 'It's the end of everything.' You know what I mean. And the people who run the system would say, 'You are so emotional and traditional. You got to produce arguments which are persuasive.'
(Professor Bracton)

These accounts suggest that the message in academic publication involves an original contribution and persuasive argumentation which is largely linked to the voice and tone of the academic authors.

4.3.2. Feedback Received

Among the three professor participants in this research, Professor Woodworth is the only professor who has found no problem with her publications. She never experiences reviewing requests for a major correction; only one paper was turned down because it was 'just not within the journal's reach'. Most of her papers receive no feedback.

Apart from the comment about 'tone' as described in the previous section, the feedback the professor participants receive from academic publication tends to reflect the nature of the current academic publication framework and signal its function to meet the satisfaction of editors as well as reviewers.

Professor Bracton remarks that now she cannot write for publication the way she used to because the REF has paved the way for what counts as a good paper. It seems that theory has become compulsory in recent academic papers. Professor Bracton was once told that the maximum score from the peer review for her paper was two stars because it mainly contained her interpretation of the law. That was quite a shock for her because it was not good enough at her level. Professor Wonnacott has also had a similar experience. He was once told by his reviewer that his paper was very empirical and that he needed to strengthen the theoretical framework in the paper. Still, they consider this kind of feedback to be valuable because it improves the quality of their work.

Nevertheless, the professor participants also cast doubts on some kind of feedback from the peer review process. It seems that the addition of theory, or the addition of theoretical perspectives, might also serve to satisfy the editor's demands as well as to please the reviewers, as Professor Bracton recounts:

They sent it to a reviewer who's clearly a barrister. It was obvious from his language that he was a barrister. He obviously knows nothing about empirical research and this is an empirical project. And we read comments and the editor said, 'Frankly, I can't publish it given what this reviewer says. You may just want to take it somewhere else.' You know, the editor didn't really agree with it but didn't want to row with his own board member. (Professor Bracton)

Although her paper was turned down, Professor Bracton's submission of it to another journal was successful. Moreover, the paper was graded quite high in the REF, higher than she expected. Professor Bracton felt 'vindicated' because she believed that the editor in that journal just sent her paper to the wrong reviewer. Therefore, she suggests that the peer review feedback is arbitrary. How to deal with feedback is the next aspect to be discussed regarding the theme of academic publication.

4.3.3. Decision on Revision

This theme of decision on revision is mostly derived from the accounts given by Professor Bracton and Professor Wonnacott because Professor Woodworth has not had major issues regarding peer review feedback.

Professor Bracton says that she cannot accept everything that everybody says. She usually distinguishes the comments and the feedback she receives into many categories before she makes judgments about that. The comments could vary from something that needs to be done to something that is helpful for her and something that will please the editors and reviewers. However, she insists that she will not ignore the feedback received.

The feedback involving her tone seems to have had a great impact on Professor Bracton since this kind of feedback has changed her worldview regarding the issues with which she is dealing. Her decision to revise her paper in relation to this kind of feedback entails her sense of personal growth in academic authorship and maturity in argumentation to get her message across.

So you go away, and say 'OK. Let's take all this overheated stuff out and write something much calmer so that it sounds as if you appreciate that there are two sides. Make it clear at the outset where we're going, what was saying, et cetera, et cetera. Mm. And build up your case so it's not too hysterical but it's a strong argument enough to make your point.'
(Professor Bracton)

As for the feedback which can be helpful for her, Professor Bracton claims that some of it can transform the shape of her paper but she does not necessarily follow all of it because sometimes it is just a suggestion. However, the feedback about 'putting in extra stuff [or theory] to get [one more] little star' can make her wonder because it appears to be an additional requirement of recent academic publication, merely to maintain her academic position during the assessment.

As for the feedback which serves to please the editors and the reviewers, Professor Bracton usually refuses to revise her papers because she is not impressed by the comments or she does not see the point of revising it other than just to please the reviewers or the editors:

I just took it somewhere else not because I have any issues with that journal - I published in that journal since - but because he's got this lunatic and he doesn't really want to have a confrontation with that person. And we don't need it. We've got somewhere else to publish it, so we don't care. (Professor Bracton)

This kind of feedback, which functions to please the reviewers, is also criticised by Professor Wonnacott:

We didn't think that was academically necessary or good. And he [the publisher's editor] tried to make us do this on academic terms. He said that the chapter wasn't good but we had it looked up [at] by other people and they supported us. And so we have to compromise in the end by writing, leaving that chapter in but writing a new introduction. So, I said that I would never publish with that publisher again

If there are disagreements about the points made in the papers, Professor Wonnacott usually argues the points back with the reviewers when he believes that he has written something good. Still, he can rewrite his papers according to the recommendations given by his reviewers but he will not rewrite them just to please the editors, the publishers, or the reviewers.

Unlike Professor Wonnacott, Professor Bracton does not seem to argue with the editors for reconsideration of her papers with a negative feedback:

If they say it's not publishable, you can't say, 'Well, I think it is.' You know it's just become nonsense then. (Professor Bracton)

In sum, the professor participants seem to distinguish comments and make judgements about how to revise their works. They cannot accept everything that every editor and reviewer says. They need to see the point of such revision rather than they revise just to please the reviewers. Otherwise, they might look for somewhere else to publish their papers.

4.4. Writing Development

This theme from the data analysis involves the issues of writing difficulty as faced by the professor participants, how they have learned to write and what has supported them to write. It should be noted that their concerns for young academics are linked to this broad theme because they implicitly reflect the professor participants' experience of writing for publication at an early stage of their career to mark out their writing development.

4.4.1. Writing Difficulty

Writing for publication is not an easy task, all three professor participants suggest. The findings seem to point out three dimensions of writing difficulty as follows: positioning, expression and mental state.

In terms of positioning, Professor Bracton says that writing is quite difficult if she is neutral about something or what she is going to say. For her, neutrality or not to have a view about the topic she is going to write is one major difficulty. She recounts one case when she was invited for a contribution:

If they say 'Well, here's the topic' [pause] 'What am I going to say about this or write a chapter about it?' (Professor Bracton)

In terms of expression, Professor Woodworth believes that her pain in writing derives from the fact she does not have more control of language. With a broader vocabulary, she would be able to express her ideas in different ways and to construct her sentences in better ways. Professor Bracton also views the inability to express herself clearly as a weakness in writing, signalling the fact it is so easy for her to veer off in different directions if the structure is not flowing, especially when many kinds of materials need to be put in one paper:

If you try to pull a wide range or a whole lot of different kinds of material from different areas, I personally find it much harder to get the signposts sorted out and then the coherent structure on it. And it takes ages and you're endlessly writing it and thinking, 'No, it's still not working.'
(Professor Bracton)

In terms of mental state, Professor Wonnacott says that the most difficult thing in writing for publication is to overcome his own fear, especially the fear that his paper will be rejected. He gives an account of how upset he felt when he knew that his paper was rejected. However, he now has already conquered such fear because he believes that rejection is a part of quality control:

A lot of people find that rejection is very hard to take. ... And I always say 'You'll be rejected many times and take it on board. Learn from it.' But a lot of people don't. It makes them leave academia. They can't handle the rejection. And I always say, you know, every top professor should be rejected at least once a year, to learn humility and to go back and make sure their craft is well-written. And I think PhD or graduate students should learn from that. You know it's not a bad thing to be rejected. It's a good thing. It makes you do it properly. (Professor Wonnacott)

Another mental state which hinders writing for publication is linked to avoidance activities. Professor Woodworth admits that she always struggles with writing and she needs to do all the avoidance activities first before she can start writing her paper because writing requires too much an intellectual effort:

I have an idea. I know what I want to do. I have to research it and then I walk round it for a long time. And I sit at my computer and I look at my computer and I get up and I go and have a glass of water and I sit at my computer and I go out and I come back. So I do all sorts of anything but actually sit down and do the really hard work of writing the article. And then suddenly I would say 'Get on with it' and then I will spend a week, chained to my computer. And then I write my article. ... It's complete avoidance activity so I don't have to do the hard intellectual graft of thinking. (Professor Woodworth)

Overall, the struggle to write for publication seems to arise when the professor participants are unsure about the position they take, or about the expression which best reflects their ideas. This struggle is also closely linked to their mental state, resulting in fear of rejection and avoidance activities before they can start writing.

4.4.2. Writing Support and Learning to Write

Since writing for publication is not an easy task, the professor participants were asked about what kind of support they have had and how they have learned to overcome their writing difficulty.

All three professor participants say that they have usually received writing support from other persons since their early career up until now. These include their supervisors when they did their postgraduate degree, their colleagues and their journal/publisher editors. All of these had usually given them supportive and constructive comments. Professor Bracton also mentions her former husband who suggested different ways to improve her expression.

With regard to other kinds of support, training appears to be significant too. Professor Wonnicott claims that he had a good training in his research and academic writing when he did his postgraduate degree. He also practiced writing for publication as a graduate student by submitting his articles to journals and read the editor's comments with his colleagues even though his papers were turned down in order to improve them for resubmission to another journal. This formative experience seems to be helpful for him. Professor Bracton suggests that her foundation of academic English in law discipline is attributed to her grammar training in Latin which raises her awareness of structure and flow in academic publication.

Two other important aspects which help the professor participants write for publication involve the issues of attitude and experience.

Since a neutral view or attitude can create writing difficulty, Professor Bracton suggests that a clear position is very helpful when she writes for publication. When she does not have one, she can talk herself into believing one:

I think having a point of view is important ... Because otherwise, it's not gonna go anywhere and it's very hard to structure if you do not feel you are trying to persuade somebody. But quite often, if you haven't got a point of view, you can fake one, you know. 'Okay, we won't believe this to be the case but we're going to say this is the case.' I talk myself into it and yeah I agree with myself. So, I think in terms of 'How can you write from an external point of view?' It's having a belief. (Professor Bracton)

In terms of experience, Professor Woodworth says that her ability to express herself in better ways derives from her reading, writing and editing others' as

well as her own works. She says that she is not precious with her writing because when others edit her works, they usually point out some aspects to help her articulate her arguments more effectively.

As for Professor Bracton, there are three tactics which she usually uses with her paper. These are flow, signposts and the picture of her reader. A flowing structure, Professor Bracton insists, indicates a good argument. Nowadays she is more aware of her paper structure and she needs to play with it for a time before it works out. She also uses 'signposts', telling her reader right at the beginning of her paper about the direction of her paper and her argument. Every paragraph and every sentence should take a step on the road to the destination. Therefore, she usually develops the picture of her reader with each paper. In this way, she is communicating with a human being and she assumes the level of knowledge of her readers. If she assumes that her reader knows nothing at all about the case, she will write in a descriptive manner. Otherwise, she will get to the main point and leave out insignificant contents which her readers might already know.

The accounts given by the professor participants suggest that they have gained support from other scholars to overcome their writing difficulty and they have learned from experiences, by reading and revising others' works as well as allowing others to read and revise their works to achieve a flowing structure and a clearer articulation. They also form the picture of their readers which help them communicate to the point.

4.4.3. Concerns for Young Academics

In this theme, the professor participants' concerns for young academics are explored so that they can reflect on themselves, their early career situations and difficulties regarding scholarly publication to signal their writing development.

The first concern for young academics involves the expectation that they need to deliver high quality work early in their career. Professor Wonnacott thinks that the current academic climate is much more competitive. He also adds that although other media, like the internet which did not exist in his early career, makes a lot of things easier, it is harder to publish in a high quality journal and it is harder to get promoted, even tenure, in academia because the system is far more rigid and mechanistic. Professor Bracton also considers this requirement

to be a lot of pressure for younger academics even though one advantage of the current academic situation is that some PhD students have experiences using their doctoral degree materials for scholarly publication.

Another concern for young academics is that the joy of writing can be lost if they write merely to meet the target date of submission and the next REF. In the past, Professor Wonnacott and Professor Bracton had fun writing for publication in journals which they liked. Nowadays, they need to aim for prestigious journals for the REF and this is harder since they need to adopt a new way of writing, such as adding theories, just to get one more little star in the evaluation process or to get published. Professor Bracton hints that she might not want to work now if she were a young academic:

I think I wouldn't want to be working now. I wouldn't want this career now. Or maybe they do find it enjoyable. (Professor Bracton)

Apart from the fear of being rejected, which intimidates many early career academics, another concern is the fear of writing itself which often results in avoidance techniques, as Professor Woodworth puts it:

Well, the thing about academics is there is always lots to do. There's always money to earn, or relationships to be had or social life to be had. So, there's always, always avoidance techniques for young academics. (Professor Woodworth)

Last but not least, Professor Bracton is concerned about the standard of written English among young academics, especially in her PhD students' essays and theses. This is a worry for her because these students are likely to work in academia in the future. She contends:

I think the standard of written English is much worse than it used to be, from school through university into academia. So, it's surprising that a number of people going to academic life who don't seem to be able to write literate English and certainly not clear enough for law. So, that's not true for everyone. And often people who've been educated abroad write better English than people who've been educated here. ... It just makes it difficult, 'I'm not sure what he's trying to say because it's so poorly expressed.' And I think that's connected to not reading as much as people used to read. We used to read and read difficult books. You know, if you hear someone say 'I can't read Charles Dickens. It's too difficult.' I mean, 'We were reading that when we were 12. What's going on?' So, if you

can't read Charles Dickens because his sentences are too long, you've got no chance with this stuff. Oh dear! (Professor Bracton)

In essence, the concerns for young academics implicitly indicate the professor participants' development in writing. Their accounts suggest that the current academic climate has become more competitive and more mechanistic in order to meet the publication criteria. Further, the fear of writing itself is a big hindrance which contributes to avoidance techniques and takes away the joy of writing for publication, or even the desire to work.

4.5. Summary

In this chapter, I have presented the findings from the first phase of my research to answer the first sub-question regarding the personal dimension of authorial identity. The accounts given by the professor participants, though unique by nature, have signalled common themes regarding the influence of the present academic climate on their current experience of authorship and their personal experience of growth in relation to their endeavour to improve the quality of their academic scholarship. Three broad self-perceptions have been noted to capture their lived experience of their development as academic authors and these are their senses of authority, pride and weakness. Further, their accounts signal how they have drawn on a cultural reservoir of academic language to build up their individual repertoire and how their experience of academic publication has circled around the peer review process to get their message across and to deal with the feedback received in order to revise their papers. Their struggles to write for publication have also been recounted in order to shed light on the issues of writing development which not only concern young academic scholars but also signal their own experiences of early career situations in an implicit manner. Nevertheless, the findings in this phase only indicate the personal dimension of authorial identity. Its textual dimension and the findings from the second phase of the research will be presented in the next chapter.

Chapter 5. Textual Dimension of Authorial Identity

In this chapter, I present the findings of the textual analysis of the sample texts written by the professor participants in order to answer the second research sub-question as to what the textual analysis indicates about the professor participants' identity in writing. I divide this chapter into two parts. The first part reports the statistical findings from the textual analysis whereas the second part involves the key features of their identity in writing over time. In each part, I will give an overview of the findings for all three professor participants and then I will present the findings for each professor participant.

5.1. Statistical Findings

As I have described in Chapter 3: Data Analysis for Research Sub-Question 2, there were two versions for each sample text used in this study—the 'Full' version and the 'Main' version. The Main version was used for textual analysis because it contains no reference lists, no footnotes and no quotes, either in a full paragraph format or in inverted quotation marks. The reason why these were deleted is because these parts of the text may contain metadiscourse items used by others, *not* by the professor participants.

Another note to be mentioned here is that law academic scholars use footnotes in their papers as a place where they may add many sources of reference along with comments. In my textual analysis of footnotes, I decided to count the number of references used in each paper *only once* in order to make the law papers comparable to the number of references in the reference list of the politics papers which adopt the 'Author-Date' system. When the footnotes were removed from the law papers, it should be noted that there was a big difference in word count between both versions (see Table 3.9 The number of words in each paper from the 'FULL' version to the 'MAIN' version).

It should also be noted that when I present the findings in this chapter, the frequency figures of the findings refer to the MAIN version of the sample texts.

5.1.1. Overview

According to the textual analysis of all the sample texts based on the frequency figures of metadiscourse markers per 1,000 words without the timescale, the statistical findings are as follows:

Table 5.1 Metadiscourse in each professor participant's writing

Categories (per 1,000 words)	Professor Bracton	Professor Wonnicot	Professor Woodworth
Interactive	47.64	41.22	52.37
Endophorics	1.18	1.66	1.69
Code Glosses	4.41	9.91	11.66
Evidentials	19.45	9.15	14.61
Frame Markers	1.42	1.75	2.18
Transition Markers	21.17	18.75	22.23
Interactional	47.64	27.96	40.32
Attitude Markers	4.51	3.07	4.02
Self-Mentions	0.81	0.90	0.58
Hedges	18.03	8.52	16.01
Boosters	8.31	4.45	4.11
Engagement Markers	15.98	11.03	15.60
Total metadiscourse items	95.28	69.18	92.69

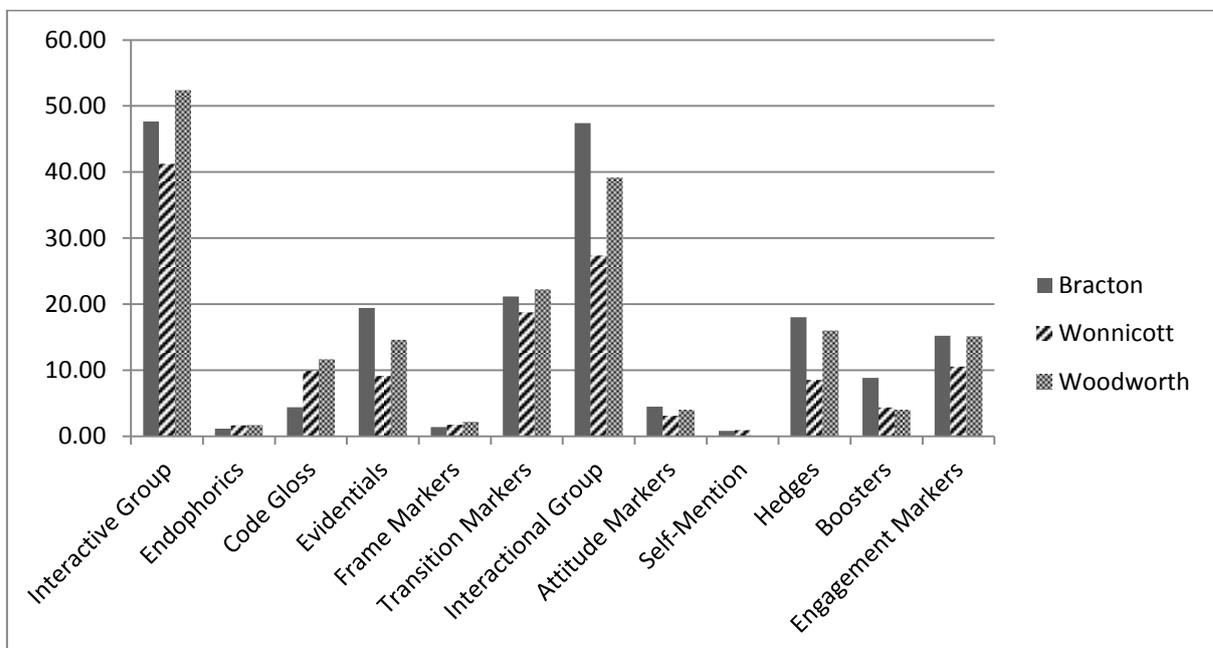


Figure 5.1 Bar chart showing metadiscourse categories in each professor participant's writing

Table 5.1 and Figure 5.1 show a close similarity between Professor Bracton and Professor Woodworth (both in law) because they used nearly one third more metadiscourse markers than Professor Wonnacott (in politics), signalling that there are differences between law and politics discourses.

A comparison of two broad groups of metadiscourse markers, however, suggests a similarity between Professor Woodworth and Professor Wonnacott in that the *interactive* group formed a higher proportion of all markers in their texts while both groups are evenly distributed in Professor Bracton's writing, with the frequency figures of 47.64 occurrences per thousand words for both groups. Still, Professor Wonnacott differed from others due to his marked lower use of the interactional group.

Within all metadiscourse categories, there was less variation among the professor participants in the occurrences of endophorics, frame markers, transition markers, attitude markers and self-mentions. Therefore, it appears that the professor participants shared relatively similar features of identity in writing, such as a low visibility of authorial presence in their texts (less than 1 case per thousand words).

However, there were substantial differences among the professor participants in their use of code glosses, evidentials, hedges, boosters and engagement markers as shown in Figure 5.1. Professor Bracton used far fewer code glosses than the others who used twice as many. Still, evidentials were the most frequent in her writing but the least frequent in Professor Wonnacott's texts. Also the least frequent in Professor Wonnacott's writing were hedges and engagement markers while boosters were well over twice as common only in Professor Bracton's writing.

These findings signal distinctive features of the professor participants' identity in writing. To illustrate, the high use of boosters in Professor Bracton's writing might account for the comments she received about her polarised arguments, as mentioned in the previous chapter. However, such speculation is not the major focus of this research which involves the developmental pathway of the textual dimension of their authorial identity. Therefore, the next three sections will present the changes in each professor participant's writing over time.

5.1.2. Professor Bracton's Writing over Time

In this section, I present the use of metadiscourse markers across the sample texts written by Professor Bracton over time. Further details of the texts including their titles can be seen in Appendix D: The Sample Texts in This Study. Moreover, examples of metadiscourse use over time can be seen in Appendix I: Examples of Metadiscourse Use over Time.

Table 5.2 Metadiscourse in Professor Bracton's writing over time

Categories (per 1,000 words)	Bracton 1981	Bracton 1997	Bracton 2006	Bracton 2011	Bracton 2012
Interactive	54.29	38.30	39.62	51.42	54.55
Endophorics	2.10	0.75	1.26	0.50	1.31
Code Glosses	6.48	4.32	3.37	5.24	2.62
Evidentials	21.19	11.45	15.81	21.78	27.03
Frame Markers	2.45	1.69	0.84	0.81	1.31
Transition Markers	22.07	20.09	18.34	23.09	22.28
Interactional	64.45	49.19	49.11	35.70	39.79
Attitude Markers	2.80	5.82	5.48	4.54	3.93
Self-Mention	3.50	0.00	0.21	0.20	0.16
Hedges	17.69	20.65	18.34	14.32	19.16
Boosters	15.24	6.95	11.59	3.83	3.93
Engagement Markers	25.22	15.77	13.49	12.81	12.61
Total metadiscourse items	118.74	87.49	88.73	87.12	94.34

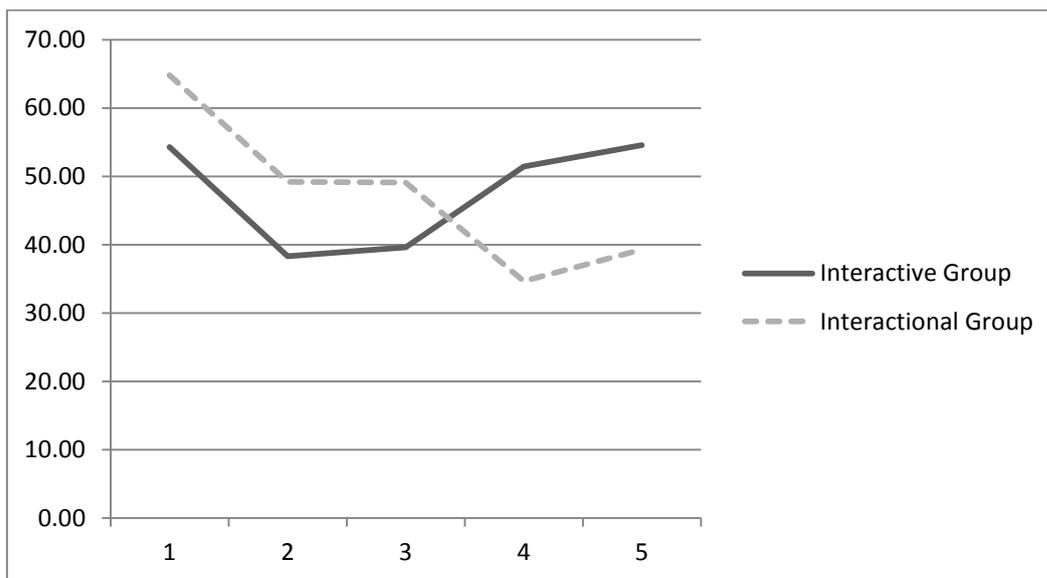


Figure 5.2 Interactive and interactional groups in Professor Bracton's writing

Although the overview section has showed that both groups of metadiscourse markers were evenly distributed in Professor Bracton's writing, Table 5.2 and Figure 5.2 show that the frequency figures varied across the sample texts, with low use of the interactive group in two texts in the middle of the timescale and much lower use of the interactional group in her recent writing.

There were clearly changes in Professor Bracton's use of metadiscourse categories in the interactional group, especially self-mentions, boosters and engagement markers. One striking change was her much lower use of boosters in her recent writing (three times lower). Further, it seems that after her first paper—labelled here as Bracton 1981—she used far fewer self-mentions as well as engagement markers in all four subsequent papers.

With regard to the interactive group, there was much variation in the use of code glosses and evidentials across Professor Bracton's sample texts. Although code glosses were the most frequent in her first paper, they were less frequent in other papers and the least frequent in her fifth paper, the most recent one. By contrast, despite the relatively high use of evidentials in her first paper—probably because it dealt with the definitions of legal terms—it appears that from her second paper onwards Professor Bracton tended to use more and more evidentials.

The findings suggest that Professor Bracton's lower use of the interactional group in her recent writing might correspond to her account of trying to be 'calmer' in the previous chapter because the use of these interactional metadiscourse markers was often related to the issue of attitude expressions.

In sum, although the overview section indicated an overall balance between two broad metadiscourse groups in Professor Bracton's writing, these metadiscourse categories tended to vary over time. Changes in her recent writing were most visible in the interactional group, especially with boosters and engagement markers.

5.1.3. Professor Wonnacott's Writing over Time

In this section, I present the use of metadiscourse markers across the sample texts written by Professor Wonnacott over time. Further details of the texts including their titles can be seen in Appendix D: The Sample Texts in This Study. Moreover, examples of metadiscourse use over time can be seen in Appendix I: Examples of Metadiscourse Use over Time.

Table 5.3 Metadiscourse in Professor Wonnacott's writing over time

Categories (per 1,000 words)	Wonnacott 1986	Wonnacott 1995	Wonnacott 1999	Wonnacott 2004	Wonnacott 2010
Interactive	35.39	40.53	41.07	50.81	38.29
Endophorics	1.29	2.03	1.52	2.20	1.24
Code Glosses	10.29	9.30	9.56	12.84	7.57
Evidentials	3.43	11.33	6.30	15.41	9.26
Frame Markers	1.29	1.31	3.26	1.10	1.81
Transition Markers	19.09	16.56	20.43	19.26	18.41
Interactional	27.88	31.23	26.72	28.25	25.74
Attitude Markers	3.86	3.63	2.17	2.20	3.50
Self-Mention	0.00	1.45	0.87	1.28	0.90
Hedges	9.22	9.73	6.95	8.44	8.24
Boosters	3.86	5.96	4.56	3.67	4.18
Engagement Markers	10.94	10.46	12.17	12.66	8.92
Total metadiscourse items	63.27	71.76	67.79	79.06	64.03

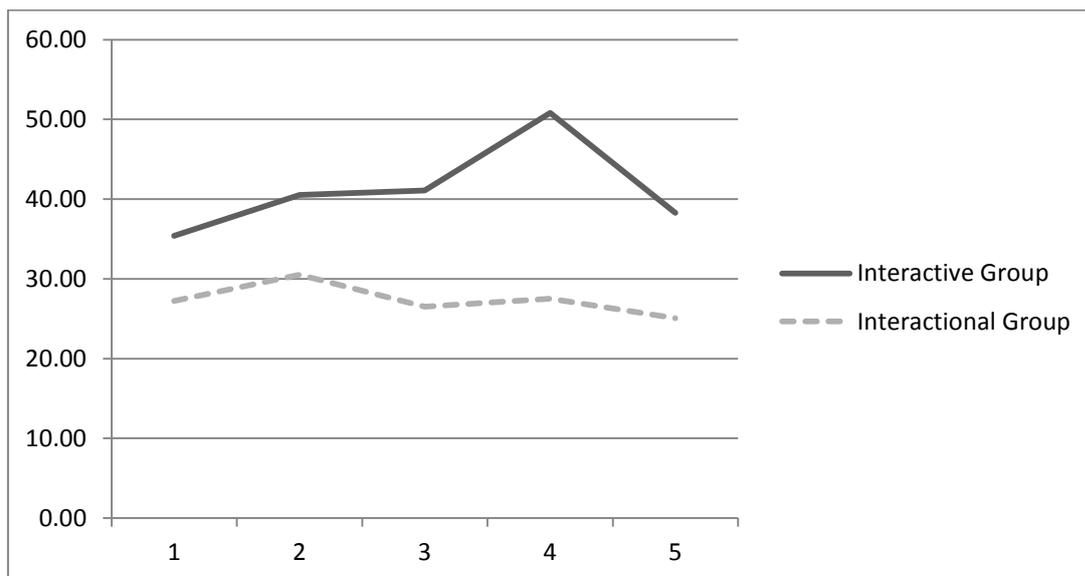


Figure 5.3 Interactive and interactional groups in Professor Wonnacott's writing

In line with the overview section which has showed that Professor Wonnacott used far more interactive metadiscourse categories than interactional ones, Table 5.3 and Figure 5.3 seem to confirm such findings.

Overall, there was little variation in both metadiscourse groups across the sample texts. However, there was a marked difference in his fourth paper, with 20 per cent higher use of the interactive group.

It appears that evidentials were the only category in the interactive group which accounted for Professor Wonnacott's higher use of the interactive group in his fourth paper. It also appears that evidentials were the least frequent in his first paper—labelled here as Wonnacott 1986—but they were more frequent in his other papers. Further, evidentials were found to be approximately three times more frequent in his most recent paper when compared to his earliest paper. Nevertheless, it seems that the use of code glosses slightly varied, with lower use in his fifth paper.

With regard to the interactional group, there was little variation and there was no marked difference across the sample texts in metadiscourse categories except for a slight change in the use of self-mentions and engagement markers in some papers. Although Professor Wonnacott did not mention himself at all in his first paper, self-mentions were found to be the most frequent in his second paper in which boosters were also the most frequent but its change was not clearly marked overall. Further, the use of engagement markers slightly varied over time but it was found to be the least frequent in his fifth paper—the most recent one.

In sum, the findings in this section seem to support Professor Wonnacott's perception that his language does not change enormously, as mentioned in the previous chapter, with almost no variation in his use of metadiscourse markers except for the higher use of evidentials in his recent writing. Presumably, the style of Professor Wonnacott was fairly recognisable since his early career.

5.1.4. Professor Woodworth's Writing over Time

In this section, I present the use of metadiscourse markers across the sample texts written by Professor Woodworth over time. It should be noted that she had published her papers in joint authorship for a long time. Only her fourth paper, labelled here as Woodworth 2010 (Shaping), was her single-authored paper. However, she maintained that she was also primarily responsible for all other papers chosen for the textual analysis.

Table 5.4 Metadiscourse in Professor Woodworth's writing over time

Categories (per 1,000 words)	Woodworth 1996	Woodworth 2004	Woodworth 2010 (F)	Woodworth 2010 (S)	Woodworth 2012
Interactive	48.13	50.67	45.73	51.63	65.71
Endophorics	2.24	1.09	1.58	2.48	1.08
Code Glosses	10.64	10.96	8.96	11.48	16.25
Evidentials	11.87	15.19	11.32	9.90	24.79
Frame Markers	2.17	1.84	2.08	2.63	2.17
Transition Ms	21.21	21.59	21.79	25.14	21.42
Interactional	45.31	33.74	43.65	42.93	35.97
Attitude Markers	5.21	2.71	4.30	3.68	4.21
Self-Mention	1.01	0.33	0.00	0.00	1.56
Hedges	17.88	14.54	15.34	20.26	12.03
Boosters	3.84	4.77	5.23	4.28	2.41
Engagement Ms	17.37	11.39	18.78	14.71	15.76
Total items	93.44	84.41	89.38	94.56	101.68

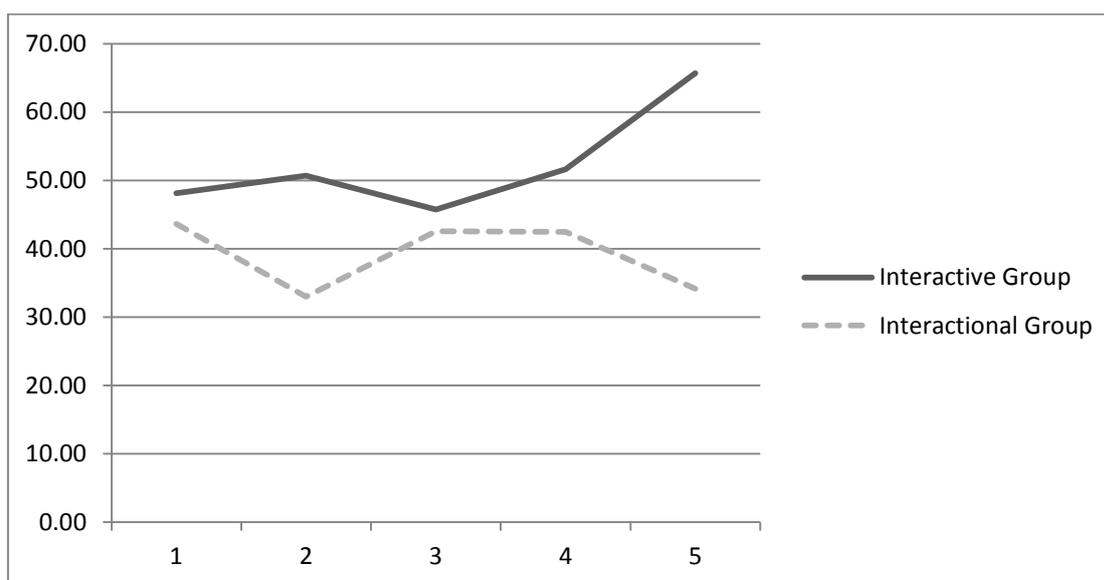


Figure 5.4 Interactive and interactional groups in Professor Woodworth's writing

The overview section has showed that Professor Woodworth used more interactive metadiscourse markers than interactional ones. Table 5.4 as well as Figure 5.4 seem to support such findings but they also indicate a striking difference in that she used far more interactive markers in her most recent paper while the use of interactional markers was found to be less frequent in her second and fifth papers.

Within the interactive group, there was little variation across the sample texts in the use of metadiscourse categories, except for code glosses and evidentials. It appears that the use of code glosses in Professor Woodworth's writing remained relatively stable until her fifth recent paper in which she used one third more code glosses. Similarly, evidentials were found to be the most frequent in her fifth paper—and also well over twice as frequent in many cases—when compared to the four other papers.

With regard to the interactional group, there was much variation although these changes did not account for any marked overall changes in the same metadiscourse categories across the sample texts. It appears that attitude markers and engagement markers were the least frequent in her second paper while hedges and boosters were the least frequent in her fifth paper. Therefore, the marked lower use of the interactional group in her second and fifth paper was attributable to the changes in many categories. Still, it was found that the use of hedges was the most frequent in her fourth paper—the one for which she had sole authorship—along with less frequent use of engagement markers when compared to other papers. Further, it appears that Professor Woodworth did not mention herself at all in many papers, including her solely-authored paper.

In sum, Professor Woodworth's use of metadiscourse markers varied across the sample texts over time, with a much higher frequency of evidentials and code glosses in her most recent paper. However, the lower use of the interactional group in her second and fifth papers was attributable to her variation in the use of many categories. These changes might be related to the fact that she co-wrote these papers with her colleagues.

5.2. Key Features Regarding Academic Identity in Writing

In the second part of this chapter, I begin with an overview of the findings before I present the key features regarding the textual dimension of authorial identity along with the excerpts taken from the sample texts written by each professor participant in the next three sections.

5.2.1. Overview

Based on the statistical findings in Tables 5.2, 5.3, and 5.4 for each professor participant, I compared the variation in the use of metadiscourse categories among the three professor participants in order to list key features which involve their identity in academic writing in order to examine them in detail and to write a textual report for each professor participant.

First, there was much variation among the three professor participants in the interactive group of metadiscourse markers. Professor Bracton used far fewer interactive markers than interactional markers in some of her papers while the two others usually used more interactive ones than interactional ones. Furthermore, the interactive group tended to be more frequent in both Professor Wonnicott's writing and Professor Woodworth's writing recently. According to the taxonomy of metadiscourse, the interactive group of metadiscourse is largely related to the textual metafunction of language use. However, this group not only helps organise the text but also involves the writer's argument in their text because academic writers often use these markers to set out their arguments. Endophorics serve to guide readers through the texts while frame markers set the boundary of the texts. Writers also make use of transition markers to craft a coherent argument while they cite other sources as part of their evidentials. Further, they signal their commentary and explanatory notes through code glosses. Therefore, the first key feature involving the professor participants' textual dimension of authorial identity is the issue of argumentation.

Second, when the fifth paper (or the most recent one) written by each professor participant was compared to their own first paper (or the earliest one), it was found that the evidentials in the fifth paper doubled or tripled the frequency in the first paper. To put it another way, all three professor participants tended to use more and more evidentials along their trajectory of academic scholarship.

Apparently, evidentials have played a major role in forming a higher proportion of the interactive group in each professor participant's writing in recent years. Therefore, the second key feature regarding the textual dimension of authorial identity is the use of evidentials which include references and other sources of citation in academic publication.

Third, there was a difference in the use of code gloss among the professor participants. Professor Wonnicott and Professor Woodworth tended to use twice as many code glosses in their writing when compared to Professor Bracton. According to the metadiscourse taxonomy, code glosses are expressions which writers use to provide their readers with commentaries and explanations. Its function is largely related to the issue of getting the message across, which was mentioned in the previous chapter. Therefore, the third key feature of identity in writing involves the issue of getting the message across.

Fourth, there was a marked overall difference among the professor participants in the use of boosters and hedges, which was particularly of relevance to the issues of attitudes expressed in academic writing, multivoiced negotiation and heterogeneity in thinking. Professor Bracton used far more boosters in her early writing and now used far fewer of them in her recent writing, making her similar to the two others who usually used far more hedges than boosters across their sample texts over time. Therefore, the issue of attitude expression is the fourth key feature related to the textual dimension of authorial identity in academic writing.

Fifth, there was a similarity among the professor participants in the use of self-mentions and engagement markers. Self-mentions remained quite low across the sample texts over time and engagement markers appeared to be less frequent in some of their recent papers, noticeably in Professor Bracton's writing. These categories are related to the issues of authorial presence in academic writing as well as their interaction with their readers. They are integral to the notion of authorship. Therefore, the fifth key feature of identity in academic writing is related to the issues of being an academic author, such as how they display their personal profile in their writing and how they interact with their readers.

Therefore, the five key features of identity in academic writing are as follows:

- Evidentials (including referencing)
- Getting message across
- Argumentation
- Expressing attitude
- Being an academic author

These five key features formed the structure of my textual report for each professor participant (see Appendix F: An Example of Textual Report).

It should be noted that the key feature called 'Evidentials' was renamed 'Referencing' in the reports which I sent to the professor participants in order to avoid terminology. I retained the term 'Referencing' in my presentation of the findings and used it as a code to analyse the research in the third phase of this study. Therefore, it is important to note that 'Referencing' or 'References' in the next three sections refers to all forms of evidentials, such as long quotes, reference lists as well as interview extracts which did not originate from the professor participants but they used in their writing.

In the following three sections, I present the textual findings of each professor participant's writing in relation to the five key features I mentioned above. Their papers have been classified according to Swales' taxonomy of journal article genres (see Appendix D: The Sample Texts in This Study for more details) and I will mention this information in the next three sections where relevant. The examples of metadiscourse items in the sample texts written by the professor participants over time which helped me analyse the sample texts can be found in Appendix I: Examples of Metadiscourse Use over Time.

5.2.2. Professor Bracton and Identity in Writing over Time

1. Referencing

Professor Bracton's use of references and others' words in her five sample papers over time is shown in Table 5.5 below:

Table 5.5 Evidentials in Professor Bracton writing over time

Feature	Bracton 1981	Bracton 1997	Bracton 2006	Bracton 2011	Bracton 2012
Evidentials per 1,000 words	21.19	11.45	15.81	21.78	27.03
Long quotes (or quotes as paragraph)	37	0	4	2	0
Short quotes	4	11	9	13	7

It should be noted that the frequency figures for evidentials in the first row already included those in the next rows.

Apart from the 1981 paper which is classified as a theory piece, it seems that there is a higher frequency of cited works from the second paper onwards. The most recent paper—a data-based journal article—contained the highest frequency of references and it also contained many interview excerpts (60 in total) whereas the second work—a review article—contained the lowest frequency of evidentials.

Professor Bracton's first paper contained the highest number of long quotes or quotes in paragraph format but this style of including long quotes was not evident in her later papers. Moreover, the word 'cite' was heavily used in the 1981 paper (with over 10 instances including variations such as 'cited' and 'citing') and the word 'cite' was rarely used in recent papers.

Sample texts

(Bracton 1981) The other passage cited by Blackstone is obscured by what appears to be an erroneous reference in the footnote²⁷. He must mean to refer to the point in Lord Maitland's judgment when he says,

'Rape to my mind, imparts at least indifference to a woman's consent'.

27 Professor Blackstone quotes 'indifference to a woman's consent', but the phrase does not appear in the part of Lord Selden's judgment which is cited. Lord Maitland, however, *does* use the phrase, at 203.

2. Getting message across

Expressions used for this purpose in each paper were counted in order to understand how this aspect has changed over time. Examples of these expressions included 'such as', 'for example', 'i.e.' and 'that means'. Parentheses were also counted when they are used to add comments.

Based on Professor Bracton's five sample papers, there seemed to be a lower use of the expressions to explain words/concepts, give examples or add comments over time. In other words, these expressions were the most frequent in her earliest paper—Bracton 1981 (with 6.5 items per 1,000 word count). However, they were the least frequent in her most recent one—Bracton 2012 (with 2.6 items per 1,000 word count).

One particular word which was less frequent and disappeared in recent papers was the word 'definition' (including variations of 'define') which was seen over 10 times in Bracton 1981 because it deals with the issues of legal ambiguity. Presumably it was because she had to review many definitions of certain legal terms before she formulated her argument in this theoretical paper.

Sample texts

(Bracton 1981): Thirdly, (he does not make this point specifically as a criticism but it could be regarded as such) he suggests that the meaning of 'recklessness' in offences such as assault may be different from the Denning interpretation, which may apply only to statutory crimes.

(Bracton 1981): It has often been remarked that it is an extraordinary thing that in the later twentieth century there is still such uncertainty about the meaning of common law terms such as intention or recklessness.

(Bracton 2011): It cannot be denied that adherence to due process values is expensive and slows the system down. However, criminal justice in every aspect is often used as a broad index of how 'civilized' or 'progressive' or indeed 'truly democratic' a country is.

3. Argumentation

According to the textual analysis of the use of conjunctions, adverbs and expressions for text flow or for argumentation, it seems that the type with the highest frequency in the five sample texts belonged to the category of contrast, (such as *'but'*, *'however'*) with the frequency of around 3.7 uses per 1,000 words. This was followed by the categories of (a) addition (such as *'and'*, *'moreover'*) with a slightly lower frequency, (b) cause-effect (such as *'since'*, *'therefore'*) and (c) concession (such as *'although'*, *'nevertheless'*). The latter two were used with a lower frequency. The group of comparison (such as *'likewise'*, *'in the same vein'*) was extremely rare (i.e., 1 use per 5,000 word count).

Sample texts

(Bracton 1997): Disagreements inevitably follow from different heuristical structures operating in the minds of those who disagree with any particular decision. Littleton is a case in point: there are those who find it too much to dismiss as coincidence that the defendant was at the rendezvous described by the boy victims, that they recognised Littleton, and that he happened to have at home pictures indicating a sexual interest in small boys. Others do not find it particularly remarkable that a paedophile might happen upon the meeting place and be mistakenly identified as the perpetrator.

However, in some cases, consistency may occur where judges rely on heuristical structures which result from shared judicial experience, or a claimed professional expertise; ...

(Bracton 2006): In the same vein, Lord Dicey suggested in A (No.2) that the defence of belief in consent would in many trials have no air of reality and would in practice not be available. For instance, a complainant might allege the use of violence whereas it is flatly denied by the defence, who allege that she co-operated. The conflicting versions exclude any claim to honest (and reasonable) belief.

(Bracton 2011): Far from moving closer to the modern 'advanced' model, as has been suggested by some commentators, judicial procedure is becoming increasingly influenced by other 'purist' concerns. Intolerance to the reformation is motivated by the desire to increase efficiency and reduce cost, although it corresponds to some degree to the descriptions, in the work of Hermann Kantorowicz, of the system favoured by 'activist' states. However, the financial crisis facing the new government means that the situation is unlikely to be alleviated should the extent of government activity be reduced.

(Bracton 2011): In Kantorowicz's view, bureaucrats dislike day-in-court trials since results are relatively unpredictable. More fundamentally, he argues that it presents a problem to the activist state, which regards the processes of proof as a means

of eliciting facts of importance for the implementation of state policies, and has no time for two clashing versions of events. The reactive state, in contrast, has no mechanism for preparing quantities of documents, and so prefers the parties to do the work. The result is a conflict-solving model of criminal justice.

4. Attitude expressed in academic writing

The category of attitude in this section is more related to the argumentation rather than the subject matter. Two main kinds of attitude to be discussed here are certainty and doubt but there are also other kinds of attitude such as surprise and significance.

Based on Professor Bracton's five sample texts, it seems that her early papers contained many more expressions which emphasise certainty (such as 'true', 'no doubt'). The frequency was around 17 uses per 1,000 word count in Bracton 1981, as compared to around 4 uses per 1,000 word count in Bracton 2011 and Bracton 2012. The number of expressions which tone down certainty (such as 'appear', 'seem') remained quite stable or around 18 uses per 1,000 word count in almost all five papers, no matter what genres these papers belonged to. However, there were instances which reflected the conflict in attitude between certainty and doubt in the same statement (such as 'There seems to be no doubt') and these instances of conflict were evident in both early and recent papers.

4.1 Emphasising Certainty

To emphasise certainty, these words 'clear', 'clearly' and 'simply' were frequent in all five sample texts but words like 'obvious', 'show', 'think' and 'actually' were less frequent. It also seems that the expressions 'no doubt', 'undeniable' and 'without doubt' were not found in her more recent papers (Bracton 2011 and Bracton 2012).

4.2 Toning down Certainty or Casting Doubt

The frequency of words to tone down certainty seemed to remain stable in all her five sample texts. These words 'appear', 'seem' and 'suggest' were fairly frequent in all five texts.

4.3 Other kinds of attitude

Other kinds of attitude expressions found in Professor Bracton's writing included expressions for surprise (*'even', 'striking'*) and importance (*'significant'*). The expressions for belief and emotion (*'convincingly', 'unfortunately'*) were quite low and were found only in her early papers.

Sample texts

(Bracton 1981): It is true that there is no doubt at all about Lord Mansfield's view, but it should be noted that he expresses it as agreement with other of the Law Lords, his dissent being concerned with what level of harm the accused must be proved to have foreseen.

(Bracton 1981): Section 20 is more problematic since the offence can be committed 'unlawfully and maliciously' but there seems to be no doubt that it is a crime of what is known as basic intent in this context, and therefore is an offence to which there is no defence of self-induced intoxication.

(Bracton 2006): It seems, therefore, that the question of the reasonableness of the defendant's belief is more likely to be determined by trial judges', not jurors', perceptions of the meaning of behaviours in a sexual context. The significance of this is clearly illustrated by the divergent views of Justices of the Canadian Supreme Court in Esau.

(Bracton 2012): It was striking that no interviewee regarded prosecution failure to comply with Rules or orders as a consequence of Crown unwillingness to do so. It seems that the only barrier to full engagement with the Criminal Procedure Rules centres on capacity and resource.

5. *Being an academic author*

This topic involves the issues of how academic authors interact with their readers and the research community. Three main issues were investigated in order to explore how Professor Bracton made her presence felt, how she addressed her readers for the purpose of engagement and how academic conventions had influenced her writing.

5.1 Authorial Presence

In the five sample texts of this analysis, the personal pronoun 'we' was found in all papers although three of them were single-authored. In these single-

authored papers, the personal pronoun 'I' was found only in the acknowledgement section.

In Bracton 1981 which Professor Bracton co-wrote with a colleague, however, there were far more occurrences of 'we' and 'in our view', making it her paper with the highest frequency of authorial presence among all five papers.

Sample text

(Bracton 1981 multiple-authored): This problem was not dealt with at all by the House of Lords and should be considered, in our view, very carefully.

(Bracton 1997 single-authored): We seem condemned to a future of endless tinkering with the rules of evidence rather than a comprehensive overhaul. But overhaul is what is needed. The domino effect of changes to one rule upon others is clearly a restrictive influence on these proposals. We have a piecemeal approach as a result, custom-made to preserve all the conceptual incoherence of the existing law of evidence. ... Gilding a dandelion seems to be the preferred course of action. The exercise seems pointless. If we cannot yet identify a system which would be free of the major defects of the current one, perhaps reform should wait until we can.

5.2 Addressing readers and interacting with the audience

According to the textual analysis in which the frequency of expressions to denote engagement with the reader or the audience was counted, these expressions seemed to be less frequent in Professor Bracton's recent writing. In Bracton 2012, the frequency of these expressions was around 12 uses per 1,000 word count, or only half of the one in her earliest paper—Bracton 1981.

Sample texts

(Bracton 1981): The House of Lords, as by now every undergraduate knows, held by a majority of three to two that in order to prove that the accused is 'reckless' for the purposes of the Act it has to be shown that he does an act which in fact creates an obvious risk that property will be destroyed or damaged where, ... [and then a quote in paragraph format]

(Bracton 1981): Thirdly, (he does not make this point specifically as a criticism but it could be regarded as such) he suggests that the meaning of 'recklessness' in offences such as

assault may be different from the Denning interpretation, which may apply only to statutory crimes.

(Bracton 2011): Rules of legal procedure are usually regarded as neither the focus of philosophical debate nor as set in stone.

(Bracton 2012): This article considers whether the new system is considered to be working well, and whether the change of atmosphere is under way.

5.3 Academic convention

Based on the textual analysis, there were many instances of passive structure in which the sentence could be written in an active voice. There were many cases of using an action verb with an inanimate object. Further, the use of modal verbs is interesting. In one sentence, a stronger modal (such as 'may' and 'can') is used whereas in the sentence which follows or is not far from it, a weaker modal (such as 'might' and 'could') is used.

Sample texts

[Passive form]

(Bracton 1981): This problem was not dealt with at all by the House of Lords and should be considered, in our view, very carefully.

[Using action verb with inanimate object]

(Bracton 2006): This article examines the extent to which the rape shield is displaced by reliance at trial on the defence of honest or honest and reasonable belief in consent. It also raises the question of the legitimacy of judicial intervention in terms of denying the accused the opportunity to raise the defence of lack of mens rea.

(Bracton 2011): In Kantorowicz's view, bureaucrats dislike day-in-court trials since results are relatively unpredictable. More fundamentally, he argues that it presents a problem to the activist state, which regards the processes of proof as a means of eliciting facts of importance for the implementation of state policies, and has no time for two clashing versions of events.

[Use of modals such as 'may', 'might', 'can', 'could', 'would', 'will']

(Bracton 1997): Others do not find it particularly remarkable that a paedophile might happen upon the meeting place and be mistakenly identified as the perpetrator.

However, in some cases, consistency may occur where judges rely on heuristical structures which result from shared judicial experience, or a claimed professional expertise

(Bracton 2012): From the prosecution point of view, the aims of the new system, although it may require changes to practice, would not appear to create any conflict of loyalty.

(Bracton 2012): It has been argued that having senior judges spend so much time in administration is unnecessary, and that the case management role before the Crown Court stage could be performed instead by a district judge or magistrates' court legal adviser.

5.2.3. Professor Wonnacott and Identity in Writing over Time

1. Referencing

Professor Wonnacott's use of evidentials, references and others' words in his five sample papers over time is shown below:

Table 5.6 Evidentials in Professor Wonnacott writing over time

Feature	Wonnacott 1986	Wonnacott 1995	Wonnacott 1999	Wonnacott 2004	Wonnacott 2010
Evidentials per 1,000 words	3.43	11.33	6.30	15.41	9.26
Long quotes (or quotes as paragraph)	0	5	5	15	11
Short quotes	2	5	1	10	16

It seems that the number of evidentials in each paper varied but it was higher in his recent papers—both of them were classified as theoretical papers—along with the higher use of long quotes and short quotes. Two papers, Wonnacott 1986 (review article) and Wonnacott 1999 (data-based article), contained a low frequency of evidentials probably because of their relatively shorter length (their main texts were less than 5,000 words) in comparison to the three other papers.

Professor Wonnacott's data-based papers in 1995 and 1999 contained interview data. Many statements in each paper referred to the interview data which he mentioned but did not quote. Sometimes the expressions '*various interviews*' or '*interview*' were used alongside other published works.

Sample texts

(Wonnacott 1999): A senior German scientific manager put it more bluntly, he argued:

It is difficult to lobby ministers; they are more interested in talking than in listening, they think they are more important than they really are. They are only concerned with the next election, well, five years is an age in politics; in science it is nothing! (Interview).

(Wonnacott 1999): This all came together in a series of long Council of Ministers meetings, many of which ended in deadlock as one or other of the foremost contending host countries vetoed all rivals (various interviews; Willson, 1981).

2. Getting message across

In his three early papers (review and data-based articles), the frequency of code glosses was similar, or around 10 uses per 1,000 words. However, the frequency of these glosses varied in his two theoretical papers. Wonnacott 2004 contained around 13 uses per 1,000 words (higher) whereas Wonnacott 2010 contained around 7.5 uses per 1,000 words (lower).

In all five papers, there seemed to be a strong use of 'or' and 'indeed' as a way to explain words/concepts or add comments. It also appears that the use of 'such as' was far more frequent in his later papers, particularly Wonnacott 2004 and Wonnacott 2010 (both were theoretical pieces).

Sample texts

(Wonnacott 1995): Rules and directives have been supplemented (or replaced) by performance control through targets, devolved management responsibilities (including over pay and grading in many cases), and contracts (or service-level agreements which may be seen as 'shadow' contracts to allow the Crown to contract with itself).

(Wonnacott 1999): It is a democratic deficit, indeed a democratic façade that needs to be addressed in a sustained and continuing way.

(Wonnacott 2004): Certainly institutions are changed through Europeanisation, indeed some (such as Britain's Agriculture Board (for Common Agricultural Policy or CAP activities) a non-departmental public organisation) are created purely as a result of European policies.

3. Argumentation

According to the textual analysis of conjunctions, adverbs and expressions for text flow or for argumentation, the type with the highest frequency per 1,000 words belonged to the category of addition (such as *'and'*, *'moreover'*) with the frequency of 3.5 uses per 1,000 words. This was followed by the categories of (a) contrast (such as *'but'*, *'however'*) with a slightly lower frequency, (b) cause-effect (such as *'since'*, *'therefore'*), and (c) concession (such as *'although'*, *'nevertheless'*). The latter two were used with lower frequency. The category of comparison (such as *'likewise'*, *'in the same vein'*) was extremely rare (i.e., 1 use per 5,000 words).

Formal forms of conjunctions and adverbs (*'albeit'*, *'henceforth'*, *'thence'* and *'whilst'*) were found in his early papers Wonnacott 1986 and Wonnacott 1995 and these forms (except for *'albeit'*) disappeared in later works.

Sample texts

(Wonnacott 1986): The radicals argue that the role of nuclear power is, therefore, that of an industrial discipliner. It cannot be seen as being politically neutral, indeed it is decidedly partisan, the purpose of technology being to reinforce the position of society's dominant groups.

(Wonnacott 1995): The new Whitehall may be glimpsed in a series of recent documents which both chart and predict a civil service part-reconstructed in the NPM mould, but which also restates the primacy of Parliamentary accountability, albeit situated upon a continuum of accountabilities.

(Wonnacott 2004): But this is not the same as refusing the validity of a general theory that can be applied to European integration. The study of Europeanisation, although exploring the effect of intergovernmental and supranational organisations, is likewise mostly found at the national and sub-national level in terms of its impact (and empirical analysis). But its dynamics are (variously) regional, national, supranational, transnational and global.

(Wonnacott 2010): It is not clear why the government decided to treat ALX differently to other parastatals in terms of privatization. The narrative below suggests that initially it did not, but the persons concerned with leading the process took charge in a way not repeated elsewhere. Certainly the dissipation of the nation's resources could be traced to a great extent to the corruption and mismanagement of the public sector. Although parastatals accounted for 11 per cent of GDP between 1986 and 1990, they were 'responsible for a net outflow of three billion Congolese francs, equivalent to 0.9% of GDP from central government' (Muamba, 2007, p. 41). The privatization of ALX

began to resemble (to borrow from Galston) a punctuation point, a fork in the road, or even a transformation (Galston, 2008, p. 46), for the airline industry, but not, perhaps for the public sector as a whole.

4. Attitude expressed in academic writing

Based on Professor Wonnacott's five sample texts, the frequency of expressions to signal attitude regarding the argument was similar in each of them, no matter what genres these papers belonged to.

In all five sample texts, it was found that the expressions which emphasise certainty (such as '*certainly*', '*clear*') were usually less frequent than the expressions which tone down certainty (such as '*appear*', '*often*'). The frequency of these confident expressions was found to be around 4 uses per 1,000 words, and it was usually half of the frequency of ones to tone down certainty.

4.1 Emphasising Certainty

The frequency of expressions to emphasise certainty was similar in each of the five papers, except in Wonnacott 1995 and Wonnacott 2004, where their frequency was slightly higher. The words '*clear*', '*simply*', '*demonstrate*' and '*certainly*' were evident in almost all papers.

4.2 Toning down Certainty or Casting Doubt

The expressions used to tone down certainty or cast doubt '*perhaps*', '*may*', and '*suggest*' were found in each paper. There were also instances of '*often*', '*generally*', '*sometimes*' to tone down certainty. The expression '*appear to be*' was found in almost all papers but Professor Wonnacott never used the expressions '*It seems that*' and '*seem to be*' in any of these five papers although there were 2 instances of '*seemingly*' in Wonnacott 1986 and Wonnacott 1995 (his early papers).

4.3 Other kinds of attitude

The attitudes regarding importance and surprise were found in most papers through the use of '*important*', '*useful*' and '*even*'. However, the emotional attitude expressions which were be found in some academic papers, i.e. '*fortunately*', '*unfortunately*' and '*surprisingly*' were rare, or indeed never used.

Sample texts

(Wonnacott 2004): Certainly institutions are changed through Europeanisation, indeed some (such as Britain's Agriculture Board (for Common Agricultural Policy or CAP activities) a non-departmental public organisation) are created purely as a result of European policies.

(Wonnacott 2010): It is important, when making these comparisons, not to forget that the British process has had its critics. Even its supporters have criticized the large salaries made by the managers of former public utilities ...

(Wonnacott 2010): For the first time since ALX's inception in 1977, sensible, modern management reform appeared to be seriously considered by a Congolese government for a major public sector organization. What made this surprising was that by this stage successive Congolese governments had apparently ignored pressure by western donor nations to modernize their public administration and reduce the corruption that bedevilled it, pressure that led to a French High Commissioner publicly berating ministers in 2004 (Tansi, 2004) ...

5. Being an academic author

Three main issues were explored in this section as to how Professor Wonnacott made presence in his papers, how he addressed his readers for engagement and how academic conventions had influenced his writing.

5.1 Authorial Presence

In these five sample papers, all of which were single-authored, there were only 2 instances of 'I' in only two papers and more instances of 'we' in four of the five papers. In general, the use of personal pronoun 'I' or 'we' as personal profile was quite low, no matter what genres the papers belonged to. However, some papers contained many self-citations of previous works.

Sample texts

(Wonnacott 1986): If the Inquiry has achieved nothing else (and we must await Wickfield's Report and the reaction to it), it has concentrated the minds of all those involved in the industry, forcing a fundamental examination of their role and that of nuclear power.

(Wonnacott 1995): I have followed the convention of directly quoting officials anonymously.

(Wonnacott 1995): The White paper discusses the history of the modern civil service, outlining recent changes and plotting the proposed reforms which grow out of current trends. But it also contains elements that if taken to their possible conclusion, could irrevocably alter the civil service in a largely unpredictable way (Wonnacott, 1994ab; 1995a; O'Toole, 1995).

(Wonnacott, 2010): Given the sensitivity of the subject all requested complete anonymity and I have endeavoured to comply.

5.2 Addressing readers and interacting with the audience

According to the textual analysis in which the frequency of expressions to denote engagement with the reader or the audience was counted, the frequency of these expressions was found to be similar in each paper. An explicit mention of the reader was rare but was found in his earliest paper Wonnacott 1986 with the word '*students*'. Moreover, each paper seemed to convey the message that Professor Wonnacott would not cover the whole aspect of the subject matter.

Sample texts

(Wonnacott 1986): There is not the space in this article to do justice to the full debate between the industry and the environmentalists, so students seeking further reading should refer to Williams (1974), Hardy (1978) and Everson and Hardy's critique of the Windscale Inquiry and subsequent Report by its Inspector Mr (now Lord) Justice Potter in 1978.

(Wonnacott 2004): Accordingly, this article will discuss the notion of Europeanisation and then place it within the broader context of analysis. There then follows a section that reviews change and modernisation at EU level, linking this to changes at national level and sub-national level, before concluding with some general observations.

(Wonnacott 2010): Clearly the word limit for an article this size precludes such a comprehensive analysis, but the article argues for the need to locate both policy formulation (by decision makers) and policy analysis (by academics) within a narrative informed by the theoretical and practical context in which it is situated.

5.3 Academic convention

Based on the textual analysis, there were many instances of passive structure without an agent. However, the agent in the active structure sentence tended to

be generic and plural (such as *'the radicals'* and *'analysts'*). The word *'argue'* was usually found in the active form and the passive *'it is argued'* was rarely found. There was no instance of *'I argue'*. As for giving action to inanimate objects, this was done either with the word *'article'* or the idea such as *'neo-functionalism'*. With regard to modal verbs, the weaker forms *'could'* and *'would'* tended to be used in succession and in relation to each other. However, the weaker form *'might'* was found only once in all five texts. In other words, the stronger form *'may'* was mostly evident.

Sample texts

[Active and passive forms]

(Wonnacott 1986): The radicals argue that the role of nuclear power is, therefore, that of an industrial discipliner.

(Wonnacott 1995): As such it is clearly a sub-set of the postbureaucratic reform paradigm, as outlined above. In Britain, it is argued here, this has led to a more complex web of accountabilities.

(Wonnacott 2004): It is a process that impacts upon members of the European Union (EU) and those aspiring to join, as well as other states that may be said to be affected by what some analysts have argued amounts to a form of international socialisation (Brummel, 2000).

[Using action verb with inanimate object]

(Wonnacott 1999): This article aims to demonstrate, using the case study of CAP, the need to maintain a place for a heuristic approach to analysis. It also seeks to provide an example of a successful EU policy and draw lessons from it on ways to structure similarly arcane and highly technical projects. Finally, the article demonstrates how the changing context of a policy as it proceeds through the policy cycle, necessitates a flexible approach to understanding the complexities of political and practitioner accountability and control.

(Wonnacott 2004): Neo-functionalism adopts an abstract conception of politics and sees it as an inherently conflictual process in terms of allocating values in the community.

[Use of modals such as 'would', 'will', 'could', 'can', 'may', 'might']

(Wonnacott 1986): Ideological charges are therefore ones that the industry would not and could not refute, such a debate belonging to the broader polarity of society.

(Wonnacott 1999): The European Union's CAP project is now more than twenty years old. ... It has, as its primary aim, the job of preparing for the development of a fusion reactor and ultimately nuclear fusion fuelled electricity-generating power stations. It

is believed this will utilise an almost limitless source of allegedly cheap power.

(Wonnacott 1999): The scientists and their allies in the Commission, therefore, sought an organisational, managerial and budgetary framework within which to insulate their work from short-term political considerations. If they could secure such a structure, through an agreement to fund a Common research policy, they could then use the built-in inertia of the Community's tortuous policy-making structures to insulate themselves from short term political considerations, or budget cuts. Thus, they would attain autonomy, ...

(Wonnacott 2010): As a known (honest) entity Bodho was an indicator as to how the privatization might proceed.

(Wonnacott 2010): Furthermore, this perspective recognizes the expansion and strengthening of the private sector especially those NGOs and international corporations engaged in performing a role in the delivery of previously government-owned and run services; it may be argued from this that government and governance should be viewed as being multi-levelled (Wonnacott, 2005, p. 6). It also suggests that governments may be captured or controlled by those private interests in certain policy areas, and it is this that presents problems globally, but especially in Africa.

5.2.4. Professor Woodworth and Identity in Writing over Time

1. Referencing

Professor Woodworth's use of references and others' words in her five sample papers is shown in the table below:

Table 5.7 Evidentials in Professor Woodworth writing over time

Feature	Woodworth 1996	Woodworth 2004	Woodworth 2010 (Fair)	Woodworth 2010 (Shap)	Woodworth 2012
References per 1,000 words	11.87	15.19	11.32	9.90	24.79
Long quotes (or quotes as paragraph)	3	2	19	7	4
Short quotes	25	7	12	16	14

It seems that the number of cited works in each paper varied. The two papers in 2010 (Woodworth 2010:Fair and Woodworth 2010:Shaping) contained the lowest frequency of cited works per 1,000 words. Her most recent one Woodwoth 2012 (a theoretical paper) contained the highest frequency.

In all five papers, there were more short quotes inserted in the main paragraph than long quotes (i.e., quotes which stand alone as a paragraph). Still, an exception was found in Woodworth 2010:Fair (a review article) where there were many more quotes as paragraphs than any other papers.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Search engines are powerful tools. While Internet service providers (ISPs) may be the gatekeepers to the Internet,² search engines make accessible the content of the Internet.³ It is said that 80 per cent of Internet users who are searching for a specific site will start their search using a search engine.⁴ A meaningful use of the Internet without search engines is therefore virtually impossible.⁵

² See ch 1.

³ Search Engines have also been described as the gatekeepers of public communication. See W Schulz, T Held and A Laudien, 'Search Engines as Gatekeepers of Public Communication: Analysis of the German Framework Applicable to Internet Search Engines Including Media Law and Anti Trust Law' (2005) 6(10) German Law Journal 1419.

4 L Otterwell and D Bray, 'Search for Answers—Search Engine Functionality and Infringement Concerns' [2005] Copyright World 154.

5 German Federal Court of Justice, I ZR 259/00, 17 July 2003, 'Paperboy'

2. Getting message across

According to the frequency count, the number of these expressions was similar in four of the five papers, or around 10 uses per 1,000 words. In Woodworth 2012 (her theory piece), however, the frequency of these expressions was one third higher or around 16 uses per 1,000 words, when compared to her earliest paper Woodworth 1996 (her review article).

In all five papers, no matter what genres these papers belonged to, there were found to be many uses of 'such as' and 'or' to explain words or concepts to her readers as well as the use of parentheses to add comments. The expression 'i.e.' was frequent in all papers except for her solely-authored paper Woodworth 2010: Shaping (her theory piece) in which it was not found. The word 'say' was frequent in Woodworth 1996 but was not found in other works.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 1996): The psychological experience of posting a message to a bulletin board (say) is very different from that of publishing in conventional print-bound media.

(Woodworth 1996): E-mail especially tends to combine intimacy, lack of forethought and lack of personal cues (such as voice tone and eye contact) in a dangerously defamation-prone combination.

(Woodworth 2004): This paper considers the aspect of copyright in the light of the so-called "digital (or internet) revolution" of the last twenty years,

(Woodworth 2010 Fair): Despite the pressing questions over the current state and role of the law ..., it is perhaps too early (and indeed undesirable at this stage) for regulators to step in ..., particularly as the regulators themselves are unclear as to the underlying rationales ...

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Disputes have arisen between search engines and the content owners (such as the entertainment company, the publisher, the author) in which the law has been applied at times hesitantly, at others bullishly, to the business followed, and the technology deployed, by the search engine.

(Woodworth 2012): These are all socially and legally important questions with which this article engages while focusing more squarely on the questions of how technologies aid the disabled (specifically the blind) in accessing culture (specifically books), and how the law helps or hinders that access.

3. Argumentation

According to the textual analysis of conjunctions, adverbs and expressions for text flow or for argumentation in Professor Woodworth's writing, the type with the highest frequency per 1,000 words belonged to the category of addition (such as *'and'*, *'in addition'*) with the frequency of around 3.7 uses per 1,000 words. This was followed by the categories of (a) contrast (such as *'but'*, *'however'*) with a similarly high frequency, (b) cause-effect (such as *'as a result'*, *'because'*) and (c) concession (such as *'although'*, *'despite'*). The latter two were used with lower frequency. The category of comparison (such as *'likewise'*, *'in the same vein'*) was extremely low (i.e., 1 use per 5,000 words).

Sample texts

(Woodworth 2004): The key point was that, by contrast with the analogue world in which, although copying was easy, the copy was invariably less good than the original, the digital work would always copy perfectly. The digital downloader would get as good a version as the master copy on the original site--and would get it increasingly easily and quickly as the digital technology moved on. The internet thus provided a tremendous new way to reach consumers in the comfort of their own homes. But the difficulty also facing those minded to exploit these opportunities was precisely the ease and speed of digital copying.

(Woodworth 2004): The paper thus concludes by suggesting that there are now at least three major questions of policy and fact requiring further investigation. How is policy for digital dissemination being interpreted in sectors not concerned with entertainment (for example, education and research, and supporting industries such as libraries and archives; i.e. how are producers exercising their rights here)? What impact is that having on the digital delivery of content by publishers and other suppliers to the education/research sector? Is the policy followed in recent reforms of copyright and related areas of law suitable for digital dissemination of works in those sectors outside the entertainment industry?

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Search engines are powerful tools. While Internet service providers (ISPs) may be the gatekeepers to the Internet,² search engines make accessible the content of the Internet.³ It is said that 80 per cent of Internet users who are searching for a specific site will start their search using

a search engine.⁴ A meaningful use of the Internet without search engines is therefore virtually impossible.⁵ There is, however, the potential for harm. By controlling the accessibility of Internet content, search engines inevitably create winners and losers through the inclusion or exclusion of that content. It is vital, therefore, that a regulatory environment not only lays out a regime in which the innovative work of the search engine can flourish, but does so whilst also recognising the harms that can be inflicted on the interests of other stakeholders.

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Content will not stop being produced; content owners will not stop making available content; search engines will not stop innovating; users will not stop wanting access to content. The question is whether the regulatory environment is optimal for the future development of a balanced and orderly information marketplace in which innovation can thrive, interests of content owners be respected, and the public interest furthered.

4. Attitude expressed in academic writing

Based on the five sample texts, the frequency of expressions to signal attitude regarding the argument was slightly less frequent in the later papers.

In all five sample texts, it was found that the expressions which emphasise certainty (such as '*certainly*', '*clear*') were less frequent than the expressions which tone down certainty (such as '*might*', '*quite*'). Across Professor Woodworth's sample texts, the frequency of these confident expressions was found to be usually one third of the ones to tone down certainty, no matter what the research genres these papers were classified as.

4.1 Emphasising Certainty

The frequency of the expressions to emphasise certainty was quite low in all papers or around 4 expressions per 1,000 words.

These words '*certainly*', '*clearly*', '*no doubt*' and '*of course*' were found in many papers to emphasise the certainty and they tended to be used at the beginning of a statement.

4.2 Toning down Certainty or Casting Doubt

The frequency of expressions to tone down certainty was found to be quite high, around 12 uses per 1,000 words or three times as many as the ones to emphasise certainty. The words in this category with the highest frequency

included *'might'*, *'could'*, *'would'*, *'should'*, *'argue'* and *'certain'*. The frequency remained quite stable over time except for Woodworth 2012 which contained the lowest frequency (around one third lower).

4.3 Other kinds of attitude

Other kinds of attitude found in the five sample texts included the attitudes regarding significance (such as *'important'*, *'significant'*) and surprise (such as *'unfortunately'*, *'unsurprisingly'*). Overall, the frequency of attitude expression was found to be quite low over time. The expressions for significance were found with a higher frequency only in her earliest paper Woodworth 1996 in which she problematized the issue of libel.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 1996): Should the traditional law of libel apply to the Internet? Should the Internet not be exploited in an unregulated atmosphere? On the one hand, the argument, in its broadest sense, is that the Internet has grown and expanded because of the enthusiasm of its users. Any form of formal regulation would stifle its vibrance and utility. Regulation should lie with the creators and users, and not faceless bureaucrats. Anyone wishing to 'play' on the Internet should be prepared to accept the rules and behaviour that have been created with it.[18] On the other hand, there are those (the 'new-style' Internet users) who argue that the laws applying to the Internet should be the same (or similar) as for any other equivalent medium, notably traditional hard copy publishing. Growth of the Internet will not be encouraged by the lack of intervention and regulation. Rather, lack of intervention may lead to underuse of the potential of the Internet because only a few can accept its at times anarchic content and unknown legal risks. There are even those who argue that, because of the ease with which information can be disseminated and reputation ruined on the Internet, a fortiori there should be increased penalties for those who use and hide behind the anonymity of the medium to ruin the reputation of others? Such commentators regard the Internet as a serious site of commerce and interaction, not a playground.

This debate creates uncertainty and risk for all 'players'. Does the law of libel apply, and if so, to whom?

(Woodworth 2012): For example, consider height, or rather shortness. This is a physiologically-based human variation which might have some impairing consequences, but which has been constructed as a disability ... The hormone manufacturer Genentech claimed that the shortest 3% of the population should be

treated. Of course, such claims shift to the variation-bearer the burden of responding to the societal discrimination used to justify the treatment, and also to entrench and regularise a potential (permanent) client base. Unfortunately, for the impaired person:

The only group that clearly doesn't gain from the medicalisation of social difference is its targets. In the 1998 the ... Lancet reported that "short children whose height was increased by two to three inches ... received no psychological benefits".

5. Being an academic author

Three main issues were explored here as to how Professor Woodworth made her presence visible in her papers, how she addressed her readers for engagement and how academic conventions had influenced her writing.

5.1 Authorial Presence

Based on these sample texts, there was no instance of 'I' in any paper and 'we' was found in all papers except for Woodworth 2010:Fair (her review article). The first person plural forms 'we' and 'our' were used even in single-authored papers (i.e., the Woodworth 2010:Shaping). It was also found that her most recent paper Woodworth 2012 contained the highest frequency of 'we' because the word 'we' was repeated many times in the same paragraph. However, her earliest paper Woodworth 1996 contained a much higher frequency of 'our' than 'we'.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 1996; multiple-authored): Our aim is to ... Our strategy, therefore, is first to ... In our scenario, ... The issue is very relevant to our example.

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping; single-authored): So what trends do we see so far? ... So once again we see differences in the application of the laws of the US and UK ... Here we see the court regulating activity by copyright ... We turn now to a different project in which Google is engaged

(Woodworth 2012; multiple-authored): Below, we map recent efforts to use technology to increase access to the written word by the blind. We then consider the legal framework, focusing on human rights law, which endeavours to protect all people equally, as it interacts with copyright law. We argue that, with one notable exception, this framework is very much designed by and for the sighted with limited regard for the interests or inclusion of the unsighted or partially sighted.

5.2 Addressing readers and interacting with the audience

According to the textual analysis in which the frequency of expressions to denote engagement with the reader or the audience was counted, the frequency of these expressions was found to be similar in each paper. The word 'question(s)' was evident in all five papers as well as expressions for attention such as 'consider', 'regard', 'describe' and 'note'.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 2010 Fair): These figures can be interpreted in two ways. On the one hand, it could be argued that by allowing competitors to bid on trade marks, consumers are faced with more choice as to websites to visit, and they take up that opportunity. On the other hand, it could be suggested that sponsored links are confusing and that consumers are diverted to competitors' sites although they expect the trade mark owner's

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): One might argue that the link to the cached page is only provided to the single user who initiates a search, and does thus not fall under this provision.

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Another question may be as to whether the cached webpages are really temporary.³⁷ Google stores the webpages in its cache at present for approximately 14-20 days.³⁸ Although this has been regarded as temporary in US law,³⁹ the same result may not be arrived at under the CDPA. It has been described as a 'moot point' whether proxy server caching by universities, libraries and others to avoid congestion could fall under the temporary reproduction section.⁴⁰ But there are other difficulties. Providing access to cached webpages is unlikely to be considered a technological necessity. It is rather an end in itself, offering the user who searches the Internet an additional service.⁴¹

5.3 Academic convention

Based on the textual analysis, there were many instances of passive structure although it could be written in an active voice. To illustrate, the word 'describe' which signalled engagement with the reader was more frequent in its passive form: '*libel has been described as ...*' rather than '*Prosser describes libel as ...*' Moreover, her single-authored paper Woodworth 2010:Shaping (her theoretical paper) contained the highest frequency of passive structure. The use

of action verbs with an inanimate object was found with the terms 'article' and 'paper'. With regard to modal verbs, there were many instances of weak forms (such as 'would' and 'might') in use with another word of uncertainty or hedge (such as 'appear' and 'seem').

Sample texts

[Passive form]

(Woodworth 1996): This distinction is also relevant in the United States, where libel has been described as 'the embodiment of the defamation in some more or less permanent physical form', whereas slander is more transitory.

[Using action verb with inanimate object]

(Woodworth 2004): This paper considers the aspect of copyright in the light of the so-called "digital (or internet) revolution" of the last 20 years, and raises some issues about the current and future shape of the law which seem to require further examination and reflection. In particular, it argues that much of the reform of copyright law ... has been motivated by the concerns of what we call the "entertainment industry" ...

(Woodworth 2012): These are all socially and legally important questions with which this article engages while focusing more squarely on the questions of how technologies aid the disabled (specifically the blind) in accessing culture (specifically books), and how the law helps or hinders that access.

[Use of modals such as 'would', 'will', 'could', 'can', 'may', 'might']

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): One might be tempted to argue that the lawful use is that of the user finding the link to the page, it being lawful for the user to call up the webpage. However, it would appear that this is not the 'work' for the purposes of this exception. The work is rather the one that has been cached and is used to produce the index. Moreover, it is difficult to argue that the cached copy has no independent economic significance. Search engine functionality depends upon the cache and it thus lies at the heart of the search engine business model. It would seem that this exception is not relevant to the caching process.

5.3. Summary

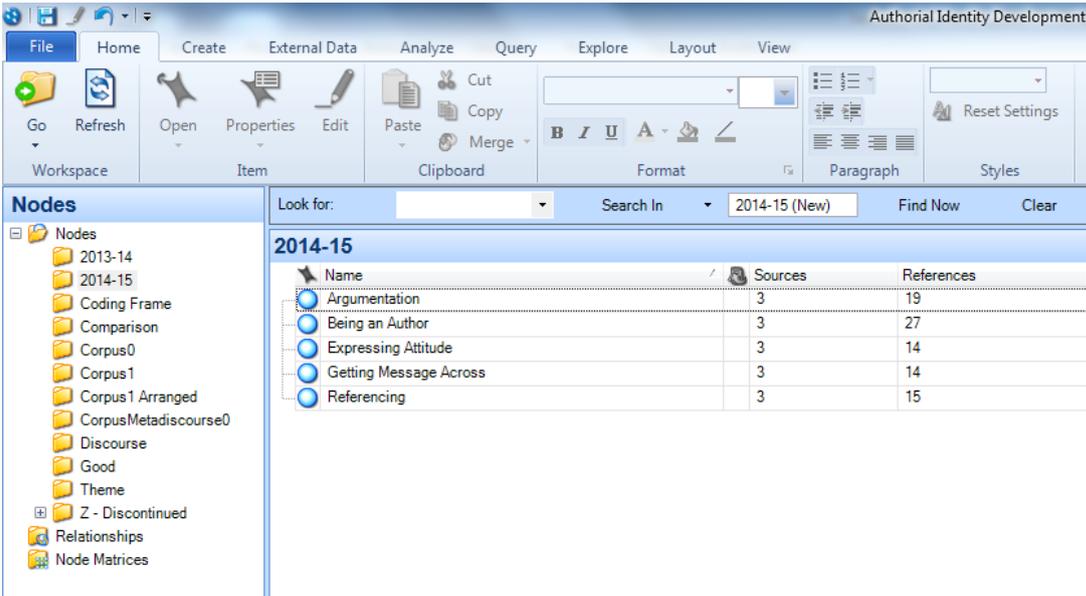
In this chapter, I have presented the textual findings from the second phase of my research which involved the textual dimension of authorial identity in academic writing. In the first part, I gave an overview of the textual analysis of each professor participant writing without the timescale which indicated several distinctive features. However, the main focus of this phase was on the developmental pathway of the professor participants' identity in their writing over time. Therefore, I showed how the textual analysis with the timescale had indicated the changes in the use of metadiscourse markers, signalling the key features regarding the textual dimension of authorial identity. Some changes in the key features such as the higher use of evidentials in recent writing were evident in all professor participants' writing whereas other key features such as attitude expressions in academic publication varied from one professor participant to another. In the second part, I presented these key features along with the extracts taken from each professor participant's sample texts to highlight these changes which had formed the basis for my textual reports to be sent to the professor participants so that they would reflect on these changes in the third phase of this research. In the next chapter, I present the reflections given by the professor participants on these key features in their writing.

Chapter 6. Professors' Reflection on Textual Analysis

In this chapter, I present the findings from the third phase in which I conducted a second interview with the three professor participants to answer the third research sub-question as to how they reflect on and make sense of the findings from the textual analysis of their writing. The professor participants were given the textual reports (see Appendix F: An Example of Textual Report) and then they reflected on the textual analysis.

The findings in this phase were intended to enrich the textual dimension of authorial identity which was presented in the previous chapter regarding the issues of writing as a social activity and why a certain way of writing is preferred or chosen by the professor participants. The professor participants' accounts give an insight into how their research community and their readers (including both potential and actual reviewers) have had an effect on the development of authorial identity in their early and recent papers.

I use the five themes derived from the textual analysis to code the data and to present the findings in this chapter. These are: referencing, getting message across, argumentation, expressing attitude and being an academic author.



2014-15		
Name	Sources	References
Argumentation	3	19
Being an Author	3	27
Expressing Attitude	3	14
Getting Message Across	3	14
Referencing	3	15

Figure 6.1 A screenshot of the five codes for the second interview analysis

Before I present the findings, I will discuss here how the professor participants responded to my textual report of their academic papers in the second interview session. (I sent each of them their own individual report so that they had time to read through and think about it before the second interview and they did not comment on the report in the email correspondence before we met for the second interview).

When asked to comment on the textual report, all three professor participants found the textual report 'interesting' because it was different from what they did in their discipline. All three used the term '*exercise*' with this analysis, for example, Professor Woodworth said: 'this is not a sort of exercise that I've been through before'. Professor Wonnacott said that this analysis was 'a fascinating exercise' and he was glad to see two papers from his early years in academia because he did not have them and these two papers were retrieved from inter-library loans. He added that the textual report was well-explained.

Professor Bracton said that she loved the poster (Appendix E) and the report (Appendix F). As regards the textual findings, she said from earlier on in the interview that she was at a loss in many instances because there were many issues raised in the report which she did not expect, such as the fewer references in her second and third papers and the high use of contrast markers. She added that it was 'weird' for people like her to be assessed like this although she found the linguistic analysis 'interesting'.

Because this textual analysis was not a kind of exercise which all three professor participants were familiar with, it seemed that they wanted me to take them through, telling them what I thought and pulled out of the data instead of giving me comments without any prompts. Therefore, I proceeded from the first till the last sections of the textual report with them. During the interview, however, Professor Bracton said that her 'brain' hurt and near the end of the interview, she said:

My brain hurts again. Don't make everybody do it. (Professor Bracton)

To sum up, the professor participants gave three kinds of response to the textual analysis report as in (a) positive responses; (b) bewilderment; and (c) negative comments. They liked the report and found it interesting. They also loved to see their 'lost' early manuscripts. However, they were bewildered by

the textual findings because they did not anticipate some of the findings and they never thought that their papers would have been analysed in this manner. Due to their unfamiliarity with the textual analysis, they were intimidated by some parts of the report, telling me that their brain hurt and that this 'exercise' might not be a good idea for every professor.

Presumably, the professor participants' feedback regarding the textual report is insightful in two ways. First, their bewilderment means that the textual report has allowed them to exercise their reflexivity. The professor participants seem to have been writing their academic papers according to their own understanding and some of the textual findings made them to look back and to question their own understanding. In other words, they might not always think about what and how they say in their papers and the textual report seems to encourage their reflexivity and to make the invisible visible for them. Second, the professor participants' feedback has allowed me to think about my research paradigm. Although I tried not to lead the professor participants into my interpretation of the findings, they were quite willing to be guided by the 'discourse' of this linguistic 'exercise' and asked me to take them through probably because they viewed me as a person with more familiarity with this approach. By sharing the textual findings with them, I was then able to engage with them and to allow them to express their disagreement. In this way, I have co-constructed my knowledge of social reality with them to enhance our understanding of their identity development in their papers (their textual dimension).

I shall now present the findings from the second interview in the same order as the textual report with five main topics as follows: Referencing, Getting the message across, Argumentation, Expressing attitude and Being an academic author.

6.1. Referencing

The textual analysis in the second phase suggested that although the number of references varied from one paper to another, the recent papers of all three professor participants (within the last 4 years) had a much higher number of references per 1,000 words compared to the earliest ones (12+ years earlier).

The data analysis of the professor participants' reflection on their referencing practices in the third phase suggests that the change in the frequency of references in their papers is influenced by the type of research the professor participants conduct, their collaboration with their co-authors as well as the research community and the different functions of citation in their works.

Professor Wonnacott explained that his early works were more directly involved with 'original data' derived from his own series of research projects; hence, a fewer number of references in his data-based journal articles. By contrast, his recent works were less 'original' (they were theory articles) although there is originality in them because he had conducted fewer research projects due to his management role for over 10 years and as such he had to reference a lot more works in the field than was previously the case.

Professor Woodworth gave various reasons as to why her recent papers contained more references. One reason was that her last paper in 2012 was co-written by two more authors and each of them worked from different areas of research. Therefore, all three authors (including Professor Woodworth herself) brought their own references into the body of work. Another reason was that back in 1996 she did not know as much as she knows now. Moreover, back in 1996 there was not much work done in her area but nowadays there are more research studies about her research area, allowing her to read more, know more and consider more about the issues she is currently researching.

Professor Bracton expressed her surprise towards the findings because her instinct told her that a paper with more arguments or a theoretical paper tends to have fewer references but it was not the case with her papers. Although her most recent paper in 2012 was categorised as a data-based article because of interview scripts, it contained many theoretical arguments as well as the highest frequency of references, much to her surprise. She explained that although her earliest paper in 1981 (her theory piece about the definitions of certain legal terms) contained quite a high frequency of references, it did not have the same function as the most recent one because her 1981 paper was aimed at verifying the sources whereas in her 2012 paper, there were 'many arguments flying around' so she had to cite a lot of references.

Besides references, quotes are also integral to referencing in academic papers. The professor participants suggest that their use of quotes can vary from one

paper to another. In some cases, quotes are used for verification or picked out for their flaws so that a stronger argument can be achieved. In others, quotes are used sparingly only to point out their relevance to the professor participants' argument.

In Professor Bracton's case, the textual analysis has suggested that her 1981 paper contained a high frequency of the word '*cite*' and '*definition*' and she explained that this was because her 1981 paper was aimed at checking sources used by other scholars in order to make an argument that they cited the sources 'in the wrong place or wrongly in some way':

It's because in the 1981 paper we were saying that the accepted view of the law was wrong. That everyone was talking about one thing and actually it wasn't. So in attacking the accepted view, we're looking at the sources used by the people promoting the accepted view. So, [Smith] said that this is the law but actually he completely misunderstood the sources he's using. So, looking at his references, we then looked at those sources and said that's not what it said at all. It said something else. So, that might explain why the word '*cite*' crop up a lot that the authors citing these things and they're citing them in the wrong place or wrongly in some way. That's the gist of what we're trying to say. It's other people's referencing we're arguing about and complaining about rather than just say this is my position. (Professor Bracton)

As for Professor Woodworth, she said that when she was the single author, she tended to 'use the quotes more sparingly' because with an overly long quote, her argument would not make much of a contribution. She would use quotes to highlight or illustrate her points when they were relevant and important for the argument.

In terms of the outlet or where the professor participants publish their articles in relation to referencing, it seems to affect the professor participant in politics but not the professor participants in law. Professor Wonnacott said that word limit set by the journal could affect the number of his references used in his paper because when there was a strict word limit, he would reduce the number of sources so that he could write more (probably as shown in his relatively shorter pieces in 1986 and 1999 with a much lower frequency of evidentials). With a longer piece of writing, he would put the references that were necessary to properly reference and to place the article in its context.

As for referencing in law publications, several academic papers in law in this study exceeded 10,000 words (including footnotes), suggesting one disciplinary difference between law and politics in that law papers use footnotes rather than reference lists. Further, each footnote usually contains many sources of reference. Professor Bracton suggested that citation in law cannot be 'numeric'. There is neither a right nor balanced amount of references in law publications. They are very 'reference-heavy' due to the double obligation of citing legal sources, namely a decided case or an Act of Parliament, along with other authors who also had their own legal sources.

Another feature of the footnote is that legal authors can add their comments there. Professor Bracton suggested that many law academics added the comment '*this is not the case*' with their explanation along with citations of other sources to suggest another viewpoint in their footnote. However, Professor Woodworth recounted how one of her colleagues was very strict with her by reading through all her footnotes and taking those comments out to avoid her bringing in new arguments. Therefore, she would make her footnote as short as possible although there might be many sources of reference in one footnote. By using footnotes, both professor participants in law allowed their readers to locate the sources of their argument in the main body of text in order to judge their relevance and validity.

In sum, referencing seems to play a role in the development of the professor participants' academic scholarship in that the lower frequency of references in early papers signals the frequent use of original data to formulate an argument whereas the higher frequency in their recent papers is closely identified with their increased knowledge and scholarship of the subject matter, their collaboration with their co-authors and their use of other works to formulate a stronger argument. Although some early works contained many citations, their function was mainly to verify the sources or to point out their flaw.

6.2. Getting message across

The textual analysis of the sample texts in the second phase suggested that the frequency of expressions to give comments or to explain complex concepts (i.e., code glosses) remained quite stable for Professor Wonnacott and Professor Woodworth although the frequency varied in their fifth papers. The

exception was Professor Bracton whose frequency of these expressions in recent papers was much lower than in early papers.

The data analysis of the second interview based on this theme suggests that giving comments and providing more explanations signal the professor participants' emphasis on the research issue. However, the data analysis also suggests that the change in the frequency of these explanatory remarks signals the professor participants' relationship with their readership and the criteria to judge the quality of academic papers.

Both Professor Wonnacott and Professor Woodworth acknowledged the significance of using expressions to explain and give comments in their papers. Professor Wonnacott said that it is important in his field to always show the relevance of the work for the real world and to highlight the key point for the policymakers. Among his five sample texts, the word '*indeed*' came up with a high frequency and he explained that:

when I use '*indeed*', it's for emphasis. The second quote down: '*democratic deficit, indeed democratic façade*'. What I'm trying to say is: '*Look, it's a lie. They're telling you something that isn't there.*' So, the word '*indeed*' is an emphasis. And again, the third one down, you've got '*institutions are changed ..., indeed some are created ...*' It's an emphasis. That's what I'm trying to show. These changes in the European Commission not only influences, they actually causes it. So, again, it's the way to get message across. (Professor Wonnacott)

Professor Woodworth explained that she would explain an issue which she believed to be a little bit more complicated for her readers. She would also use parentheses to stress a point. Although the frequency in her works remained quite stable, her most recent paper in 2012 (her theory piece) contained one third more of these expressions compared to four earlier works and she thought that this was a 'co-author thing', and it was evident in the different preferences over this kind of expression in all her sample texts. For example, she said that in the 1996 review article the frequent use of the word '*say*' is her co-author's expression because she would use '*such as*' to give an example. Moreover, the textual analysis showed that the expression '*i.e.*' is not evident in her single-authored paper. However, her fifth paper in 2012 with three authors contained both '*such as*' (her preference) and '*i.e.*' (her co-author's preference) with a

similar frequency. As regards this co-authoring aspect, Professor Woodworth gave the following remark:

Three of us come in and the ultimate paper actually represents message incredibly well, stylistically and substantively, although it's quite relatively clear that if we take apart, we will know where our expertise comes in but stylistically, I think it represents us. But we did have one of the authors who goes through the thing at the end of the day to make sure that stylistically it works. So maybe you're seeing there the impact of that author who works on it. (Professor Woodworth)

Professor Bracton, whose recent papers contained a much lower frequency of code gloss, immediately concluded upon the reflection of the findings that she did not 'explain herself' anymore due to these two reasons: her readership and the REF.

As regards her readership, Professor Bracton said that as a journal editor, she usually received papers written by postgraduate students or recent PhD holders with a lot of descriptive information and she had to tell them to remove these bits from their papers in order to make it shorter and readable. She explained that the readers who subscribed to her edited journal were usually really interested in the subject matter and they knew all about it. She said that 'if it's a knowledgeable readership, you would explain less'. Her remark was that her readers had to keep up with the paper because if they did not understand it, they should not be reading it. Alternatively, readers might go to footnotes and find out more about the issues. The two other professor participants also believed that their audience is knowledgeable. Instead of explaining all the points they made, they usually emphasised the key points and pointed to other works in case their readers would like to know more.

As regards the REF, Professor Bracton was told over and over again by the expert panel in the REF that to get the top band in the REF, she needed to avoid description in her works and she needed to put signposts earlier on in her papers so that her readers would know what is the issue, what she is going to show them, and what they are going to find out. Professor Bracton perceived the whole style of recent academic publication to be 'anti-explanation'; otherwise, it would give the impression that she was just repeating what everybody else had already known and they would see it as 'pure description' which means that her paper was not original.

The findings have suggested that although explanatory comments can signal the significance of the research issue at hand in relation to the real world, academic papers with a high frequency of explanatory comments might be underappreciated among a knowledgeable readership. Moreover, such papers are usually judged as being of a lower quality because the panel of reviewers cannot see an original contribution from such explanatory statements. Therefore, the evaluation of the reader's knowledge of the subject matter is important for the professor participants to judge whether their statement requires further explanation or mere emphasis. As a consequence, there is a perception that anti-explanatory papers rank higher in terms of research quality. This perception might identify with the professor participants' accounts in Phase 1 regarding the way the professor participants have changed their recent writing to live up to the current standards of the research community and the criteria set by the research panel who evaluate their papers.

6.3. Argumentation

In the report of the textual analysis regarding argumentation, the statistical findings were based on transition markers, i.e. conjuncts and adverbials which link several sentences into a whole paragraph. Generally, addition and contrast markers appeared to be quite high among the sample texts. During the second interview, all three professor participants said that they never thought about the use of these transition markers and they found the findings interesting.

According to the analysis of the second interview, all three professor participants shared the same view that their discipline is mainly of an argumentative nature or involving two sides of the argument. Argumentation is an exercise of persuasion but each professor participant tended to express a specific preference when they crafted an argument in their paper. Therefore, argumentation can be manifested in different ways. It might be used to prove or disprove a point or to show a caveat in the subject matter which the professor participants dealt with.

Professor Wonnicott contended that he would argue to disprove a point. He would first come up with a hypothesis and a few questions although he would not express them explicitly. Then, he would try to show that there were different interpretations based on the evidence from one side or the other but he would

always try to show the stronger argument so that he would not be accused of putting up something that is easy to knock down. In other words, he followed the Socratic tradition of argument:

With the Socratic tradition of argument which is a series of questions, if A equals B, B equals C, how do you get to the conclusion? It is a basis of quantitative methodology asking questions. How many? How much? Is there is a connection? Is it causal? How can you find the evidence? And our argument is often set up in order to find the truth. And again, I've got legal training in this country, and the legal system is set up with two opposing sides and they argue. So, you put forward a case and then it is the duty of the other side to test the case with the most rigorous examination with interpretation and re-interpretation as you possibly can. And I think that is a very useful way of dealing with things. So, I often look at the data and in my own head and in my paper, I put up a case. And then I step outside. How do we demolish that case? Where is wrong? So, you can argue within the paper in those ways and I think that is a very good way of trying to understand. You might not always come to the final conclusion. You can't always prove something but you can often disprove something. And I think that's very useful. (Professor Wonnacott)

As for Professor Woodworth, she said that lawyers always argue with themselves to make a point. She would look at two sides of the argument: 'the argument for' and 'the argument against'. When she used '*in addition*', she wanted to make the argument a bit stronger and with '*but*' or '*however*', it was the argument that she had to deal with although it was not the point that she actually agreed with. In other words, she explained that the reason why expressions like '*in addition*' came out more regularly was because she was trying to strengthen her argument to deliver the answer to the question she started off with:

I start off with a question about something or I become passionate about something and I want to prove a point or I want to use the law in order to reach a particular goal, possibly. So, my question is, one of the question that I'm dealing with at the moment is we need to develop [a policy] So how do we do that? So, that's my question and so I look at the law and the regulations provided by the law and in particular, I look at particular ways and I take all of this and I put all together in order to craft my argument that says we need to [have a policy] if we are to, well, at the end of the day, my issue is, if we are to [solve the issue] So, that's how we do it. I start with a question and then I deliver the answer. Well, deliver the answer. (Professor Woodworth)

Professor Bracton, upon reflection on the textual analysis of her writing whose findings indicated a slightly higher frequency of contrast than addition, believes that this frequent use of contrast is common in any other legal text because it is associated with the structure of law itself where there is always a 'caveat'. She explained that instinctively she would try to avoid using *'however'* in her work because it is very annoying but after looking at the textual findings she seemed to come to the conclusion that actually *'however'* is the core of legal argument:

It's kind of associated with the structure of law itself because there's always a caveat, isn't there? ... There are very few rules that are absolute. If we just say, 'it's the rule', [and then ask a question] 'Is it the rule that you can't kill anybody?' –'Well, no, it's never quite as simple as that.' There's always 'however', 'although', of course, if you were the army, or if you were defending yourself. So, there's always the possibility of exception or non-application in some way. Part of the issue that is built into your head is that you should never ever be too categorical because if you say anything categorical, you just look stupid ... When I say 'you can't murder people', before you start to say, 'Ah, well, what about this and what about that?' I would say, 'Well, now, in general, you can't kill people but, on the other hand, or nevertheless' So, I try to pre-empt you from challenging me. So, I will qualify as far as I can. That's part of it. It's the way rules are formulated. There's always going to be a sort of 'get-out' at some point. Otherwise, it's too rigid. (Professor Bracton)

Argumentation, therefore, can also be used as a way to explore and 'get out' of a situation where there is no clear definition. Professor Bracton would always look for that 'maybe' possibility to get an understanding of how the legislation worked. Similarly, Professor Woodworth mentioned this nature of law during the second interview when she said, 'law is very seldom black and white'. Therefore, Professor Woodworth would always push at the edge of the argument by asking questions *'What if?' 'What if?' 'What if?'* The facts in one particular scenario might be different somewhere else. Although Professor Woodworth might not argue for or against the legal matters explicitly in some of her papers (the 1996 one on libel and the 2010 one on fair trade), she problematized the case with her review of other studies alongside her questions at the end of her papers. However, Professor Bracton did not just ask questions but instead she would persuade herself to argue for the opposite of what everybody else said. Recently she watched a film called 'The History Boys' and there was one point in the film which resonated with her A-level experience and

her argumentation in the 1981 paper which she wrote during her early career. In this film, there were boys who had done very well in A-level and their school would like them to do the Oxbridge entrance. So, the head teacher imported a new master specifically to coach them for the examination and in this particular scenario it was a history examination:

This master says, 'Whatever the accepted view is, argue the opposite. Because you know the Oxbridge colleges have heard this, the causes of the First World War, they are bored to tears. Say that isn't the cause of the First World War; it's something else. And if you could produce a plausible argument out of that, they will think you're a quality candidate'. That's how I worked at school. I say the opposite of what everybody else says because I knew I'd get more marks if I did. And there, of course the 1981 article, that's exactly what we did. They're all gonna say 'The House of Lords was wrong', let's say 'why?' So, we wrote this article saying the House of Lords is right and showed what was wrong with the sources cited. And then of course, we never know what will happen and half way through, 'My god! The House of Lords was right'. You know you persuade yourself. So, in the end we genuinely thought it but initially it's a cynical exercise to be different. (Professor Bracton)

In this way, Professor Bracton usually used argumentation as a way to differentiate from the traditional view of the subject matter. Her view was that the opposite view of the argument, if made plausible, would attract the attention of readers and the readers would consider the writer to be a quality writer.

In sum, argumentation is often successfully achieved through the interplay between 'the argument for' and 'the argument against' to show two sides of the argument, or the contrasting viewpoints about the subject matter. The professor participants might have a specific preference about the purpose of their argumentation but they suggest that argumentation is not just for making arguments. Argumentation can become an approach to explore a grey area of the subject matter to push at the edge of the current debate in the research community and, as such, it marks the professor participants as academic scholars of high calibre. These accounts signal the fact that the professor participants treat their writing as part of a wider dialogue in their research community. Academic papers become their recorded public utterances. Moreover, the quality of their papers is perceived to be closely linked with the quality of their academic scholarship.

6.4. Expressing attitude

The theme of attitude in this study includes three metadiscourse categories as in boosters, hedges and attitude markers. When the findings were presented to the professor participants, these terms were replaced with simpler terms to avoid unusual or unfamiliar terminology. Therefore, boosters and hedges were presented as expressions to boost certainty and expressions to tone down certainty in their statement, respectively.

The data analysis of the professor participants' reflection during the second interview suggests that certain attitudes are acceptable in academic publication but the professor participants often relate these attitudes to their evidence. They are also cautious of the effect which these attitude expressions can have in relation to their role as academics and their audience.

As regards the group of hedges and attitude markers, Professor Wonnicott's sample texts indicated the lowest frequency in comparison to the other two professor participants. He explained in the second interview that he would always let the evidence speak for itself. His use of hedges signalled his suspicion towards the argument which he could not prove. When he found evidence to support the argument, however, he felt comfortable to boost his statement. He also felt delighted with the evidence which changed his view about the subject matter because he believed that such evidence would change his readers' view like it had changed his. Therefore, almost all his papers contained the words '*clear*', '*simply*', '*demonstrate*' and '*certainly*' to indicate his confidence over the statement which was based on the evidence he drew conclusions from.

Professor Wonnicott also contended that as an academic he would not express his personal opinion. Therefore, there were no emotional attitude markers like '*undesirable*', '*unfortunately*' and '*unsurprisingly*' in his sample texts. For him, the expression '*unfortunately*' was a value-laden term and the use of it meant that he took sides. Among the five sample texts, the word '*surprising*' appeared only one time in one sample text and he contended that it was perfectly fine when the evidence led him to a conclusion which differed from the one he thought he would have although this incident was very occasional.

I could be surprised but it's not for me to say that something is unfortunate. That lens [?] put me on someone's side and I think my role as an academic and as a writer is for the most part, not take sides, here's the evidence, here's the option. If I say, 'unfortunately', then I'm taking side with someone. And I try not to do that. (Professor Wonnicot)

As for Professor Woodworth, she toned down her certainty of the argument because law is uncertain. If she wrote with certainty, nobody would believe her argument. Therefore, she adopted a persuasive approach rather than 'bashing on the head' of her readers and policy makers. The textual analysis indicated that her sample texts contained a low frequency of boosters, or indeed the lowest frequency in the expressions to boost her confidence among all three professor participants. She explained that the use of hedges was related to the fact that she was a lawyer and she needed to adopt the cautious approach—i.e. *'it appears that'*—to make a persuasive argument:

I don't like being bashed on the head and being told that 'I'm certain about this'. I would say, 'No, I don't think so and I find the argument to prove you wrong'. So, that, I think, is why you find I don't come with certainty. I come with the persuasion. (Professor Woodworth)

Still, Professor Woodworth said that with different audience in mind, she often expressed her attitude in a different way. When she wrote for policy makers or when she turned her works into policy briefs, she considered it to be fine to use the term *'important'*. When she wrote for an academic audience, however, she would keep some attitude markers like *'important'* and *'no doubt'* to a minimum because overuse of them in academic papers was not persuasive for her. Therefore, she would mould her argument to illustrate why something is important so that when her readers read her paper, she did not have to tell them that it is important because it would be obviously important after they finish reading it.

As for Professor Bracton, although her recent writings indicated a much lower frequency of boosters, she explained that she was 'just as opinionated throughout'. Without these expressions to boost up her certainty, her recent papers looked more polite and less confrontational but she said that she always has a strong view about everything and she usually gets bored with an equivocal paper which does not say anything specific. The textual analysis indicated that hedges, boosters and attitude markers were the most frequent in

the sample papers written by Professor Bracton among all three professor participants, and her average use of boosters was twice as many in comparison to the two others but she said that:

I'm sure it's correct to say you can have too much of it [= attitude] and it can come through too strongly but the lack of it can make things uninspiring because when you read it [=paper], it doesn't seem to say anything. You could have watched the telly instead. (Professor Bracton)

Nevertheless, Professor Bracton said that the concept of certainty might not always fit in her case because some of the expressions depicted in the sample texts involve the 'level of aggression' which she shows for the argument. Her message might still be the same but her tone became much softer and less confrontational as she explained when she reflected upon the use of the word 'even' in the excerpts:

What makes me laugh was the word 'even'. That would strike me as a cheat word where you try not to sound too nasty. So, 'He says that would work even when ...' which is a kind of sarcastic but you wouldn't be seen as too critical rather than just say 'Well, rubbish, it's obviously wrong' which is obvious. You can say the best advocate that I've ever heard use very gentle language in the most destructive way, 'So you're saying to me then that ... despite that ... and even though ...' so, it's bash-bash-bash without ever appearing to be aggressive. So, I suppose it's not about certainty. Some of it is about the level of aggression that you're showing. So, I think what I'm trying to say is probably the same that 'I'm right and everybody else is wrong'. I don't know. It's a matter of view but I was just wondering if actually I was trying to soften the language a little bit to make it less confrontational even though the level of certainty may be the same. However, I did try and rewrite the latest one [Bracton 2012] so that it sounded less certain or at least less horrified about whatever it was. (Professor Bracton)

In other words, a strong view is a good antidote to the '*so what?*' question for Professor Bracton although Professor Wonnicott and Professor Woodworth often let their evidence and argument speak for themselves.

On the whole, the professor participants' accounts signal their perception of legitimacy for attitude expressions. The attitudes caused by evidence, such as surprise and certainty with the evidence, are seen as preferable and more legitimate when compared to value-laden attitudes which signal the researcher's partiality. However, certainty with the argument is usually not

persuasive and it even portrays a certain level of aggression. Therefore, the expressions to tone down the certainty of the argument are frequent in their academic papers. These cautious expressions lend the quality of persuasiveness to the argument because the professor participants appear more polite and less confrontational. With the softened tone, the professor participants can deal with the arguments of others in an effective manner like the best advocate who appears less critical but maintains the same level of certainty. Therefore, it seems that expressing attitudes with a cautious approach not only signals the linguistic competence of the academic scholars to deal with others' arguments but also forms an integral part of legitimate academic discourse.

6.5. Being an academic author

In this section, there are three sub-topics as follows: displaying authorial presence, interacting with the audience and academic convention.

6.5.1. Displaying authorial presence

This subtopic involves three issues as in the use of *'I'*, the use of *'we'* and the citation of the professor participants' previous works in the main body of text.

Based on the second interview, all three professor participants contended that they almost never use the first person singular pronoun *'I'*, as clearly shown with a low frequency in all papers in the textual analysis. Professor Bracton said that she has it her head that she will not use the first person singular because it is self-promoting and pompous. Professor Wonnicott also said that he was trained as a civil servant *not* to put personal pronouns into any document because *'I'* is a bad form and only ministers can do that. He contended that as an academic he will use the *'voice of the researcher'*. As for Professor Woodworth, she never ever uses *'I'* because it is her academic and professional preference not to use the word and because it is not appropriate in her area of research. She said that the use of *'I'* is appropriate in works about regulation, ethical obligation and morality where academic writers may express their personal opinion and craft wonderful arguments with the first singular pronoun.

As for the words *'we'* and *'our'*, the textual analysis indicated that almost all uses of *'we'* and *'our'* were mainly for engagement or including the audience rather

than self-mentioning. For all three professor participants, the use of *'we'* and *'our'* is more about stylistic feature rather than personal profile.

Professor Bracton said that the word *'we'* is good in every way because it makes life a lot easier and it seems *'respectable'* just because it is not the first person singular. Although she found it stupid upon reflection to use *'we'* in some of her single-authored papers, she contended that the word *'we'* is useful when she wants to gain attention from her readers.

Using *'we'* when we include the readers has various possible consequences. You might be trying to bring them on board with your argument: *'We tend to think.'* *'You and I, we can see that this doesn't work.'* Or it may be that it means *'you'* when *'we are going to have system with the following problems'*, so it means *'you'* and you should start worrying about it. All these things are possible reasons for using *'we'*. (Professor Bracton)

One finding from the textual analysis suggested that Professor Wonnacott cites a lot of his previous works in the main body of text. Upon reflection, Professor Wonnacott said that self-referencing is a kind of backing up arguments. Many other academics in his field have done the same because they have developed their arguments a long time ago and they have more evidence to support and disprove other points in later papers. He also claimed that self-citation denotes a series of research works which have been done over a period of time. Some of them have lasted for over 10 years and this practice shows an improved understanding of the subject matter.

In sum, the professor participants consider the use of first person singular to be inappropriate in most cases and they prefer the stylistic *'we'* due to its various possible effects. These accounts suggest their learned recognition of what is acceptable and legitimate in academic writing as part of their academic reservoir and repertoire.

6.5.2. Interacting with the audience

This subtopic looks at how the professor participants interact with the audience through the use of words which signal engagement or attention from the readers.

According to the textual analysis, Professor Bracton and Professor Wonnacott seemed to adopt an explicit approach with their audience because they use

words which address the audience explicitly, such as *'commentators'*, *'analysts'*, *'every undergraduate'*, *'students'* and *'respondents'* alongside words like *'agree'*, *'accept'*, *'consider'* and *'know'* in their sample texts.

Upon reflection on the textual findings, Professor Wonnicot said that it is acceptable to address his audience when he has an audience in mind:

In journals, I would probably say 'practitioners' and if I'm writing for an academic audience, then it would be 'observers' or 'academics' or I would say 'analysts' or 'observers' even. (Professor Wonnicot)

Professor Bracton also said that when the words like *'consider'* and *'regard'* are used in a passive form in her papers, they are mainly to avoid the first person singular, signalling that she wanted to interact with the audience explicitly. However, the reason why these expressions were written in a passive form was largely due to the fact that she was trained to set up the argument like that. Upon reflection of the excerpt, *'... but it could be regarded as such'*, Professor Bracton explained that:

I think it's the sort of language of not saying 'I think'. I think it's all part of the device of putting it into the passive. What I could have said about this is 'he didn't say it but I think it is'. It's actually only there to avoid the first person singular. The others usually regard it as such. This is what they mean. ... We're kind of indoctrinated that we have to set it up like that. (Professor Bracton)

In the case of Professor Woodworth, addressing the audience seemed to be implicit. The textual analysis indicated few words which refer to the audience explicitly. Frequently, she used the pronoun *'one'* to address her reader like the example, *'before one can grasp the significance of this issue'*, or to deal with her counter-argument like the example, *'One might argue that ...'* Professor Woodworth said that her use of words like *'consider'*, *'interpret'* and *'regard'* in her argument is more to do with setting up an argument or internal debate with herself than to interact with the audience.

It's setting up. Here's the question. On the one hand, it's been regarded as temporary new US law, so that's one argument. On the other hand, it's been described as something else and moot point. There are other arguments coming in there. And another one is unlikely to be considered. So all of these, you say it's interacting with the audience? You can say that, but it's sort of setting up the argument by looking at all the various issues that come up for the questions and then we take on to make the

argument. It's almost internal debate with yourself. On the one hand, it could be this. On the other hand, it could be that but let's put it this way. (Professor Woodworth)

In short, it seems that the way the professor participants interact with their audience in their writing is largely influenced by their previous instruction about what kind of readers and arguments they have in mind.

6.5.3. Academic convention

As regards academic convention, there are issues of passive structure, using action verbs with inanimate objects and modality.

All three professor participants believe that there is an academic convention as they all got training in the past and they said that they were influenced by academic convention in academic writing. Professor Bracton mentioned two major issues regarding the influence of academic convention on academic authors. First, she believes that academic publication in English literature is different from academic publication in law in that scholars in English literature 'invented the inscrutable language to protect their own empire'. Her view was that their style is so impenetrable that nobody else knows whether their work is good or not. Second, she pointed out that there is a difference between the works she admires and the works she writes and she mentioned the difference between the British and American approaches to writing for publication:

I also think about some things that I read, which is usually by American philosophers, and it's not in point at all really, but people like Judith Jarvis Thomson and Robert Nozick in the States. There it's sort of 'Attitude is a capital A' and they give funny examples. They do all sorts of things which British academics tend not to do, they are much more conservative and pedestrian and highly scholarly and use lots of long words. 'Just imagine a famous baseball player and what will happen if this happens to him?' 'Just imagine this and what will happen?' It's very vivid and I love their stuff but it's not the kind of stuff I've ever written and you read it very rarely. (Professor Bracton)

These accounts of the academic conventions illustrate the issues of disciplinary discourses and writing approaches in relation to the quality of academic scholarship. Papers of good quality in one academic setting can become either an unfamiliar empire for academic scholars from other settings to judge or a work of rarity for other scholars to admire. Arguably, these different perceptions

suggest the influence of academic communities on their academic authors to recognise what kind of quality is privileged or legitimate in each setting.

In terms of passive form structure, Professor Wonnacott said that he was trained to use active voice where possible to make a point and to show evidence. When Both Professor Bracton and Professor Woodworth saw the excerpts with the passive mode, however, they immediately mentioned and talked about the 'double negative' which they contended is one of linguistic features found in legal language. Professor Bracton often guessed correctly who had a background in law by noticing the use of double negative. Professor Woodworth explained that:

It's like saying 'You're making reasonable argument' and 'You're making argument that's not unreasonable.' Those two things, to a lawyer, mean two different things. Well, something reasonable, it's okay, alright. If it's not unreasonable, it's much more on the side of, yes, it might be reasonable but actually I'm not too sure, it's not unreasonable but I'm not going to tell you that it's reasonable because I don't think it's reasonable either. So, those two are two different things. So, similarly, you get very careful when you're writing in legal papers. Reasonable and not unreasonable are two different things. (Professor Woodworth)

For Professor Woodworth, the active form in an argument can come up too certain and too strong. Moreover, the active form gives an impression that the subject matter is recent even though it might have changed. To illustrate, Professor Woodworth contended that the sample sentence, '*libel has been described as ...*' has its own place in the argument because the definition of libel or the description of libel would have changed and have been moulded by other cases of law. Therefore, the passive form gives a reasonable description of libel at a particular point in time which may not be relevant now. By contrast, the active structure '*Smith has described libel as ...*' suggests a contemporary description although Smith may have completely changed his mind about it by now. That is the reason why Professor Woodworth contended that using passive form can be more precise and more cautious than the active form.

The identification of passive mode with double negative during the professor participants' reflection indicates the influence of disciplinary discourse on the academic authors. There seems to be logic behind each mode of expression which is recognisable and defensible by scholars from the same background.

As regards the use of action verbs with inanimate objects, all three professor participants use words like *'consider'*, *'examine'* and *'engage'* with the word *'this article'* in many of their papers and they explained that they cannot but help being influenced by academic convention. Professor Wonnacott further said that this kind of expression is perfectly fine as long as academics do not give identity or human characteristics to the paper. However, during the second interview Professor Bracton could not make out what was intended in the sample texts with this kind of expression until I explained that some academics might write, *'In this paper, I consider'* instead of *'This paper considers'*. Then she explained that this expression is the 'flag post' which many academics have been told that they have to indicate early on in their paper what it is all about and what is going on. Her guess was that many academics are formally instructed to write in this way. Although Professor Bracton does not like it very much, she is not sure whether she can change it in her future papers:

Well, looking at it now, I don't like it very much. And I think maybe I should have said, 'I would examine' and 'I will raise the question' because it all seems a bit pompous, you know, 'oh, get on with it'. Although I can see, I don't know whether I can physically do it. It's not my way. It's not what I do. I've seen it without upset but I don't do it. (Professor Bracton)

These accounts have once again suggested the academic influences on academic authors regarding the legitimacy of expressions. Although there are other options for expression with the same purpose, it seems that their formally instructed option makes perfect sense to them, suggesting the symbolic power of expression in academic writing rather than the literal means of expression.

In terms of modality, the analysis of the second interviews suggests that each professor participant might have a different approach to it and their approach signals how they express and create their identity in writing. Professor Bracton believes that there are technical differences in these modal verbs which are linked to their modes of expression, such as hypothetical, conditional and subjective. Upon recent analysis of her excerpts, she was unsure whether she has managed to use modal verbs correctly in all cases:

I think what I ought to do is use 'may' or 'might' when it's legitimate and 'can' and 'could' when it's possible. I think that's the distinction technically. In that example, I think 'might' would be wrong, it could have been 'may' but I can't explain. I'm not a grammarian. I don't know. I have

used it. I can remember my mother going on at me: ‘similar to, different from, compare with’ as she would say this over and over again and I would not deviate from it but where she’s got it from, I don’t know but that’s what I do: ‘compare with, different from, similar to’ and it upsets people like me if someone says ‘compared to’ because it’s wrong. How do I know? Because my mother told me. You get these ideas and mostly you get them from reading. So, ‘may’ and ‘might’, there is a difference but I don’t know what it is. It’s not me; it’s the technical difference. I just try to get it right, possibly unsuccessfully but certainly there is a difference between ‘may’ and ‘could’ ... because ‘could’ is conditional, or is that the subjunctive? Yes, it’s different. Because the crown court ‘can’ means now but because I’m thinking hypothetically, aren’t I? So, it’s ‘could’ and not ‘can’. Does it mean ‘may’? No, they’re not allowed to do it now but they could do it. So, ‘could’ is hypothetical and conditional. (Professor Bracton)

As for Professor Wonnicot, his use of modal verbs is related to his perception of the evidence rather than the technical difference with their modes of expression.

If the evidence says you can achieve something, then you say ‘can’. If it suggests that they may not be certain, then you say ‘could’. So, the evidence structures the use of the words, the language. ‘May’ is permissive so it gives you an option. If the option is there, and resources are there, then I would use the word ‘may’. If the resources are not entirely there, and it’s not a certainty, then I would use the word ‘might’. It’s a case of precision for the use of language. (Professor Wonnicot)

In the case of Professor Woodworth, the use of modal verbs tends to be related to the level of certainty and the cautiousness she has about the subject matter rather than the evidence and the technical difference of the expression.

As a lawyer, unless you’re coming to the conclusion of your argument, where you’re making it and you’ve drawn enough body in the body of your work, then you might use the word ‘it can’ to be certain. So, the word ‘could’ is hesitant. You’re more cautious with the word ‘could’ rather than ‘can’. I think that ‘may’ and ‘might’ are fairly interchangeable. But ‘may’ is of course slightly stronger than ‘might’. One might not. One may not. One may. It’s more permissive, I think. ‘Might’ is slightly more hesitant, I think, possibly. (Professor Woodworth)

These accounts of how the professor participants have used modal verbs in their writing presume a personalised relationship between modality and the academic authors. Modality markers provide several means of expression and

the authors can approach them differently to reflect their personal evaluations of their written statement, e.g. their perception of evidence, their level of confidence and their modes of expression. Therefore, it might be better to construe the statements with modality markers as evaluative statements by which the authors convey their authorial judgements of their utterances to their readers. However, these evaluations might not always be stable. This is probably due to the fact that the author's modal expressions in their texts are closely linked to the context in which the statements are uttered. Upon reflection on their own excerpts, the professor participants have expressed their uncertainty about those past usages. This reservation probably illustrates the problems which modality markers can cause in terms of the possible implications which each modalised statement can offer to both the authors and the readers. Therefore, the use of modality might be a mark of authorial speech in which the author's worldviews are developed in relation to the subject matter of their utterances.

Based on the findings from all three sub-themes, the data analysis has suggested that the textual dimension of authorial identity is tied up with the academic influences of the discipline to which the professor participants belong. These conventions through disciplinary instillation have governed the way they manifest their authorial presence, their interaction with the audience and their privileged linguistic features, making them unable to penetrate other disciplinary discourses and hesitant to change their writing practice in the future. However, there is also room for them to exploit the conventions. Although the first person singular *'I'* is discouraged as personal profile and engagement with readers, the professor participants use other options to achieve similar purposes. Furthermore, some linguistic features such as passive structure and double negative not only become a way to display the disciplinary background of academic writers but also offer a precision of ideas through their subtle differences, suggesting that these linguistic features become their means of expression and worldview. The professor participants' different approaches to the use of modality markers are also an example of how academic scholars use language as a resource for expression and creation of their identity in writing.

6.6. Summary

In this chapter, I have presented the findings from the second interviews with three professor participants regarding their reflection upon the textual analysis based on five topics as in referencing, getting the message across, argumentation, expressing attitude and being an academic author. The topic about referencing has suggested the role of citation in the development of the professor participants' academic scholarship whereas the findings about getting the message across has implied the professor participants' need to evaluate the knowledgeability of their readership as well as their requirement to move beyond descriptive and explanatory comments in order to meet the criteria of high quality papers. The professor participants' accounts suggest that their argumentation can push at the edge of current debate in their research, implying that their papers act as their recorded utterances in a wider dialogue. Moreover, their level of academic scholarship is closely identified with the quality of their argumentation. In terms of attitudes, the professor participants are aware of and cautious about the legitimacy of the attitudes they can express in their papers because such expressions are linked to their role as academic researchers, their persuasiveness and also their level of aggression. Overall, the findings has suggested that the academic conventions influence the identity of academic authors in terms of how they display themselves, how they engage with their audience and how they regard certain linguistic features to be part of disciplinary discourse which become a resource for their textual creation of authorial identity.

Chapter 7. Discussion

In this chapter, I discuss the research findings from each phase of the research and through these discussions I answer the overarching research question. There are three sections in this chapter. The first section involves the personal dimension of authorial identity whereas the second section entails the textual dimension of authorial identity. In the third section, I discuss the whole findings in relation to social theories to build up an understanding of the development of authorial identity in academic writing over time. This third section is based on Section 3.5.4 (Data Analysis for the Overarching Research Question and Discussion). Further details can be found in Appendix L: Interrelationships of Findings, Constructs and Conceptual Overviews.

7.1. Discussing the Personal Dimension of Authorial Identity

According to the three models of academic writing as proposed by Lea and Street (1998), academic authors can improve their academic writing by (a) learning skills related to academic discourse and practising them in their writing, (b) engaging in their discourse community through the same socio-rhetorical features as part of academic socialisation, or (c) becoming aware of the issues of power relations between ideologies and epistemologies prevalent among academic communities to recognise the diversity of academic literacies concerning the issues of identity, knowledge and linguistic choices which are privileged in different academic communities.

Several previous studies on the issue of identity in academic writing recount the struggles and the difficulties encountered by university students and early career academic scholars in relation to the third model which is the academic literacies model. It has been suggested that the struggles for academic literacies are due to the clash between how the writers write (or prefer to write) and how the writers are expected to write. Many writers do not feel comfortable using academic language in their writing because their texts sound 'pretentious' but they do not want to be seen as a 'pretentious' person. As such, they feel like a 'puppet on strings' (Ivanič, 1998). Some authors, such as early career academic scholars, even hide themselves in their text by ventriloquizing the

voice of others in their works to avoid being seen as a critic of the accepted norms (Thomson & Kamler, 2012).

In this research, the findings suggest this kind of struggle from the clash between how the authors write and how the authors are expected to write despite the fact that the professor participants feel comfortable using academic language in their publication. Therefore, it is important to discuss how the professor participants have overcome these struggles for academic literacies.

7.1.1. Overcoming the Struggles for Academic Literacies

The struggle for academic literacies might be discussed in relation to the pattern of 'privileging' within academic institutions. Ivanič (1998) argues that although academic institutions are not monolithic in ideologies and practices, there are patterns of 'privileging' in which writers cannot make 'choices' freely; writers are 'highly influenced (though not determined) by socio-historically situated conventions' of their discipline and their academic community because it is often the case that a particular linguistic and ideological choice is viewed as 'more appropriate and efficacious than others' in a particular socio-historical setting (Ivanič, 1998, p. 54). In this study, the professor participants' accounts of rejection and harsh feedback on their works along their career path may signal these patterns of privileging within the academic communities. To illustrate, the fact that Professor Woodworth's paper was rejected because it was 'not within the journal's reach' might indicate that her subject matter was not appropriate for such a journal. In the case of Professor Bracton whose papers were rejected or criticised for their 'angry' tone, it seems that the academic institutions found her papers to be unconventional. As for Professor Wonnicott, one of his papers was very empirical and needed a theoretical framework to strengthen it before he could resubmit it for another review. This incident might indicate such a journal's preference for theoretical papers over empirical ones.

However, the professor participants suggest that the struggle for academic literacies can be overcome since academic institutions are not monolithic. With the rejected papers at hand or with negative feedback, the professor participants can still seek publication somewhere else, where their writing will be accepted by the journal editors and the reviewers who find their writing acceptable and offer constructive feedback. When Professor Bracton published

her paper which was previously rejected due to the negative feedback, it turned out that her paper published in another journal was graded quite high in the REF, making her feel 'vindicated' because she believed that the former editor sent her paper to the wrong reviewer.

Alternatively, rejection and feedback have been seen as a way of maintaining research quality in academia rather than a 'privileging' pattern. Both Professor Wonnacott and Professor Woodworth talks about the quality control in academic publication. For Professor Wonnacott, rejection gives him a sense of humility and a kind of endeavour to achieve better quality in his research. For Professor Woodworth, the quality control tends to revolve around the panels of reputable scholars and the peer-review process during academic publication in which academic researchers do not just write for publication but also review and give feedback to other people's works before publication. In this way, academic scholars not only compete against one another but also collaborate with one another to achieve research excellence in their area of study. Therefore, academic authorship encapsulates two modes of activity: writing as well as reviewing academic papers.

Therefore, the fact that academic authorship involves both writing as well as reviewing academic papers can contribute another tenet of discussion regarding the struggle for academic literacies because it problematizes the concept of writer development as individual maturity in the literature review. In other words, the findings in this study suggest that to become a better academic author requires more than awareness of academic literacies; it needs reviewing as part of a co-authoring activity. Therefore, the findings seem to point towards the concept of writer development as collective transformation.

When Lillis and Curry (2010) conducted their research into academic writing among multilingual scholars who write their academic papers in English, they found that academic text production is a 'networked activity' in which a piece of writing could undergo many revisions by one original author along with many other people who acted as co-authors or linguistic brokers. Therefore, a published text by a multilingual scholar often has a long history. Although this concept of 'networked activity' might not be completely similar to the findings in this research because Lillis and Curry focus on mobilising resources for

academic text publication, it can be applied here to make an argument for understanding the development of identity as academic authors over time.

Based on the perspective of 'networked activity', it is argued that academic publication is a co-authoring activity and therefore 'off-networked' scholars (Belcher, 2007) are most likely to encounter difficulty and struggles for academic literacies because these scholars are at the periphery of the research community, i.e. 'off-network' locations with limited resources and only a few colleagues to work with, and they are often forced to use language which they may not feel entirely comfortable with. This argument can be used to explain the struggles faced by students, early career scholars as well as multilingual academic scholars when they write academic papers because their struggles derive from the 'sequestered participation' (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in their academic community in comparison to the accounts given by the professor participants.

Presumably, the professor participants can overcome the struggles not only because they can find outlets for their writing (or the communities which view their works as appropriate and fit for publication) but also because they have been given extensive training and support from others. Professor Wonnicott seems to suggest that he has learned to overcome his fear of rejection by reading the feedback given by the journal editors and reviewers as if this was similar to his postgraduate writing group in which each person commented on each other's work for improvement. Professor Bracton expresses her gratitude to her former husband and her colleagues who had read and revised her papers to sharpen her ideas with more precise vocabulary. Professor Woodworth has learned how to improve her academic writing from her supervisors and colleagues. She also says that she learned to play with words and language through reading other scholars' works. All these accounts suggest that the professor participants have access to resources and collaborate with others and as such they feel comfortable using academic language in their papers. In other words, all professor participants in this study have experienced the writing of their papers as a 'networked activity' since they were in their early career.

7.1.2. Experiencing Academic Writing as a Networked Activity

The experience of academic writing as a 'networked activity' among the senior academic scholars is in contrast with previous research studies on academic writing and identity which seem to be based on the assumption that writers need to do something on their own to improve the situation. To illustrate, Ivanič (1998) argues that the difficulties in academic writing as recounted by her co-researchers lie in the negotiation of a 'discoursal self' which is constructed when they have to align themselves with a multiple array of discourses, each of which tend to embody particular values, beliefs and identities. Therefore, academic writers either accommodate to or resist the pressure to write their works using the highly privileged discourses within the academic communities when they find that certain discourses which they prefer are not as privileged. This is particularly true when Ivanič's co-researchers explained that their written academic works sounded 'pretentious' with big words and long-winded sentences but they did not want to become known as a 'pretentious' person although they had to make a choice between a 'puppet on strings' or a working class person trying to talk 'posh'. In the same vein, Thomson and Kamler (2012) suggest that their early career academic colleague Gerri had 'identity struggles over and in the text' when Gerri was unable to name the issue of her research in her academic paper because she was afraid of being seen as a critic of current policy. Therefore, Gerri decided to hide behind the text and to ventriloquize her participants' voice as her opinion.

This 'networked' dimension of academic writing can sharpen the academic literacies model as proposed by Lea and Street (1998). They highlight the struggles for academic literacies in which many students learned that the epistemological dimensions between themselves and their tutors did not always match from one assignment to the next; hence, the discrepancy in their score by different markers in different course modules. These struggles for academic literacies suggest that the students are treated as 'off-networked' or 'sequestered' writers and that there is no 'networked' activity between subject module tutors and academic writing teachers.

In terms of academic scholars, the 'networked activity' of academic text publication is related to gatekeeping activities and this can be seen through either rejection or quality control. Lillis and Curry (2010) mention Margarida, a

Portuguese associate professor, who recounts her difficulty publishing her scientific model in certain US journals for 10 years and her model is not nearer publication probably because she was challenging what other scholars with higher status were doing and they stopped her from publishing the model. However, rejection might not always involve the issue of gatekeeping and privileged ideologies; it may also signal editors' poor management of reviewers as Professor Bracton explained about her rejected paper which gained the top band in the REF. Alternatively, as Professor Wonnacott suggests, rejection means that the research quality is maintained; otherwise, every scholar can write about anything. That is why Professor Wonnacott criticises academic publication in blogs and certain open access outlets where any author can write freely without any feedback by reviewers, suggesting a poor quality of academic scholarship.

Another aspect which this 'networked' model of academic text publication suggests is that academic publication is like a game. Academic scholars need to play research games in their academic life (Lucas, 2006). There are many players in these games and not everybody can win the game at the same time. One approach to understanding how the game works is that professors or senior academic scholars act as 'mediators of academic text cultures' (Dysthe, 2002) in which early career academics can learn from them through participation. This motivation to learn and participate in the research game might stem from the disposition of meaningful perceptions or what Bourdieu calls 'habitus'. The findings in this study suggest that all professor participants have 'the feel for the game' and they feel 'at home' in their field of expertise by sharing similar perceptions about the academic text cultures. To cite an example, Professor Bracton says, 'I was in the game because I like to do that [= wandering about the library, finding things and having opinions about them and writing them]'.

This 'feel for the game' need not always be stable, though. Professor Woodworth has given an account of her worries during her early years and how she gained confidence over time. There might be a big learning curve at the beginning but after teaching and writing for a few years, she realised that she knew more than her students and that she had networks of colleagues. When

people said they liked her research and she saw her papers cited regularly by students and other scholars, she felt more confident about her academic life.

What can be learned about the personal dimension of authorial identity or how academic scholars develop themselves as authors over time is that they engage in publication more as a 'networked activity' rather than an 'isolated' activity. When the onus is on academic writers to write alone without any support from others or participation as a network, there will certainly be struggles for academic literacies WITHOUT comfort in using academic language. This kind of struggle for academic literacies echoes Foucault's concept of discourse and interpellation in which writers are subjects to many discourses and they either accommodate to it or resist it as if they have their own choice in the matter. Therefore, the findings in this research suggest that the struggle for academic literacies can exist WITH comfort when writers think of academic publication as a game or a field in which they have a role to play. In other words, academic publication is a 'networked activity' rather than an activity in which the onus is on each individual writer to identify themselves with the institution where they enter.

7.2. Discussing the Textual Dimension of Authorial Identity

According to the literature on textual analysis for identity in writing based on metadiscourse, Hyland's corpus-based studies (2004, 2005, 2010) suggest a kind of relatively stable identity and interaction in academic writing. First, it is suggested that each disciplinary discourse tends to have a specific preference in the frequency of metadiscourse use; hence, differences in disciplinary discourses (Hyland, 2004). For instance, social science papers contained more self-mentions and references than natural science papers. Second, there was a higher frequency of metadiscourse items in doctoral theses than Master's dissertations (Hyland, 2005), giving an impression that more advanced writers use more metadiscourse markers and this higher frequency of metadiscourse use implies an individual's development in academic writing. Third, it is suggested that academic scholars have a personal 'signature' voice and perform particular features in their writing in a relatively stable manner in various papers written over time (Hyland, 2010).

Although this research mainly focuses on social sciences and there are no papers from natural sciences for comparison, it benefits from the sample texts and the professor participants who engage in 2 distinctive areas of research: law and politics. Both disciplines are argumentative in nature but the textual analysis *without the timescale* in the overview section has suggested that their papers were written in a different manner, with higher use of metadiscourse markers in law papers than in politics papers. The findings might correspond to the differences in disciplinary discourses as Hyland has suggested.

However, the textual findings *with the timescale* has indicated a changing trend in these two disciplines, at least according to the sample texts, especially the referencing practice because there were far more references in the professor participants' recent academic papers when compared to their earlier papers. There were also other textual features which changed over time, such as the lower use of boosters and code glosses in Professor Bracton's sample texts, the lower use of code glosses in Professor Wonnacott's papers and the variation in many metadiscourse categories in Professor Woodworth's articles. I will discuss these changes with the literature review but I am well aware that there is always a 'caveat' to any interpretation and discussion.

7.2.1. Citing More References in Recent Papers

Although it was generally found that academic papers in social sciences contained a higher frequency of references in comparison to academic papers in natural sciences and applied sciences (Hyland, 2004) (see Section 2.5.2 on Collective Transformation), the textual findings in this research suggested that one particular metadiscourse category which formed a higher proportion in the professor participants' recent writing, especially in Professor Wonnacott and Professor Woodworth, derived from evidentials, *not* from other categories. If the evidentials were to be taken out from the textual analysis, there would be a lower frequency of the overall use in their recent writing. To put it another way, past academic papers written by the professor participants when they were early in their career contained almost half of the number of references in comparison to their recent papers. The higher frequency of references in their recent papers is a marked recent phenomenon.

This higher frequency of citation might imply the recent influence of the academic climate on the professor participants. One exception among all the sample texts is Professor Bracton's earliest paper (Bracton 1981: *Law with ambiguity*) which contained many references but Professor Bracton explained that this high frequency of references is due to the fact that such paper deals with the definition of certain legal terms which are ambiguous. That is the reason why many sources were cited in that paper so that she could make a judgement about them.

According to metadiscourse theories (Hyland, 2005; Ifantidou, 2005), citation signals an intertextual feature in academic writing because it helps writers position a particular text in relation to the past literature it addresses and the future texts it anticipates. The textual analysis of the sample texts in this study indicated that there were more references in the recent papers (two are theory pieces and one is data-based) written by all three professor participants. Professor Woodworth links this higher frequency to an increasing number of related research studies and collaboration with other scholars. Professor Wonnicott links this increase to his lack of original data; hence, his synthesis of theories and data in secondary sources, reflecting the theory piece genre. As for Professor Bracton, the higher use of references is especially evident in her most recent paper which is not only data-based but also highly argumentative and highly theoretical. These explanatory reflections by the professor participants can be argued in terms of a 'networked activity' in which their papers are part of a wider dialogue in their research community. Their academic papers require other papers as resources for advancement in knowledge, synthesis and argumentation. In this manner, other papers achieve the status of cultural capital, according to a Bourdieusian perspective, so that the professor participants display not only their expertise but also their membership within the research community where certain values and theories are privileged and required. Therefore, citation is not only a tool for knowledge construction but also a marker of membership and 'high aesthetic' (to use Bourdieu's term) which has a prestigious position in academic papers. It also signals the relationship between writers and readers, as Cronin and Shaw (2002) suggest, in which academic writers become colleagues through citation networks.

Referencing is a tool for authors to create their own identity and to make other authors' image.

Nevertheless, this higher frequency can also be interpreted otherwise. The professor participants suggest that in the past they did not have to cite many sources as long as they had original data or their paper is argumentative. This is not the case for them at the present moment since they are often asked to add some theories so that their papers are publishable in academic journals, making their case similar to Myers' (1990; cited in Hyland, 1999) account of a scientist who increased the number of references from 57 to 195 in a resubmission. This change at an individual level might be interpreted as a change at an academic literacies level where epistemological values are often contested. Professor Bracton and Professor Wonnacott have mentioned similar experiences in which they were asked to cite certain theories to back up their argument. In other words, the professor participants' arguments without evidentials may be viewed with less validity. When it comes to argumentation, their status of professorship or 'authority' is not as authoritative when compared to the cited sources. Barthes (1977) views this phenomenon as the 'death of the author' because readers refuse to accept authors as God, or the one with an authoritative voice. In other words, a valid argument derives from evidentials and refers to sources of evidence which function as 'ideologemes', to use Bakhtin's term.

Further, the fact that the sources which the professor participants added in their texts were not their previous works is probably an indication of their involvement in the intellectual pursuit in their discipline. White (2001) argues that some authors do what he calls 'intellectual isolation' by citing more of their works than others'. The case of self-citation is often seen in theory pieces and there is a case in which one theory article published in the top-ranked U.S. journal *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences* 'had a self-citation rate of over 50 percent' (Noguchi, 2001; cited in Swales, 2004, p. 210). If this self-citation is done with a high rate over time, these academic authors are likely to be 'egotist' (Lawani, 1982). However, this high level of self-citation is not evident in the professor participants' sample texts although many are theoretical papers, suggesting that the professor participants in this study are not intellectually isolated.

Although it is true that the professor participants had to write for specific journals, they suggested that the academic constraints for recognition by the peer review process had allowed them to engage in the intellectual pursuit to improve the quality of their papers. Unlike some novice writers, such as students who cited new materials to align with the markers (e.g., Harwood & Petrić, 2012), the professor participants reviewed the comments of their reviewers and looked for opportunities to actually expand their perspectives rather than mere alignment without any intellectual engagement. This practice of intellectual engagement seems to support Emerson's (2012) contention that senior academic writers are not narrowly focused on their research; rather, they write and cite others to gain 'a more expansive view' (p. 368) of their subject matter.

7.2.2. Using Few(er) Attitude Markers, Code Glosses and Engagement Markers

According to metadiscourse studies, it seems that more advanced writers use a higher frequency of metadiscourse in all categories and that metadiscourse can be used to improve writing (Cheng & Steffensen, 1996). To illustrate, Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) highlight that expert writers use more citations than novice writers. Hyland and Tse (2004) point out the differences in metadiscourse use between doctoral and Master's students in Table 2.7 (in Chapter 2) by showing that doctoral dissertations contained a higher frequency of use in almost all metadiscourse categories, including boosters and self-mentions. The only exception was for attitude markers which show a slightly lower frequency. Similarly, Abdollahzadeh (2011) observes that although both Anglo-American and Iranian scholars use a lot of hedges in their writing, the Anglo-American authors use far more boosters and attitude markers. These accounts suggest that more advanced authors use a higher frequency of metadiscourse markers in comparison to less advanced or non-native writers.

However, the lower frequency of metadiscourse use in Professor Bracton's sample texts contradicts the impression about writing development in which development is often marked by a higher frequency, for example, the higher use of evidentials as discussed in the previous section, or in the overall use of metadiscourse markers as in Hyland and Tse (2004)'s comparison of Master's and doctoral theses. Furthermore, the frequency of engagement markers in

recent papers written by the three professor participants is lower than in their early papers, as clearly seen in both Professor Bracton's recent texts and Professor Wonnicott's recent texts.

Therefore, the research findings suggest that writing development for academic publication is not necessarily associated with a higher frequency of metadiscourse markers, especially with boosters, code glosses and engagement markers.

Professor Bracton's reflective explanation is that a high frequency of code glosses is tantamount to descriptive information because a text with this feature tends to be graded quite low in the REF. Therefore, she does not 'explain herself' in her peer-reviewed articles anymore so that her papers look more argumentative and they will suit her readers who are knowledgeable. As an editor herself, she often tells many new academic writers to cut out these descriptive parts before publishing in her journal. This situation is reflected in Yates (2004) who argues that many papers submitted to journals are rejected by editors and reviewers because the authors sound like someone learning the ropes rather than members of the research community. Professor Bracton's perception is that the peer-reviewed panel tend to prefer 'anti-explanatory' papers because the readers are knowledgeable and they do not need descriptions and explanations about certain subject matter. With fewer (or not too many) code glosses, academic papers achieve a prestigious status in the review process presumably because they give an impression that the authors are not learning the ropes but 'in the know'.

Another explanation for the lower use of code glosses might be due to the word limit in academic publication and the differences in genres. Apart from the fact that there are many genres of research articles and each genre tends to have different purposes and audiences in mind (Swales, 2004), academic publication is limited by space in each issue. The authors need to write with greater precision and much information needs to be condensed to fit into a single sentence. Bourdieu, Passeron and de Saint Martin (1994) argue that although academic discourse is intended for pedagogical communication, there are two contradictory economic demands in the system: the quantity and the quality of information. Academic discourse must convey the highest amount of information but it also needs to keep repetition and redundancy to the lowest

level as possible. This seems to be a difficult task but it is quite true in most academic papers which need a balance of both breadth and depth. Code glosses and engagement markers might be reduced in numbers so that there is more space for argumentation.

In terms of expressing attitude, there are different views on this issue. Professor Wonnacott and Professor Woodworth acknowledge the use of attitude for certainty but they would avoid expressing attitude for other purposes such as taking sides with value-laden terms (e.g., *'unfortunately'*) or over-prioritising the matter without evidence (e.g., *'the topic is important'*). However, Professor Bracton thinks that although some academic papers contain too many attitude expressions, papers without attitudes are often uninspiring. Apparently, to avoid being associated with an angry tone or a one-sided worldview, Professor Bracton's recent papers contain far fewer boosters (or confident expressions) although her use of hedges remains relatively stable. With more hedges than boosters, her recent papers seem to confirm the general trend in academic discourse in which uncertain expressions (or hedges) are more pronounced (Abdollahzadeh, 2011; Crismore & Farnsworth, 1989; Hyland, 1994).

Still, Professor Bracton maintains that she is 'opinionated throughout' because the lower number of boosters only indicates her politeness and her reduced level of aggression. This can shed light on the way academic authors portray themselves in their texts. Expressing attitudes through boosters and hedges not only deals with the epistemic aspect of the authors and their audience but also represents an appropriate calmness of the authors towards their readers in order to achieve persuasiveness with politeness.

7.2.3. Finding One's Voice in a Situated Activity

It is often assumed that writers have a personal 'signature' voice as expressed in the cliché 'Find Your Voice' (Henning et al., 2002) and that there is voice in academic writing (Matsuda & Tardy, 2007). Moreover, voice tends to be distinct in the sense that it is relatively stable over time and that the authors can be identified, as often practiced in the area of forensic linguistics to settle dispute over authorship. Hyland's (2010) study which focuses on the corpus of two linguists, Professor Deborah Cameron and Professor John Swales, tends to reinforce this assumption by showing that according to the textual analysis

Professor Cameron can be described as a radical linguist through her high use of rebuttal or contrast (*'but'* and *'though'*) and that Professor Swales displays himself as an inquiring colleague in the research community through his frequent use of first person singular forms (*'I'* and *'my'*), namely his authorial presence.

In this section, I focus more on the metadiscourse category of self-mentions than others because it is related to the issue of voice in many research studies (e.g., Ivanič & Camps, 2001; Prior, 2001; Tang & John, 1999) although caution is necessary because the notion of 'signature' voice needs to incorporate all other metadiscourse categories as well as the ideas behind the author's expression. Still, the notion of 'authorial presence' is a good place to start to discuss the textual dimension of authorial identity over time.

The textual findings indicated that the use of self-mentions remained quite low for all three professor participants over time. However, the reflections given by them raise two concerns about this assumption.

Firstly, it is doubtful as to what extent the voice in writing is individualistic or socially influenced. Professor Wonnacott believes that his voice in writing is recognisable through his cadence and phraseology and his sample texts showed a relatively stable pattern of metadiscourse use over time, signalling his individualistic profile as a researcher who prefers to let evidence speak for itself. However, his reflection indicates that he distinguishes between his personal voice and the voice of the researcher, namely the disembodied voice (Golden-Biddle & Locke, 2007). Therefore, he avoids using *'I'* in his works in order to be perceived not as a minister, but as an academic scholar in politics. His account suggests that there is a 'social' voice for political researchers out there to adopt and that he as a political researcher should adopt it. However, Harwood (2006) has noticed that there is variation in the use of self-mentions among a group of political scientists, with some supporting the avoidance of self-mentions and the 'author-evacuated' style of writing whereas others promote self-mentions to 'humanise' their texts. Therefore, it can be difficult to view the voice in writing in a given discipline as either purely individualistic or socially influenced.

Secondly, there is a question as to whether the author's voice remains relatively stable over time. Professor Bracton believes that her voice has changed over time and has arrived at a 'mature' tone and the textual findings seem to support

her reflection with a much lower frequency of boosters. In addition, her code glosses and engagement markers appeared with a lower frequency in her recent papers. The sample texts by the two professor participants also underwent some changes and variations. Therefore, the author's voice can change over time because it is not always relatively stable.

In order to discuss the two concerns raised above, I turn to the Bakhtinian approach (Bakhtin, 1986; Prior, 2001; Vološinov, 1986). It could be argued that the author's voice is neither purely individualistic nor socially deterministic because it is a situated production between personal and social practices. Therefore, the author's voice is not a fixed entity, but a situated activity in which the 'accent' of the author is embedded in the utterance.

On the level of social practices, the professor participants seem to draw on their perceived cultural reservoir to construct their voice. In the sample texts written by the professor participants, the authorial presence with the first person pronoun *'I'* remains quite low throughout because they believe that the use of *'I'* is self-promoting, pompous and conveys a personal voice. Unlike Harwood's (2005b) study in which 'author-evacuated' papers occasionally contained self-promotional *'I'* or *'we'* to publicise their authors and their works, the professor participants would rather keep these to the minimum although they would not mind reading papers by other scholars with a heavy use of first person singular. Even when asked whether they might adopt the first person singular, the professor participants seem to show reluctance or contend that the use of *'I'* is not suitable in their papers.

The reluctance to use *'I'* seems to reflect the social practices of voice in academic writing. Professor Patricia Nelson Limerick (cited in Sword, 2012) claims that many professors are caught up in the habit of dull academic writing through the 'mentality of buzzards' which have been wired to a branch for so long that they believe they cannot fly freely. Although the wire has been pulled out, they would still keep their feet on the branch and pitch forward rather than fly up into the blue sky because that is a well-established pattern.

Professors believe that a dull writing style is an academic survival skill because they think that is what editors want, both editors of academic journals and editors of university presses. What we have here is a chain of misinformation and misunderstanding, where everyone thinks that the

other guy is the one who demands dull, impersonal prose. (Limerick, 1993; cited in Sword, 2012, p. 7)

On the level of personal practices, however, it is the professor participants who make an informed judgement regarding the avoidance of first person singular forms rather than feel obliged to do so at all costs. They contend that a heavy use of *'I'* can be powerful in papers with moral issues but their papers do not fit such a category. Moreover, they consider the use of human verbs with inanimate objects (*'this paper demonstrates ...'*) to be acceptable as long as personality is not given to these objects. It should be noted that at first they did not understand what I wanted them to reflect on about these expressions until I said that in some papers, it was written *'In this paper, I demonstrate ...'*

To make another case for a situated activity instead of a fixed entity of voice, I re-evaluate Hyland's (2010) study which suggests that there is a high frequency of self-mentions in 17 papers written by John M. Swales between 1993 and 2004. This conveys his clear authorial presence and strong investment in his writing. However, a look at Professor Swales' journal articles which are not included in Hyland's study reveals that there are also sections where Professor Swales did not use any self-mentions (especially abstracts) and that his recent paper (Swales, 2014) about variation in citational practice in a corpus of student biology papers contained only 4 instances of *'I'* in the whole text (2 in the main text and the other 2 in the footnotes, that is, less than 1 instance per 1,000 words). Further, given below is the abstract of his text published in 1995, namely within the range of 1993-2004 which is used in Hyland's study:

This paper reviews the potential role of writing textbooks in increasing our understanding of academic writing. It argues that this role is underappreciated for several reasons. ... The paper then discusses a recently completed textbook as a means of showing how a complex set of motives can result in some contribution to research and scholarship. The paper concludes by arguing that ... (Swales, 1995, p. 3)

Therefore, the author's voice might be better conceived as an activity and there is a continuum between repertoire and reservoir (Martin, 2010) as well as space and time (Burgess & Ivanič, 2010). It is possible for academic authors to change their author's voice when they enter a new context or as time passes.

7.3. Understanding the Development of Authorial Identity

As academic scholars write for publication over time and build themselves up as academic authors over the trajectory of professorship, their authorial identity has gradually developed. In this section, I present a theoretical contribution of this research in relation to the literature based on the social theories on identity and discourse. Here, I turn to social theories of Bourdieu and Bakhtin for the discussion and explain why the social theory of Foucault might not be fully applicable in this matter.

Foucault's theoretical application to writing studies suggests that writing development is a collective transformation in which discourse provides a regulative power over individuals. For him, the concept of 'author' is not the same as the concept of 'authorship'. Authors are not mere producers of texts but rather 'founders of discursivity'. In other words, authors produce 'the possibilities and the rules for the formation of other texts' (Foucault, 1984, p. 114). Therefore, Foucault argues for the 'author function' which limits the author's name to certain discourses. To illustrate, numerous medical texts in the Middle Ages carry the name of 'Hippocrates' as their author although Hippocrates did not write them himself; hence, the lower status of real authorship in comparison to the author function. In the same vein, authors are often cited as 'demonstrated truth'. Marx is cited for the discourse of communism and Freud for the discourse of psychoanalysis.

In the same way based on this research, one Foucauldian aspect regarding the discourse of academic authority in the current era within the UK context seems to be that citation is a mark of academic writing and that it has more authoritative status than the authority of the professorship in the peer review process because citations function as 'demonstrated truth'.

Foucault's method is helpful in history, archaeology and genealogy because it can indicate that the discourse is a 'mark of era' or a 'mark of context'. However, it does not indicate any other explanation for the development of individuals within communities apart from the notion of interpellation in which discourses seem to have more power than individuals; hence, people as subjects to discourses. We still need a theoretical understanding of the development regarding the academic scholars and the academic communities

through their writing for publication. Therefore, I turn to Bourdieu and Bakhtin for the understanding of the academic scholars and the academic communities in terms of authorial identity development.

Bourdieu's social theory (1984) on cultural capital provides a useful tool for deepening our understanding when he examines the judgement of taste among many social groups from lower class to upper class in a French society regarding their objects of consumption which signify the differences or the 'distinction' among these groups. He argues that tastes are a part of culture, whether these tastes are for food or for arts because people connect their taste to the most refined objects. Therefore, I borrow his concept of 'refined objects' or refinement to discuss the development of authorial identity over time among the senior academic scholars in relation to the personal dimension.

In the same vein, Bakhtin's framework can be fruitful to the discussion of the development of authorial identity over time in relation to the textual dimension. Bakhtin (1986) urges us to treat texts as utterances because texts are not 'voiceless'; texts always express themselves in relation to other texts. To write any text requires two parties—writer and reader—and both parties are active interlocutors. However, to understand a text requires a third party called superaddressee which acts as a mediator of understanding. By arguing so, Bakhtin moves away from linguistics, whose purpose is to study language as a system of signs in which readers are treated as passive recipients or decoders of the message, towards a new branch called 'metalinguistics' whose purpose is to 'go beyond linguistics' to study utterances as a chain of dialogue in which readers are treated as other active interlocutors and there are 'extralinguistic' elements, such as addressivity, answerability, unfinalizability, unrepeatability and superaddressee, which are not found in linguistics as a system of sign. Therefore, to understand how writers develop their writing, including their authorial identity in their texts, requires an understanding of how writers develop their 'metalinguistic' competence to engage in dialogue with their readers.

In the next two sections, I present a theoretical discussion of the two dimensions of authorial identity. The personal dimension is discussed through Bourdieu's notion of refinement whereas the textual dimension is discussed through Bakhtin's notion of metalinguistic competence.

7.3.1. Identity as Authors Is Developed over Time through Refinement

In the same way as the notion of 'culture', the term '*refinement*' can convey both state and process. A work of art is refined to achieve the status of refinement. Likewise, a cultured person is not born but educated through culture to become cultured. Any work of refinement is always related to cultural nobility because every good work of art 'must aim to arouse the moral sense, to inspire feelings of dignity and delicacy, to idealise reality, to substitute for the thing the ideal of the thing, by painting the true and not the real. In a word, it must educate. To do so, it must transmit not "personal impressions" ... [but] reconstitute the social and historical truth which *all* may judge.' (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 49, his emphasis). Otherwise, such work will be considered 'common' or an ordinary object 'which *ordinary* people put into their *ordinary* existence' (p. 32, his emphasis). It is also said that 'persons of *refinement* know this *instinctively*. For those who do not, rules are needed' (Bourdieu, 1984, p. 68, his emphasis). Therefore, there is a difference between experiential knowledge and cultural knowledge which can distinguish 'persons of refinement'.

Based on the findings from three phases of research and the social theory of Bourdieu, I contend that the identity as academic authors—their personal dimension—is developed over time through refinement and I present the argument in three aspects as follows:

7.3.1.1. *Refinement to achieve the outstanding quality of academic scholarship*

It can be argued that the authorial identity of senior academic scholars has been refined over time to achieve the outstanding quality of academic scholarship. The notion of quality is related to the field, i.e. academia, and this view of what counts as outstanding quality is established through the process of refinement.

Bourdieu contends that social identity is created through differences which come from the 'dualistic typologies' to make a contrast. Through their participation in academic publication, including the peer review process in which score and feedback are given as a way of evaluation, the professor participants have learned about the quality of academic scholarship. They have discerned the differences in how academic scholars, including themselves, approach

research and writing. Along the trajectory, their identity has been refined through these differences in order to epitomise the outstanding quality of academic scholarship.

One of the key findings of this research is that the professor participants were aware that writing for publication forms an integral part of academic identity in the current era. Alongside 'writing', Professor Woodworth also considers 'reviewing' as a part of academic authorship because academic scholars not only write for publication but also review works written by other scholars so that they can maintain the quality of academic scholarship by distinguishing what papers are suitable for publication. Through this peer review process, rejection and feedback could help refine the identity of academic authors because all scholars may judge whether their papers are of high quality to attain the status of refinement—or what Bourdieu refers to as 'cultural nobility'—within their academic community. As Professor Woodworth has recounted, it is not only the system but also the academic scholars themselves who play a role in judging the outstanding quality of academic scholarship.

From this perspective, the 'pressure to publish' emerges. However, writing for publication becomes competitive, not in the sense that there is no place for academic scholars to publish their works, but in the sense that they need to publish only in 'high quality, highly cited' journals. Therefore, Professor Bracton and Professor Wonnacott said that in the past they were able to have fun writing academic papers for the journals they liked. In the current era, however, Professor Wonnacott expressed his concern with open access and blogs where academic scholars might write and publish without quality control which is highly valued in prestigious journals where there are editors and reviewers to improve the quality of academic publication. Therefore, the journals with lower control of quality and no peer review process are in a stark contrast to other 'high quality' outlets and, by implication, they become recognised as 'common' which are a feature of common academic researchers' common academic existence. Those journals belong to the 'mundane' order in comparison to the high quality journals which can be classified as 'scholastic'—owing to the fact that high quality journals with a peer review process can inspire and arouse the feelings of cultural nobility for all researchers to judge. Based on this Bourdieusian perspective, the pressure to publish is actually the pressure to be recognised as

'scholastic' in opposition to 'mundane', namely to become an academic scholar with cultural nobility, and this pressure is one of the elements which plays a major role in refining the authorial identity of academic scholars.

Another element which plays a role in refining the personal dimension of authorial identity is the use of references in academic publication. According to the textual analysis, there were more references in each professor participant's writing over time. Professor Bracton said that early on in her career, her papers were 'much simpler and about simpler things' and she often thought that argumentative papers did not require many citations as academic scholars could argue freely without citing others. Professor Wonnicott commented that some of his feedback in recent journal submissions was to add theories in order to strengthen his empirical research. As for Professor Woodworth, she attributed her higher use of references to the fact that there have been more studies about her research area going on and as such she could read more, know more and consider more about the issues she was researching.

This higher use of evidentials in recent writing might be viewed as a mark of refinement and quality. The fact that professor participants received comments from the panel of reviewers to add certain theories in their papers indicates that arguments through their common understanding (in the sense of experiential knowledge in my understanding of Bourdieu's concept), is not adequate to judge the outstanding quality of an academic paper. To illustrate, Professor Bracton believed that there should be fewer references in a paper with more arguments. To her surprise, however, her most recent paper (Bracton 2012)—which she believed to have more arguments than other papers—contained the highest frequency of references. Professor Woodworth's recent texts also contained more references and she explained that it was due to the growth in knowledge within the research community. Professor Wonnicott also viewed higher frequency of theoretical references in empirical papers as a good practice because 'quality is the addition to knowledge'. In other words, citation of other published works—the knowledge disseminated within the discipline, i.e. cultural knowledge—lend 'scholastic' features to their article, suppressing their 'common' knowledge.

Moreover, the addition of theories and further references helps the professor participants to locate and connect their works to others' works in an intertextual

manner and make their argumentation stronger. According to scholars from information science studies who examine citation networks, references to academic works written by others prevent authors from ‘intellectual isolation’ (White, 2001) because ‘egotist’ authors only cite their own works or engage in self-citations without recognition from others (Lawani, 1982). Although studies in information science show that some authors might cite themselves more frequently than others (see Figure 2.4), the professor participants in this study rarely cited themselves in their five sample texts, as seen in their lower frequency of self-mentions—lower than 1 instance per 1,000 words (see Table 5.1). By engaging in a collaborative approach to referencing, the professor participants have formed ‘intellectual, social and institutional ties’ (Cronin & Shaw, 2002) among academic scholars through citation networks rather than isolating themselves intellectually. As Professor Wonnacott says, his field is ‘such a big field’ and he needs to find new things all the time. In this regard, citation can also be viewed as a mark of knowledge for academic scholars who engage in the intellectual pursuit. It also brings about ‘a more expansive view’ (Emerson, 2012) of the subject matter, meaning that the authors do border crossing on a horizontal scale as part of their development (Engeström, 1996).

By implication, an academic paper with a higher frequency of references might be recognised as a paper with outstanding quality thanks to its intellectual relation to other research studies, which is manifested through the addition of references and theories. (However, there must be caveats that not all kinds of references are deemed equal and that the differences in research genres may have an effect on the frequency of citations, especially in law articles where the review section is an integral part of the legal debate (Tessuto, 2015). See Section 8.3.3 Caveats about findings for further information.

7.3.1.2. *Refinement to live up to the title of nobility: ‘Noblesse oblige’*

As mentioned earlier, professors epitomise the outstanding quality of academic scholarship. In essence, they are cultural nobility *personified*. However, as professors are awarded with the highest title of nobility in academia, there can be many requirements and obligations connected to the title. This ‘noblesse oblige’ mean that they need to refine themselves to ‘live up’ to their own essence and the title of nobility which other academic scholars cherish and dream of.

It is often believed that the title of nobility is related to the sense of authority and, by extension, the ability to refuse petty rules and regulations—namely, freedom. However, the research findings suggest otherwise. It seems that the title of nobility engenders the practice of ‘autodidacticism’ in which the persons of refinement need to accept the requirements implicitly inscribed in the prestige of the cultural nobility. To put it another way, the title of cultural nobility seems to lead to self-discipline.

Although the professor participants in this study related their sense of authority to their academic credentials which had built up through their publication, their academic journey did not end with professorship as their finish line. They still continued to learn and improve themselves in an academic manner. In other words, they taught themselves to become a better scholar. When asked about the sense of authority and establishment, Professor Wonnicot contended that he never felt that he was an ‘established figure’ because the sense of establishment might prevent him from pursuing new academic interests. Therefore, he would always try to find new things because his area of research was a big field. Although he achieved the title of professorship 15 years ago, he still believed that he could learn something out of writing for publication and the peer review process. He rewrote and revised his papers according to the feedback received. He learned a sense of humility when some of his papers were rejected. He even proposed that every professor should experience rejection at least once a year to learn this sense of humility so that their academic works maintain the outstanding level of quality.

As for Professor Woodworth, her sense of authority increased when she became known in the academic community. It is like having the ‘weight of reputation’ behind her and she gained trust from policymakers to get commissioned to do more pieces of research and to respond to consultations and to make an impact through publications. Yet, Professor Woodworth said that she wrote papers to persuade her readers about potential policies rather than strongly criticising existing policies. She would always learn to express her views in better ways and this came from reading and editing works written by others. She also said that she was not precious with her writing when her colleagues made comments and give feedback because those would sharpen her argumentation in her papers.

Professor Bracton expressed a kind of love-hate relationship with writing for publication and her academic title. She claimed that in the past she enjoyed her sense of authority from her long track record of publications but her current sense of authority seemed to have been undermined because of managerial pressures to the extent that she felt she was not good enough and did not deserve the reputation she thought she had. She enjoyed writing for publication because she was in the game. Yet, she felt that there were moments when she lost her joy in writing because she needed to write to meet the target deadline and to meet the criteria. When she was told that one of her papers was evaluated in a mock REF with the maximum score of 2 stars and that was not good enough at her level, she then revised her papers by writing in the way that her papers could reach a higher score in the REF. One major textual feature which has changed in Professor Bracton's recent papers to reflect this refinement is the lower use of code glosses. When she looked at the textual findings, she agreed that she did not explain herself in her writing anymore as her readers are also knowledgeable; they needed no explanation. Moreover, she suggested that the REF, like those in the peer review process, seems to play a role in deciding what counts as a good paper. Descriptive papers are poor quality papers because they give the impression that the author just repeats what everybody else already knows. Her perception was that the whole style of high quality writing has become anti-descriptive and 'anti-explanation' to reflect originality and knowledgeability. As an editor herself, she also urged many young scholars who submitted their papers to her journal to delete the explanatory, descriptive section out of their works to improve the quality of the papers because it just showed that the papers were written by doctoral students or early career academics, namely 'newbies'.

7.3.1.3. *Refinement to recognise and exercise legitimate academic discourse and symbolic power*

Another element which shapes development of authorial identity as academic authors involves the legitimate language and its symbolic power. It is often believed that the words spoken by authority are powerful. However, Bourdieu suggests that the power of words does not reside in the authoritative speakers. He cites an example of the spokesman's speech and explains that actually 'his speech concentrates within it the accumulated symbolic capital of the group

which has delegated him and of which he is the *authorized representative*' (Bourdieu, 1991, p. 111). The spokesman's speech—including the substance of his word and his way of speaking—represents the delegated power which is legitimately vested in him and is recognised by all. Therefore, his form of expression is legitimate and can exercise symbolic power because it represents the authoritative group.

Through training and support from other scholars, the professor participants felt comfortable using academic language and they could recognise the authorised language within academia and what kind of academic writing is good or bad. Through 'correct'—or precisely 'corrected'—form of expression, academic writers conveyed the symbolic power which comes with it. They could recognise the form of expression along with the reason behind it and over time they internalised it into their practice through dualistic typologies of comparison between good and bad forms of expressions and it became their internal logic of practice, or habitus.

One aspect to judge between good and bad forms of academic expression involves the use of first person pronouns. According to the textual findings, the texts written by the three professor participants contained a low frequency of self-mentions or first person singular pronoun (*I*). For all three of them, good academic writing avoids first person singular because it is self-promoting although the use of it by other scholars does not upset them. Professor Wonnacott said that only ministers can use *I* in their writing and therefore he chose the disembodied voice without *I*. However, the use of *I* was still found within their methodological descriptions or their acknowledgements. Moreover, the first person plural form '*we*' was found in all three professor participants' texts although those texts were single-authored because the form '*we*' signalled their engagement with the audience. In some cases, Professor Bracton said that she used '*we*' to mean '*you*' because she could bring her readers on board with her argument. These accounts highlight the internal logic of practice regarding the use of voice according to the circumstances.

Four other recognised forms of expression in academic discourse from this study include the low use of value-laded attitude expressions, the use of passive voice structure, the use of double negative and the high use of contrast markers. Professor Wonnacott said that he was trained not to express value-

laden attitudes in his writing because researchers are not supposed to take sides or show prejudice unless the evidence really leads to it.

As for the passive voice structure and the double negative, Professor Bracton and Professor Woodworth, both in law, linked them to legal discourse. Moreover, double negative expressions become a mark of identity for those who have a background in law, such as some ministers in the Parliament. The professor participants suggested that there are reasons behind such forms and these have been instilled in them since their early years. Professor Woodworth mentioned one example: '*not reasonable*' and '*not unreasonable*'. The difference was subtle yet profound because if she said that the argument is not unreasonable, she was actually saying that she was unsure whether the argument is reasonable. In other words, the double negative does not convey an outright rejection of the possibility. In a similar vein, passive voice structure can be used to convey a subtle difference in expression.

The fourth form of expression which indicates the legitimate status of academic discourse in this study is the higher frequency of contrast markers. All three professor participants suggested that their fields of research are argumentative in nature and, by implication, that their papers are mostly argumentative with many contrast markers. Professor Bracton was surprised by the textual findings. Even though she tried to avoid '*however*' in her writings, she became aware that it might be the core of legal argument. This '*however*' helped her to appreciate that rules (in a legal sense) are not quite absolute as they seem because there is always a caveat. The use of '*however*' has a symbolic power to 'push at the edge of the argument', to use Professor Woodworth's expression.

Based on these findings, it could be argued that academic scholars are refined to use legitimate forms of expression in order to exercise their symbolic power. There are good and bad forms of expression and the academic scholars use their reasons—their internal logic of practice—to judge them, forming the dualistic typologies. These reasons derive from training and support by other scholars as well as from internalising the logic behind those forms of expression so that their expression will be recognised and judged as representing the expression of the authoritative group which has invested such capital in them. These forms, such as passive structure, double negative and contrast expressions, are used to signal the voice of the researcher, the lawyer's identity

and the argumentative nature of their field of research. In other words, these forms exercise symbolic power of the representative group legitimately.

7.3.2. Identity in Writing Is Developed over Time through Metalinguistic Competence

There is a relationship between the personal dimension and the textual dimension of authorial identity. As discussed earlier, the identity as authors is developed over time through refinement and some aspects of change have been seen in their writing. However, that does not give a complete picture as we need to understand how the textual dimension of authorial identity—or their identity in writing—has developed over time and how this textual change is related to the personal dimension. Therefore, I shall use Bakhtin's social theory to discuss the findings.

Bakhtin (1986) shifts the understanding of texts from 'voiceless objects' towards 'utterances' because each text requires two parties: writer and reader. He proposes a new field of study called 'metalinguistics' to move away from linguistics which is a study about language as a system of signs so that we can study utterances as a chain of dialogue. Because Bakhtin uses the prefix '*meta-*' to mean '*beyond*', Todorov (1984) suggests that the name of this new field should be called 'translinguistics' to avoid confusion with the concept of 'metalanguage' which is the language to talk about language use (i.e., reflexivity in language) in Jakobson's (1980) terminology. The influence of Jakobson's metalanguage as a reflexive tool can be found in research studies about metalinguistic development in which writers learn about and develop metalanguage, or 'a language with which [a person uses] to talk about writing processes and textual possibilities' (Myhill & Jones, 2007, p. 340) and there are other related concepts such as 'metalinguistic knowledge' and 'metalinguistic awareness' which refer to knowledge about linguistics, awareness about language use and 'conscious control of linguistic decision-making' (Myhill, Jones, Lines, & Watson, 2012, p. 143). Similarly, Martin and Rose (2007) suggest that with their metalanguage framework as shown in Table 2.2, discourse analysts can analyse how a writer encodes experiences and social events in a texts to see the relationship from grammar to text to social activity systematically. For Bakhtin, this approach to language studies through encoding and decoding is viewed as a way to treat language as a system of signs

because he emphasises the realm ‘beyond’ this system of signs and argues that ‘[m]etalinguage is not simply a code; it always has a dialogic relationship to the language it describes and analyses’ (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 136). From the dialogical relationship, there are many extralinguistic aspects for utterances, such as addressivity, answerability, unfinalizability, evaluative accent and superaddressee. Therefore, it is suggested that this dialogical relationship ‘falls within the sphere of *competence* of translinguistics’ (Todorov, 1984, p. 61; my emphasis). Due to this human capability to create texts as utterances in a wider dialogue, it could be argued that human beings have ‘metalinguistic’ or ‘translinguistic’ competence, not only linguistic competence.

My use of the term ‘*metalinguistic competence*’ might bring to mind Chomsky’s (1965) linguistic competence which is about the native speaker’s knowledge of the ideal language system to generate previously unspoken sentences, and Hymes’ (1977) communicative competence which is about the appropriateness of language use in a particular context. Nevertheless, Bakhtin’s framework moves beyond this realm of system and appropriateness towards a dialogical reader-writer relationship. I retain the term ‘*metalinguistic*’ as used in Bakhtin’s writings whereas the term ‘*competence*’ is derived from Todorov (1984) as mentioned above to signal the developmental metaphor and to discuss how the professor participants develop their identity in writing over time. I shall present the discussion about the metalinguistic competence in the development of the identity in writing among academic scholars in three aspects as follows:

7.3.2.1. *Metalinguistic Competence to Write Papers as Utterances*

The main argument by Bakhtin about language use is that it is dialogic. Therefore, any use of language is a part of a wider dialogue in which there are addressees and, as such, the authors anticipate future utterances. Academic papers are not a mere report of academic work but they enter into a realm of communication with other texts. The higher use of references over time among the sample texts indicates that the professor participants’ recent papers have played an active role in joining an academic dialogue because they are highly ‘intertextual’. The intertextuality of academic writing signals the academic authors’ development of metalinguistic competence to write their works as utterances in a chain of communication within their research community to embrace addressivity and answerability.

One of Professor Bracton's accounts suggested that she considered academic writing to be a part of conversation with others. She stated that it could be difficult for her to just write. She was asked to write chapters about certain topics as a favour to her colleagues who edited their books. They only said 'write what you like' and it might seem straightforward for many scholars. However, it was different for her. Although she knew about these topics quite well, she said that she did not know what to write about. She needed a point of view so that she could begin her writing. If she did not have a point of view at that moment, she said that she would fake one so that she could initiate her argument. By doing so, Professor Bracton did not treat her text as a standalone object but pushed it to enter into a dialogical sphere of argumentation within the research community.

This account might be treated as common-sense knowledge because surely academic scholars write to communicate their ideas to others. However, Bakhtin's theory can be compared to other theories about writing development such as Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) two models of writing as in knowledge-telling and knowledge transforming. For them, the main focus is on the process and although rhetorical goals do form an important element in the knowledge-transforming model, this knowledge-transforming model is mainly intended to help the writer develop an understanding of the topic, not to enter into a dialogue with others. To put it another way, the writer's knowledge (content space) is retrieved, generated and elaborated in relation to the writer's goal (rhetorical space) during the text production of the knowledge-transforming model (Galbraith, 2009). The idea of readers might crop up but Bakhtin would say that such readers are 'passive' in the process of communication because those writers usually use prompts and cues as a formalistic approach to transform their knowledge of the topic (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1987; cited in Galbraith, 2009) rather than treating their readers as equally 'active' participants in the chain of communication.

For Professor Bracton, topic is not enough. Topic must have a point of reference and become a point of departure. As noted in her interviews, she published a paper which addressed the issue of misunderstanding about the definition of one legal term and this required her to investigate past papers about it. She received quite a harsh criticism from other scholars and needed to

write a reply in the next issue. Professor Wonnacott mentioned the Socratic tradition in social sciences and he adopted that approach in his writing for publication. He started with a question and a hypothesis and he tested out such a hypothesis in order to formulate his argument. It may appear to be similar to the knowledge-transforming model of writing but although Professor Wonnacott transformed his knowledge through writing, his written work did not stop there because it would become a message for others to interpret and re-interpret it as he put it in the second interview about the Socratic tradition of argument:

The legal system is set up with two opposing sides and they argue. So, you put forward a case and then it is the duty of the other side to test the case with the most rigorous examination with interpretation and re-interpretation as you possibly can. (Professor Wonnacott)

Therefore, it can be argued that the professor participants write their papers with a message as part of a wider dialogue. Their papers address other papers, such as Professor Bracton's reinvestigation of other texts regarding the misuse of one legal term, and their papers anticipate answers from others, such as Professor Wonnacott's treatment of his writing as a case so that others can test it with interpretation and re-interpretation.

Moreover, academic papers often contain an internal dialogicality which Lillis (2003) calls 'dialogue as something to struggle for' which acknowledges the tension between various forces or ideas. Professor Woodworth remarked that her message was set up as an internal debate with herself. It was a 'dialogue to struggle for' between two or more arguments, or voices, which she needed to deal with. Therefore, it can be implied that argumentation has become an exercise of internal persuasion for academic authors because all voices have an equal right to emerge in a dialogue, as part of the ongoing utterances.

7.3.2.2. *Metalinguistic Competence to Deal with the Others' Voices/Worldviews*

Since texts become utterances in a dialogue, texts are neither a monologue nor a soliloquy. Texts become a 'dialogue as something to struggle for', as Lillis (2003) puts it, in which many voices come into a tension and, by extension, many truths and worldviews would like to take centre stage. Therefore, academic authors need to negotiate with the others' voices and the others' truths/worldviews in the multivoiced world; hence, the development of

metalinguistic competence to deal with the other-speech-ness, or 'heteroglossia' in Bakhtin's terminology.

Examples of how the professor participants dealt with the others' voices are reflected in the use of hedges to tone down certainty as well as to achieve persuasiveness, the use of contrast markers to show a caveat and the use of a conciliatory tone to reduce the level of aggression. Besides, this aspect of metalinguistic competence extends beyond the text production as the professor participants learn to negotiate with the feedback given by other scholars to revise their texts and to find a new outlet for their message.

In writing an argumentative paper, Professor Woodworth claimed that her argument is almost an internal debate with herself rather than engaging with her readers. Based on the textual analysis of her sample texts, her arguments often ended with a question or many questions for her readers to continue the debate. She explained that by asking questions '*What if?*' '*What if?*' '*What if?*' as part of her argumentation, she could tone down her certainty. The facts in one scenario might be different somewhere else. Therefore, her argument became more persuasive. If she wrote with certainty, it seemed that she 'bashed on the head' of her readers and they would come up with anything to prove her argument wrong.

In a similar vein, Professor Bracton's recent texts showed a much higher proportion of hedges in comparison to boosters which were remarkably frequent in her early papers. In the past, Professor Bracton often received a comment that her papers contained an angry tone with a one-sided worldview. Although she contended that she is still opinionated about the subject matter, she explained that she learned to adopt a calmer tone and to express her views with a caveat. She associated her lower use of boosters in her recent texts with her lower level of aggression to make her texts 'sound' a mature tone. The higher use of contrast markers in her texts also signals that a caveat in her argument was acknowledged because nothing is absolute. She used contrast markers such as '*however*' as a way to pre-empt her readers from challenging her points of view and it might appear annoying. Yet, Professor Bracton viewed equivocal papers without contrasts to be boring because they lack a position and an inspiration. To express an attitude in an implicit manner, she said that she used certain words such as '*even*' as cheat words to hide away an angry tone (*'even*

on clear evidence'), like an advocate who uses gentle language to challenge his opponent in the most destructive way without a critical appearance. Other instances in her texts which might indicate this calm tone included a mixture between confident and uncertain expressions in the same sentence such as

'It is likely that many a defendant has escaped from conviction, even on clear evidence that the harm caused was an inevitable consequence of his act.' (Bracton 1981)

'Lord [Smith] certainly does not appear to think that ...' (Bracton 1981)

'such an exercise would of course be impossible.' (Bracton 1997)

'it seems that the only barrier to full engagement is due to ...' (Bracton 2012)

Through such mixture or hybrid discourse between confidence and uncertainty, her papers look more polite and less confrontational yet still transmit a clear authorial view. Moreover, these examples indicate that the utterances are multivoiced because they perform a hybrid identity between two voices—certainty and uncertainty. Still, it should be noted here that her early papers contained a higher frequency of boosters when compared to her recent ones and, by implication, it might be one reason why she received the comment that her worldviews in her early papers were rather one-sided.

Because Bakhtin's metalinguistic approach goes beyond the system of signs towards the realm of heterogeneity in thinking, it can be implied that metalinguistic competence also appears outside the texts. It is important for the professor participants to negotiate their worldviews with other scholars who give feedback to them for revision. Instead of revising their texts according to all the comments received, Professor Bracton and Professor Wonnacott would say that their revision is selective. They needed to judge which comment was useful and which was not helpful. Although the professor participants did not ignore the feedback they received, they would express their viewpoints with their editors and reviewers regarding these issues if they believed that such revision was meant to please the editors or the reviewers. Both agreed that the feedback can change their perspectives and improve their texts and that the participation in the peer review process has enriched their personal growth in academic authorship and maturity in argumentation, but they still viewed the feedback as part of the heterogeneity in thinking to get their message across to other

scholars within the research community. In some cases, their papers were rejected but they learned to overcome this rejection and the fear of rejection by resubmitting to other outlets. The fact that Professor Bracton's previously rejected paper was published somewhere else and was graded as the top band in the REF suggests the multiplicity of worldviews or 'multivoicedness' within academic institutions. Presumably, the ability to move on after rejection, or not being heard by one journal, might be viewed as part of metalinguistic competence in terms of the ability to deal with heterogeneity in thinking. It seems that Professor Wonnacott's account of many young academic scholars who leave academic institutions after a series of rejections is particularly relevant to this aspect of metalinguistic competence because the rejected paper, or the 'unheard' voice, might be heard somewhere else. Academic authors write for publication as part of a greater dialogue which is unfinalisable. Writing is not 'voiceless' and it cannot be silenced. Writing can still be heard as long as it attempts to enter the dialogical sphere of academia.

7.3.2.3. Metalinguistic Competence to Express Extra-Linguistic Authorial Speech

Bakhtin (1986) argues that text is not a ready-made object. It 'is created in the process of creativity, as are the poet himself, his world view, and his means of expression' (p. 120). In this way, academic writers create themselves, their world view and their means of expression in the process of creativity when they write their works. This means of expression might be discussed in terms of extra-linguistic authorial speech and the research findings suggest that the professor participants have developed metalinguistic competence to express their extra-linguistic authorial speech.

The features of the extra-linguistic authorial speech which Bakhtin has in mind involve the chronotope, or the time-space of the speech event, and the relation between the two interlocutors which gives rise to the evaluation, namely the evaluative accent. There are many aspects of the evaluative accent, ranging from the relationship with the readers, the worldviews or ideologies and the themes.

The first aspect of the evaluative accent is related to the aspect of getting the message across when the professor participants evaluate their readers. In the

textual analysis of Professor Bracton's recent texts, the lower frequency of code glosses reflects the fact that her readers were knowledgeable and as such they did not require further explanation about certain topics she mentioned because they could still look at the footnotes she provided. Moreover, it mirrors her perception of the criteria set by the REF regarding what counts as a high quality paper according to the literacy practices of academic institutions. Moreover, who is likely to read the paper is also assessed. Professor Wonnicott's sample texts contained words such as '*students*' and '*practitioners*' to reflect his assessment of the targeted readers in his mind. This metalinguistic competence suggests that the evaluation of the readers is tied to the chronotope of the dialogue—i.e., the space-time on which the paper will be published (in this context it might be conceived of as the journal), the kind of audience the academic authors expect to read and the literacy practices which take place.

As regards the evaluative accent through worldviews and ideologies, it is enacted through the implication which a statement offers. To illustrate, Professor Wonnicott's sample texts contained many uses of the word '*indeed*' to offer another perspective and to signal his emphasis on the message he conveyed. Another example is Professor Bracton's use of the word '*we*' to mean '*you*' and her use of words such as '*even*' and '*despite*' in relation to the readers' recommendation to reduce her strong level of criticism because words like '*even*' and '*despite*' not only *reflects* the truth in her sources' account but also *refracts* it by showing that there is a caveat in their account as in:

Despite occasional acknowledgement of the weaknesses [of the policy], [their paper] proposes nothing more substantial than tinkering with it. (Bracton 1997)

This extract shows that by using '*despite*' Professor Bracton viewed the other's account as partly right. It gave her a 'caveat' to add her evaluative judgement. Professor Woodworth's use of questions as part of argumentation can also be considered as an evaluative accent to tone down her certainty and to allow interpretation and judgement by her readers. These examples of their metalinguistic competence signal how each utterance in writing is always imbued with an evaluative accent.

In terms of the themes—or what can be spoken—which arise as part of the evaluation, it can be understood as 'interaddressivity', the term Matusov (2011)

uses for the fact that two interlocutors address each other during the ongoing dialogue. To put it another way, what we speak and write is actually directed towards what our interlocutor might say or reply. However, that interlocutor has neither spoken nor written yet and, as such, the other interlocutor becomes superaddressee or other 'I'. Therefore, the theme 'animates' the conversation for both parties to address each other. One example of this 'interaddressivity' is Professor Limerick's account of why professors prefer dull writing: 'everyone thinks that the other guy is the one who demands dull, impersonal prose' (cited in Sword, 2012). Another example is when Professor Bracton gave an evaluative comment on some papers written by early career academic scholars who submitted for publication at the journal she edited to cut out the explanatory sections in order to reflect the outstanding quality of scholarship rather than the 'newbie' status. This comment mirrors Professor Bracton's evaluative perception of her readers—or her superaddressee—about the theme, or what they would like to hear.

One thing to be noted with Bakhtin's application in this study is that 'selfhood is not a particular voice within, but a particular way of combining many voices within' (Morson & Emerson, 1990, p. 221). There might be multiple socially available speech genres, or voices, or discourses but these will become 'secondary speech genres' when they have direct encounters with the people who create utterances (Bakhtin, 1986). This means that people shift from discourse as social organisation towards discourse in local activity when they use various secondary speech genres to introduce primary speech genres (Smith, 1998). The example of the shift of discourse from social organisation to local activity might be discussed in relation to how the professor participants approached—or entered into a relationship with—the modality markers in their utterances.

If modality markers, such as *'may'*, *'might'*, *'can'* and *'could'*, are treated as tools, there should be appropriate or inappropriate ways to use tools. To illustrate, it would be 'inappropriate' or ineffective to use a fork with soup when there was a spoon at hand. However, this is not always true with language because the relationship between the users and language will provide the users with means of expressions and create the users as well as their worldviews in the process. If modality is put into a linguistic system of signs and with the tool metaphor,

modality markers can only convey one fixed meaning in each instance. However, it will not be so when modality markers move 'beyond' a system of signs and the tool metaphor. When they are used in real utterances, they shift from secondary speech genres towards local, concrete activity to form primary speech genres of the author. During the second interviews, each professor participant suggested their individual logic behind the use of modality markers. Professor Bracton believed that there are technical differences between these modality markers when she used in her utterances, such as conditional and subjunctive moods. Professor Wonnacott used them in relation to his perception of the evidence whereas Professor Woodworth used them to reflect her cautious attitude. They all approach the linguistic resources in a different manner and these individual approaches are integral to their extra-linguistic authorial speech to reflect the fact that our use of discourse can never achieve the complete agreement about the best way to use it; discourse is 'interproblematic'.

Matusov (2011) argue that this interproblematicity from Bakhtin's theory differs from Vygotsky's theory on tool mediation in that for Vygotsky, the use of language will lead to complete intersubjective understanding through agreement but for Bakhtin, this complete intersubjective understanding can never be achieved because every utterance is double-voiced and it always contains two parts—i.e., the actualised part and the implied part. The actualised part comes from the reiterative system of signs in language whereas the implied part resides in the extraverbal context of the utterance (Todorov, 1984). If a text were treated as a collection of sentences as if it contained only the actualised part, it would be possible to achieve the 'correct' translation because both texts would reflect their own system of signs. However, if we treat a text as having two parts, such text cannot be fully translated because such text is equipped with the extraverbal aspect from the implied part. This extraverbal aspect from the implied part is what makes it possible for another consciousness and voice to exist, leading to interpretation and disagreement. Therefore, utterances contain evaluative accents and can be evaluated. Language and discourse becomes alive and living as human beings are.

Other examples which are closely related to the 'interproblematic' nature of language use in real utterances are found in the users' beliefs about language

uses. Ivanič (1998), for example, argues for the use of 'I' and the form '-ize' in her works. She contends that the identity of the researcher is important for the research rigour in her studies which are based on a critical language awareness approach because researchers need to have a critical awareness of their own works; hence, the use of 'I' in her research studies. Moreover, she argues that the form '-ise' (such as in '*criticise*' rather than '*criticize*') is problematic for dyslexic students who rely on phonemes, not graphemes; hence, her use of the form which corresponds to the sound system. Further, Harwood's (2006) study into a group of political scientists' use of first person pronouns in their writing suggests that his informants have different beliefs about the (in)appropriate use of such words and, in many cases, his informants judge their peers' use of such forms to be 'inappropriate', expressing dislike and suggesting that such use is not to their taste. In other words, each believes that their use is appropriate but judges the others' use to be inappropriate or problematic; hence, 'interproblematic'.

Therefore, my use of 'metalinguistic competence' to discuss the development of the textual dimension of authorial identity needs to be viewed from a dialogic perspective. It seems that Gombert's (1990) approach to metalinguistic development which is based on Jakobson's notion of metalanguage is primarily concerned with the author's ability to reflect on language use or to talk about language use, probably to be aware of their linguistic decision-making based on a system of (meta)linguistic knowledge which usually results in 'awareness of the social rules of language', or what works, namely intersubjective understanding and agreement of the 'appropriate' use. From Bakhtin's dialogic perspective, by contrast, metalinguistic competence is primarily concerned with the author's ability to 'appropriate' language through extraverbal aspects as part of the author's own utterance, to move from secondary speech towards primary speech, to suggest their relationship with their readers, to insert their worldviews, to address their theme, to express their belief about such linguistic expression and to imply that other forms of expression can be problematic. In other words, it is the author's speech, the author's 'voice' in a situated activity.

Therefore, the author's speech which contains these extra-linguistic elements can never be judged 'appropriate' by everybody in every context because different people may have a different view about it, leading to disagreement due

to the heterogeneity in thinking. Still, it is a process of creativity in which academic authors create themselves, their worldviews and their expressions through these extra-linguistic elements which are based on multiplevoicedness or heteroglossia. That is why Lillis (2003), using Bakhtin's concept, argues that dialogue is something to struggle for; it is a struggle to keep these problematic differences in play.

7.4. Summary

In the first two sections of this chapter, I have discussed the research findings in relation to other research studies about the personal and textual dimensions of authorial identity. It seems that the struggles experienced by the other groups of writers in the research literature derive from their sequestered participation in academic literacies whereas the professor participants in this study have overcome these struggles and experienced their academic writing as a networked activity. With regard to the textual dimension, the textual findings of the professor participants' writing over time contribute to the previous literature in that although analysing the frequency of metadiscourse markers is useful in contrastive rhetoric, the application of metadiscourse in textual analysis with and without the timescale can provide different insights into writing development, especially viewing voice as a situated activity rather than a fixed entity. Then, I have discussed the development of authorial identity in relation to social theories and have argued that the personal dimension of authorial identity—or the identity as authors—is developed over time through the concept of 'refinement' in which the professor participants have become 'persons of refinement' over time by striving for the outstanding quality of academic scholarship in relation to their title of cultural nobility and legitimate academic discourse. Further, the textual dimension of authorial identity—or the identity in writing—is developed over time through the concept of 'metalinguistic competence' in which the professor participants have engaged in the 'extra-linguistic aspects' of academic discourse to write their papers as utterances in a wider dialogue and to deal with others' worldviews as part of their authorial expression through evaluative accents embedded in their expression or 'speech', which suggests a conceptual shift from the ability to use 'appropriate'

social rules of language towards the ability to 'appropriate' language along with extra-linguistic aspects.

Chapter 8. Conclusion

In this chapter, I conclude my thesis with a research summary before I present the research contributions and implications. Then, I make a critique of my own research to offer caveats about this study and I suggest potentials for further research. Afterwards, I discuss my self-reflections on this research journey and end this thesis with a coda.

8.1. Research Summary

The main question of this research is how senior academic scholars develop their authorial identity along the trajectory of their professorship. There are three sub-questions and I will answer them briefly here before I answer the main question.

Sub-Question 1: How do the professors develop their identity as academic authors over time?

The lived experiences of the professor participants suggest that academic influences such as the pressure to publish, the peer review process and the REF have shaped their development as academic authors in terms of external sources for change. Their accounts of academic publication experiences indicate the personal growth as their internal source of development and they perceive those experiences in relation to their senses of authority, pride in achievement and weaknesses. Further, their accounts imply how they draw on a cultural reservoir of academic language to build up their own repertoire of language use in academic publication. Their experiences of academic publication suggest that the engagement in academic publication as a social activity involves getting the message across, dealing with feedback received and revising their works to meet the demands of other scholars. For them, the struggle to write for publication during the early years of academic life entails various issues including the fear of rejection, the neutrality of argumentation, the lost sense of joy in writing to meet deadlines and the pressure to deliver high quality output.

Sub-Question 2: How do the professors' texts indicate their identity in their writing over time?

The textual analysis of the academic papers sampled from each professor participant's writings over time from their early careers until now using a mixture of Hyland's metadiscourse taxonomy and Fairclough's approach has suggested that interactive categories (including evidentials, code glosses, transition markers) were generally more frequent than interactional categories (including boosters, hedges, self-mentions and engagement markers) in most papers. Still, a close examination of each professor participant's sample texts has revealed several key features. First, there was a higher frequency of evidentials (or 'referencing') over time. In other words, the most recent paper in the sample texts of each professor participant contained twice or three times the frequency of references when compared to their earliest paper in the sample texts. This higher frequency of referencing has played a role in making the interactive group more frequent than the interactional group. Second, there was evidence that code glosses and boosters appeared to have a lower frequency over time, particularly in Professor Bracton's writings. Further, hedges appeared to remain quite frequent whereas self-mentions remained quite low across the sample texts. These features can be analysed in terms of argumentation, getting the message across, referencing, attitude and being an academic author.

Sub-Question 3: How do the professors reflect on and make sense of the findings from the textual analysis of their writing?

The professor participants have made several reflections upon the textual findings. Their accounts of referencing have suggested the role of evidentials in the development of academic scholarship in their recent publication. The knowledgeability of academic journal readership and the need to move beyond descriptive comments have been implied to contribute to the lower frequency of code glosses when the professor participants got their message across in their recent papers which needed to be rated highly to reflect their academic title. The transition markers in argumentation, especially those of contrast and addition, have helped the professor participants to push at the edge of academic debate and to strengthen their argument. Therefore, the quality of their argumentation is closely identified with their level of academic scholarship. In this way, the professor participants have learned to be aware of the

legitimacy of the attitudes they can express in their writing to build up their reputation as an outstanding academic researcher with persuasiveness and a conciliatory tone. Their accounts have also indicated how the conventions of academic writing have influenced their scholarly publication and, by extension, their identity as academic authors. To illustrate, the low frequency of self-mentions in their papers and their preference over stylistic 'we' have hinted at their inculcated recognition of legitimate discourse in academic writing in their field. Similarly, they contend that the use of the passive structure instead of the active one and the use of 'double negative' are not uncommon in their writings because these linguistic features have their internal logic to help them express their ideas and their arguments as academic authors to the audience in a much more efficacious manner.

Research Question: How do senior academic scholars develop their authorial identity along the trajectory of professorship?

In light of social theories, the findings from the three phases of research suggest that although there is a trace of collective transformation among the senior academic scholars through the peer review process in which the professor participants become both authors and reviewers, helping transform their research community by maintaining the quality of academic scholarship among colleagues, the development of authorial identity on an individual level seems to be best described as and discussed by the concepts of 'refinement' and 'metalinguistic competence' in relation to individual maturity and multivoiced negotiation. The professor participants in this study have developed their personal dimension of authorial identity by turning themselves into 'persons of refinement' in which they have learned to recognise and exercise the legitimate academic discourse and they have undergone a kind of auto-didacticism to achieve the outstanding quality of academic scholarship recognised by the research community in order to live up to their 'noblesse oblige', or the obligation which comes from their academic title. Moreover, the professor participants have developed their metalinguistic competence in their writing or the ability to negotiate the issues of meaning and power 'beyond' the linguistic structure of academic discourse. To illustrate, they are well aware that their papers will enter into a dialogical sphere of argumentation within the research community like utterances in a wider dialogue and therefore they need to deal

with different worldviews or 'voices' of the others in their community. Further, their written papers often reflect their evaluative judgements, such as who their readers will be, what level of knowledge their readers might have, what topic or theme they can address, what level of criticality they can display, how they perceive their own evidence in relation to others' evidence, how their readers are likely to respond as well as how they approach other sources of reference to shift from secondary speech towards primary speech. These extraverbal aspects constitute the professor participants' extra-linguistic authorial speech which breathes their own 'voice' into their written texts, allowing their texts to express themselves with other texts.

8.2. Research Contributions and Implications

In relation to the research gap mentioned in Chapter 3, the research findings have contributed to an empirical understanding of writer development as follows:

First, the research findings have shed light on the developmental pathway in academic writing from the same academic scholars over time in that the lived experiences of academic authorship as recounted by all three professor participants are not only shaped by academic influences such as the pressure to publish, the peer review process and the REF but also built up around their personal growth through scholarly publication to establish their sense of pride and authority in academia. At the same time, the feedback from the editors and the reviewers has allowed the professor participants to become aware of areas for improvement and to recognise the legitimacy of academic discourse. By extension, the peer review process has paved a way for the professor participants to 'refine' themselves to live up to the title of outstanding quality established within the academic institutions. The higher frequency of references in their recent papers suggests how the professor participants have been engaging in the academic scholarship of their discipline by citing more references to back up and strengthen their arguments and, by doing so, they have linked their papers to a body of research in their field where there are more relevant studies going on. In these circumstances and based on Bourdieu's theory of refinement, it seems that citation has become a mark of cultural knowledge and that the outstanding quality of academic scholarship

relies on the fact that cultural knowledge has been interconnected through citation networks. Therefore, the status of professorship does not always matter for argumentation because their papers have often been reviewed anonymously in the peer review process for the judgement of academic quality through the interconnection of their papers to a body of cultural knowledge via evidentials or references. The implication is that the personal development of writing for publication can be related to the concept of autodidacticism in that academic scholars learn to develop themselves over time by reading works written by other scholars and by listening to the feedback given by others for the refinement of their academic scholarship. One approach to suggest for doctoral students and early career academic scholars might be that they read works written by their peers in similar areas of research to recognise the cultural knowledge and learn to overcome the fear of rejection by acknowledging that the practice of peer review is aimed at maintaining and enhancing the outstanding quality of academic scholarship.

Second, the research findings have provided an illuminating account of how academic scholars have developed themselves through the peer review process on the trajectory of professorship. The professor participants suggest that academic authorship in the peer review process involves both writing and reviewing. Therefore, it can be argued that writing for publication is essentially a co-authoring activity, in which there is a network of activities between writers and other scholars. Academic authors write their works for others to be reviewed and at the same time they review works written by the others. This peer review process can help maintain the quality of academic scholarship. Therefore, it can be implied that to develop identity as academic authors requires this kind of networked activity from early on in one's career. The implication is that doctoral students (including me) learn to develop themselves as academic authors when their supervisors read their works and give comments so that they can improve their writing. Another approach is through use of a writing group which is quite common among academic scholars so that they can learn to deal with received comments and feedback to improve their own writing. Moreover, the reviewing process can increase the sense of humility among academic scholars as a way to improve the academic quality and to overcome the fear of rejection. In this way, scholarly writing helps both authors

and reviewers flourish as academic authors through collective transformation because it brings many academic scholars into the network of publication. Still, one question arises as to how to reach out to off-networked scholars so that they can enter the network. Presumably, off-networked scholars might also need to take a proactive attitude from the very beginning to start engaging with the network instead of feeling isolated and left out of the group. The feel for the game needs to be instilled so that off-networked scholars feel more comfortable submitting their works for publication.

Third, the research findings have offered an understanding of the struggles for scholarly publication and the negotiations which the professor participants have handled when there are many different voices within academia. The sample texts written by the professor participants have indicated that persuasiveness and a conciliatory tone are important for an efficacious argumentation. With the lower frequency of confident expressions, the professor participants have reduced their level of aggressiveness and critical outlook. Further, the knowledgeable of the readership and the quality of academic scholarship based on original contribution have contributed to the lower frequency of code glosses in recent papers so that the professor participants may avoid descriptive comments which are often seen as repetition of others' ideas. The findings from the textual analysis coupled with the reflective interviews with the professor participants suggest that they have developed metalinguistic competence beyond the realm of language as a system of signs by writing their papers as part of a wider dialogue in their research community. Moreover, there are many instances of both hedges and boosters in the same statement, making it ambiguous to say whether the author's statement conveys a polite tone or a confident expression, reflecting the concept of heterogeneity in thinking and others' voices in human utterances. Besides, there are other extralinguistic aspects which lend the professor participants' statements the quality of authorial speech such as their evaluative judgement of the readers, the themes they can address, the perceptions of the world they hold when they use modal verbs, and the way they incorporate others' voices into their own statements. The implication for this understanding of multivoiced negotiation in academic publication is that metalinguistic competence can indicate the textual development of authorial identity. For academic writers, a topic of academic

interest should be viewed as a point of reference and a point of departure so that they can place their written work as an utterance in a chain of dialogue with other texts. Since any academic text has its intertextual relationship with other texts, it is important for academic scholars to negotiate the different worldviews or voices which circulate within the research community by putting secondary speeches into their authorial speech and by being aware of extra-linguistic features such as addressivity to other texts, answerability or feedback from other scholars, evaluative judgements of readers and themes as well as the interproblematicity of language use in real utterances.

8.3. Caveats or Critique of My Research

From a non-positivist perspective, there are many truths, or at least many versions of truth. Therefore, this research can only claim to be just one truth among many, or one version of the truth, and it needs a caveat, or possibly many caveats. My readers need to be critical of my research; hence, *caveat lector*. In this section, I make a critique of my research in order to offer caveats about the study into the development of authorial identity among senior academic scholars.

8.3.1. Caveats about Research Literature and Social Theories

The literature review in this study is not a just literature review but it is an argument that various theories can shape different conceptions of writing and identity development. In other words, there are many different ways of understanding the issue of authorial identity development and these conceptions are related to different research approaches.

I expanded Lea and Street's models of academic writing to include other existing theories about the subject matter. Other well-known scholars in their own fields might not object to this 'restructuring' and 'reclassification' but they might believe that their theories could fit more than one model or that their approaches involve more than the issues Lea and Street originally proposed. I extend my apology to them if they find that my reclassification has done their theories any disservice. However, I hope that this restructuring has helped us all acknowledge that there are many models, and by extension, many approaches to the study of academic writing and that no single model is perfect on its own.

By linking them to other theories, hopefully, we can sharpen our understanding of 'academic literacies' which seem to be multivoiced in nature.

Further, I sharpened and problematized my understanding of academic discourse and identity by discussing three social theorists (Bourdieu, Foucault and Bakhtin) to suggest that each social theorist gives rise to a different conception of the issue and their theories lead to different implications. Initially, I did a synthesis of all theories to put forward my own theoretical framework about this issue. However, I found that such a synthesis might reinforce 'the pressure to take a position' in the practice of academic scholarship. Therefore, I took it out from the literature review in this final version. Such inclination to take a position, I believe, is only related to the rhetorical purpose or what Graff (2003) calls 'argument literacy' in which academic scholars choose one side to 'align to' or to 'resist'. In this study, I decided to refrain from taking a side before I began Phase 1. By doing so, I might have followed Bakhtinian scholarship in that I had allowed many conflicting theories circulating around my research study. However, I believed that my attempt to prevent myself from taking only one theory or synthesizing these theories before I began collecting my data had helped me gain an opportunity to think about my research data in relation to the research literature and social theories at a later stage.

8.3.2. Caveats about Methodology

The caveats about methodology include the issues of sample size, the disciplines sampled in this study, the requirements of the journal where the sample texts were published, the contents and the types of research articles analysed in this study. These issues have already been addressed in Chapter 3 before I conducted the research. Further, there are issues of philosophical assumption, research design, interview schedule and textual analysis.

Cameron et al. (1992) suggest that their purpose of research into language and society is threefold in that researchers study '**on, for, with**' their participants to achieve empowerment. My research was conducted with such a purpose but one caveat about this purpose is the question of empowerment. Do the findings from this research empower academic scholars? Who do they empower, the professors or those who are not? Do the findings challenge or empower 'the

regimes of truth' about academic publication? These questions are only a starting point for further research.

In terms of my research design, it was based on a multiple methods approach. However, I initially intended to use narrative inquiry with the interview phases but it did not seem to work well with this study. Before I began the first phase of this research, I developed an interview schedule according to the narrative inquiry tradition and I conducted an interview with one professor to pilot the research tool. The narrative approach did not connect well with the textual analysis in the next phase so I needed to use a thematic coding approach instead. I still believe that narrative approach can be a useful method for enquiry about human development but it might not work out in this study because of a few reasons. First, my participants were professors and their time is limited by their workload. It was very kind of them to have participated in this research. A narrative approach might shed more light if it is used with the participants who have more time at hand for researchers so that we can see their autobiographical self over time. Second, the findings from the narrative approach can be rich and diverse, making it difficult to link their narratives with the textual analysis, especially the kind of textual analysis which I did. I believe that with narrative inquiry, the texts can be analysed using a 'Text Histories' approach (Lillis & Curry, 2010) to shed light on how those texts play a role in the development of individual scholars.

As regards my interview schedules, they were not always a way to exchange views or 'inter-views', as Kvale (1996) suggests. Firstly, I have to admit that I conducted my interviews with awe, or reverence out of fear. Because my participants were professors, I had many worries during the first phase. I was worried that my interview questions were not clear enough. I was worried that they might not want to give details about their development as academic authors and their sample texts and if that really happened, I might keep silent about it rather than trying to rephrase the question to ask them again. I was also worried that I might make a bad impression on my first meeting with the professor participants and they might choose to withdraw from this study later on. Those were worries and I am glad that they are gone now. Secondly, the professor participants seemed to give an 'educating' discourse on their experience of academic development, telling me how to become a better

academic scholar in the future. Thirdly, although I wanted to let the professor participants talk freely about the questions I asked in the third phase (such as '*What is your view about this [higher frequency / form of expression]?*'), there were many moments when the professor participants explicitly asked me what I specifically wanted to know from them. For example, at first Professor Bracton could not work out why I wanted to know her view about the expression '*This article examines*' until I told her other forms of expression.

In terms of textual analysis, there are caveats about the sample size, the discipline to which the texts belong and the approach I adopted for analysis. In this research, I analysed 5 sample texts from each professor participant as a way to compromise between manual analysis (one or a few texts) and corpus analysis (over 10 texts). However, there were many other texts written by the professor participants which I did not analyse. The findings from these five sample texts have indicated something about the development of their identity in writing but they cannot proclaim to indicate everything because it is impossible with this sample size. Another concern about the findings is that the sample texts belonged to only two disciplines—law and politics. Further, my application of a metadiscourse approach in this study might not be fully consistent with Hyland's (2005) taxonomy because it was originally used with academic papers with a reference list on corpus software. However, textual studies based on metadiscourse vary from one taxonomy to another, as discussed in the literature review, and there have been many arguments regarding its concepts, its usages as well as its applications. It appears that metadiscourse scholars do not reach full agreement on all aspects of metadiscourse. Can this be an indication of the (sub)heterogeneity in thinking and the interproblematicity?

8.3.3. Caveats about Findings

The findings from the interview phases might have provided many insights. However, there were other issues which were left unanswered, probably because they were not asked in the first place or because they emerged after the interview sessions. To illustrate, the aspect of autobiographical self in the discursive construction of identity in academic writing, which Ivanič (1998) proposes in relation to Bourdieu's concept of 'habitus', could have been explored in more detail if I had asked the professor participants about their

biography according to a narrative approach. However, such questions regarding their biography were not practical with the professor participants in this study due to several reasons including time constraints, access, rapport, confidentiality and scope of analysis as I have explained in Section 3.10 (The Allure of Narrative Approach).

Another concern from these interview sessions is about the caution which Clarke (2010) mentions when her participants shifted away from personal voice towards expert voice. As the professor participants were in the position of having been teaching and giving advice for a long time, some parts of the interview might echo that expert voice as a way of educating me who was still recognised as a newcomer in the world of academia. Still, their accounts were beneficial because the professor participants taught me a lot about their experiences and their viewpoints regarding many aspects of scholarly publication.

The findings from the textual analysis were not the final word in this study because they were sent to the professor participants for their reflections. My aim of sending the textual analysis reports to the professor participants was that they had time to read through and think about it before the interview. Although they did not respond to the draft in the email correspondence, I hope that the second interview had brought a dialogic nature back for the empowerment of research regime because the professor participants, who are the authors of those works, need to have their voice in this matter too, not just my voice. By doing so, I believe that I have co-constructed this version of truth with my professor participants and it has empowered all of us.

In addition, it should be acknowledged that there were different genres of research articles (see Swales' taxonomy of journal article genres in Section 3.4.2) as well as different purposes and different audiences for different pieces of writing (as the professor participants mentioned in their interviews that they have engaged in different types of research in Section 6.1). To illustrate, Professor Bracton suggested that she cited more sources in her earliest paper to verify the sources whereas she cited more sources in her recent paper because there were 'many arguments flying around' (p. 197). These different genres, purposes and audiences may have an impact on the frequency of the

metadiscourse items occurring within them, resulting in variations in the use of metadiscourse items.

Besides, there is an influence of disciplinary discourse on their writing. It should be noted that all three professor participants were heavily influenced by the legal discourse. Even Professor Wonnicott from politics said that he had got 'legal training' (p. 203) which influenced his argumentation. Legislative writing is quite unique because '[b]ehind the form and lexis lies the tradition of the logic of law' (Howe, 1990, p. 215) in which there is a macrostructure of situation – problem – solution, like syllogism. Academic legal papers usually fall into the 'Legal Problem Question Answer' genre based on the IRAC (Issue-Rule-Application-Conclusion) rhetorical organisation rather than the IMRD (Introduction-Method-Result-Discussion) pattern prevalent in natural sciences (Tessuto, 2011). Therefore, one important section in legal academic papers is the 'Background Review' section which is almost always needed, even in empirical legal academic papers, because it serves as 'an across-the-board information unit' (Tessuto, 2015, p. 17) which provides a more comprehensive context of the topic than the 'Introduction' section. This influence of legal academic discourse may also have an impact on the use of metadiscourse in these sample texts written by the professor participants.

Furthermore, the textual analysis of the sample texts is likely to vary from one piece of research to another if Bakhtin's notion of 'interproblematicity' is applied. For Bakhtin, language is not a tool and, as such, is problematic due to the heterogeneity in thinking. Examples of interproblematicity include a sentence with hybrid voices between certainty and uncertainty (such as '*it seems that the only barrier is ...*') and how academic scholars approach the use of modality markers in their statements. Although there are rules about how to use grammar, language and expressions, there are still problems with them because these linguistic resources are not just tools; they are alive and living. We as human beings cannot achieve complete intersubjective agreement about how to use language in the best manner because of its problematic manner, or perhaps its versatility?

8.3.4. Caveats about Discussion

As regards the discussion, I used social theories by Bourdieu and Bakhtin to argue for the influence of refinement and metalinguistic competence on the development of authorial identity. This argument needs a few caveats too.

Bourdieu is well known for the concept of 'habitus' and my application of 'refinement' and 'taste' might be deemed a little bit distant from his scholarship. Moreover, Bourdieu's theoretical framework about distinctions is mainly based on French society at a particular period of time and Bourdieu would like to criticise the issues of reproduction in French society, for example, the reproduction of the upper class through the logic of practice of the upper class in the educational practice. In this research, I would like to move away from such a 'reproduction' approach so that there is room for development among individual scholars. Therefore, I adopted the notion of 'refinement' instead and this might be considered a misapplication of Bourdieu's theory for some scholars but I do hope that the academic community is a multivoiced place and that my use of his lesser known concept will flourish and extend the quality of research in the long run.

Still, my arguments based on Bourdieu's concept of 'refinement' also need refinement through caveats. If academic scholars are refined by other academic scholars to achieve the outstanding quality of scholarship, does it mean that it is another reproduction or what Sword (2012) calls 'self-cloning' in academic writing? The Sokal affair in 1996 in which the physics professor Alan Sokal submitted his 'hoax' article to a journal of postmodern studies caused a debate among the academic circle because it suggests that in various disciplines many academic papers were accepted because they confirmed the journal's ideological preconceptions or reproduced the journal's elite networks. Many multilingual scholars also felt that their papers were not accepted in some English-speaking journals because they were outside the Anglophone circle (Lillis & Curry, 2010), implying that some journals only accept papers from their 'peers'; hence, the feeling of 'sequestered participation' in which they were not given productive access to the activity of the academic community (Lave & Wenger, 1991). These issues are related to the power of gatekeepers who play a major role in the refinement, if not 'reproduction', of the academic scholars.

As for Bakhtin, I felt that my arguments regarding metalinguistic competence might not contribute much to the research community because it seems obvious that dialogue is for communication. Bakhtin's theory also seems obvious and is rendered simplistic on many occasions. To illustrate, when academic scholars write for publication, they must of course think about their readers and their audience. So, what is the contribution of Bakhtin regarding the concept of readers in this case? My humble answer based on his argument is that readers should be treated as 'active', not 'passive', in the construction of utterances. In other words, I should 'treat' my readers as an opportunity to expect a response and experience surprise from them because to 'use' readers, even in my mind, as a way to strengthen my argument means that I am trying to suppress their voices and hold dominion over them. In this way, I move away from rhetorical purpose towards metalinguistic competence. However, to what extent is my discussion justified by Bakhtin's theory and real life practice? How can academic scholars rely on surprising responses when their aim is to publish their papers based on a strong argument?

In recent years, there have been concerns from Bakhtinian scholars that Bakhtin is cited in a fashionable manner and often misapplied in various disciplines, including education (see Matusov, 2007). To illustrate, Bakhtin is well-known for dialogism and many teachers use Bakhtin's dialogism to ask students in classroom to engage in a dialogue. However, this activity can become awkward because students usually talk about what the teachers want to hear, resulting in the monologue of teachers. Therefore, Bakhtin's dialogism is misapplied for the sake of dialogue *per se*. This claim about the misapplication of Bakhtin in education arises probably because Bakhtin emerges first from the literary studies and as such literary scholars might claim to know Bakhtin better than others because Bakhtin has shifted their understanding of fiction as a standalone work towards fiction as a world of dialogues, utterances and ideologies. When Bakhtin is cited in other disciplines for the concept of 'heteroglossia' and 'dialogism', he is often cited from his books called *The Dialogic Imagination* or *Speech Genres and other Late Essays* instead of *The Problem of Dostoevsky's Poetics* in which he elaborates in detail the problem of the author, the narrator and the hero in the construction of identity to become a living character. This is probably because this book is clearly about

literary studies and I only read a few pages of it. I happened to read Matusov's papers very recently to become aware that Vygotsky offers intersubjective agreement between adults and children for development whereas Bakhtin offers interproblematicity for development. Nevertheless, one consolation is that Bakhtin scholarship in education is still new and recent. Therefore, it needs time to flourish. And when it flourishes, I am sure that the interview questions will be different from the ones which I asked in this research and they will result in new interpretations and new discussions. To illustrate, an interview schedule might include 'superaddressee' as part of the dialogue with the aim to bring in the internal critic inside the participant. Sullivan's (2012) dialogical approach to qualitative research refers to many rhetorical features of 'hidden dialogue' related to the superaddressee, such as words with a loophole, sore-spot, stylisation and parody. I will mention only one feature here as an example: sore-spot. Sullivan (2012) contends that sore-spots 'refer to sensitive parts of consciousness, where consciousness does not wish to look but is yet aware of as a possibility' (p. 59) and he mentions an example of his sore-spot in terms of a comment which suggests that he is a dull lecturer. He is outraged because his vehemence is 'tangled up with the anticipation that the other may be right and that [he is] indeed a dull lecturer' (p. 59). This is the power of internal critic or superaddressee in the hidden dialogue. Therefore, a hypothetical interview question with Sullivan might be framed like this: 'There is a comment that Sullivan is a dull lecturer. What (do you think) makes you a dull lecturer?' I suppose that this question might be asked only when the interviewer has built up a strong rapport with the participant so that this 'hidden dialogue' question is not treated with outrage and resentment. Otherwise, the interviewer might alienate the participant during the interview and the session might come to an end as a result. However, the benefit of this kind of question is that such question disrupts the confident monologue of the participant and urges them to re-create others' points of view in the process of 'hidden dialogue' with the superaddressee.

8.4. Potential for Future Research

The higher frequency of references in recent academic publication might be a new area of research into the issues of identity and knowledge-making of

academic authors, such as how they conceive of their accumulation and building up of knowledge and how this display of knowledge plays a role in their argumentation and their title of cultural nobility. Furthermore, this practice of knowledge-production in academic publication seems to follow the commercial tradition of capitalism and one significant question is how to distribute the knowledge to others. Lillis and Curry (2010) have argued for the need to reimagine this kind of knowledge production, evaluation and distribution practices among Anglophone academic scholars by shifting from a 'market' to a 'gift' economy in which open access might help many scholars have access to and can participate in the academic text production. However, how can academic scholars achieve the outstanding quality of academic scholarship through such practices? These questions are only a point of departure for new research into the issues of academic writing, knowledge production and identity as academic scholars.

Further, this research has shed light on the changes and the developmental pathway of interaction in academic writing through the approach of metadiscourse. However, the findings are limited to only five sample texts over time because my approach was manual rather than automated. It might be of great interest to use corpus software to analyse more texts. However, the time period needs to be taken into account in order that the researchers can see or anticipate any changes in the interaction over the course of academic scholarship rather than the assuming unchanging interaction throughout the decades.

Furthermore, the findings in this study are only based on the professor participants from two disciplines—law and politics. There are many other disciplines which are not widely explored in terms of their authorial identity development, such as literary studies and religious studies. Interviews with the professor participants from those disciplines and textual analysis of their texts over time might give another insight into how they have developed their authorial identity over time and how their academic publication culture is similar to or different from the two disciplines in this study.

There is also a need for research and further work on theoretical frameworks about writing and identity when two or more people are involved in the act of writing. This kind of research can shed light on the real practice among

academic scholars. One aspect of authorial identity in this study involves the notion of 'voice' and there are associated implications for it regarding plagiarism and ownership of the written works. If a written work has been written by many academic scholars, questions can arise as to who really owns the voice in such texts, how to deal with the issue of ownership when the papers do not include the name of all the people involved in the text production (such as the literacy brokers), and whether it is possible to plagiarise a voice as well as an identity. From a literary study perspective, Groom (2001) makes a case for Thomas Chatterton who wrote poetry and medieval history under the pseudonym of Thomas Rowley, an imaginary monk of the 15th century. He suggests that Chatterton is a forger-writer and that forgery is a craft because those works forged by Chatterton do not have any actual original source. By contrast, the writers who counterfeit (or perhaps, plagiarise) rely on an actual original source to make a copy. Counterfeiters lack art and craft because they view their work as an industrial product to meet the demands of the market. Even in the case of Bakhtin, there have been disputes and debates about his authorship in many works, such as the works signed by Vološinov and Medvedev. Whose voices are they? Are they double-voiced? If so, how can we resolve and reconceptualise the issues of voice and authorial identity in academic writing when it is written and modified by many people?

8.5. Self-Reflections on Research Journey

I began this research journey as a way to understand the secret of academic publication. Before I came to the UK, I worked in a university in Thailand for around 7 years as a learning developer. As an apprentice or a member on the periphery of the academic circle, I often heard about academic publication and the pressure to publish among early career research scholars who needed to write something and publish it somewhere in order to keep tenure. I did not understand back then why writing for publication could be so hard and why writing for publication had to be regarded as better than teaching in a classroom.

Looking back from this current point in time, I think that I was so naïve back then about the nature of academic publication. Or, should I say the practice of academic publication rather than the nature? When I was an undergraduate

student, in my English classroom, we were taught to be careful with 'form' and 'grammar' and we believed that by achieving these two features in our written assignment, we could make a high quality essay. It was true in many cases.

During my working years, many senior Thai scholars would publish their works in English and they only consumed information written in English. Those who were in the lower ranks were different. Some could read papers written in English whereas others could not. Although those in the lower ranks worked hard, according to my point of view, they were often the target of criticism because they did not produce their works in English.

Such practice among academic scholars back home ignited my curiosity about the secret for success in academic writing. When I talked to those successful scholars in Thailand, they often pointed out persistence as the only way to success. For them, it appeared to be nonsense to talk about academic literacy because they just submitted their work for publication. If their works were good enough, the journals would publish them. However, those successful scholars were mostly engineers and scientists. In the university where I used to work, there was almost no professor in education but there were a large number of professors in engineering, mathematics, physics, chemistry and biology. Back then I did not understand why there could be such a big disparity between education and science.

I was very fortunate to have studied my MSc in Educational Research in Exeter. The course helped me realise that education is probably the only field which everybody can talk about according to their life experience. Everybody seems to know what the best way of learning is. If a person does not like an approach to teaching, they might just say that such approach does not work for them. Therefore, what works might not always work.

Nevertheless, from this Master's course, I also learned that education is probably the only field which incorporates so many branches of study, ranging from psychology, sociology, philosophy, and even natural sciences. Education is the core of human life and human development. Therefore, I came to the conclusion that if I wanted to study about development in social life, the best choice must be in an education department.

After my Master's, I was very fortunate again to have an opportunity to conduct a research study in Exeter for my PhD in Education which tackled two issues I mentioned: academic publication and development of a person. This opportunity brought me to experience the English context of academic publication which seems to become a model for other nations. It was like I had come to the source of the river.

Along this journey of research study, I was very fortunate again to have three professor participants in this study and I learned a lot from them, especially the sense of authority which comes with trust and humility. I also learned many things about academic writing which I hope would be fruitful in my future works and research studies.

8.6. Coda: No Last Words

If this research thesis is in the chain of a wider dialogue within academic communities, I can only hope that what I have written are not the last words. There will be more research studies about this and I hope my attempt at it this time can promote further dialogues among research scholars about the issues of academic literacies, writing, identity and scholarship.

Appendix A: Ethical Research Approval

STUDENT HIGHER-LEVEL RESEARCH
DISSERTATION/THESIS



Graduate School of Education

Certificate of ethical research approval

DISSERTATION/THESIS

To activate this certificate you need to first sign it yourself, and then have it signed by your supervisor and finally by the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee.

For further information on ethical educational research access the guidelines on the BERA web site: <http://www.bera.ac.uk/publications/guidelines/> and view the School's statement on the GSE student access on-line documents.

READ THIS FORM CAREFULLY AND THEN COMPLETE IT ON YOUR COMPUTER (the form will expand to contain the text you enter). **DO NOT COMPLETE BY HAND**

Your name: MR SUTHEE PLOISAWASCHAI

Your student no: 600042810

Return address for this certificate: Graduate of Education, St Luke's campus,
University of Exeter, Heavitree Exeter EX1 2LU

Degree/Programme of Study: PhD

Project Supervisor(s): Associate Professor Ros Fisher; Professor Debra Myhill

Your email address: sp352@ex.ac.uk

Tel: +(44)(0)7580802553

I hereby certify that I will abide by the details given overleaf and that I undertake in my dissertation / thesis (delete whichever is inappropriate) to respect the dignity and privacy of those participating in this research.

I confirm that if my research should change radically, I will complete a further form.

Signed:.....Suthee Ploisawaschai.....date:..31 January, 2013.....

*NB For Masters dissertations, which are marked blind, this first page must **not be included** in your work. It can be kept for your records.*

Certificate of ethical research approval

DISSERTATION/THESIS

Your student no: 600042810

Title of your project:

The Development of Authorial Identity in Academic Writing among Professors

Brief description of your research project:

This research focuses on the development of authorial identity in academic writing among professors by examining the trajectory of their professorship and their writing practices in academic publication over time. This research is based on the assumption that academic writing (namely, academic publication) is not just a mere text work but also an identity work since academics need to engage in the interaction with their disciplinary community through their writing.

Give details of the participants in this research (giving ages of any children and/or young people involved):

4 Professors (including 1 professor for pilot/trying out the methodology)

Give details (with special reference to any children or those with special needs) regarding the ethical issues of:

- a) **informed consent:** Where children in schools are involved this includes both headteachers and parents). Copy(ies) of your consent form(s) you will be using must accompany this document. a blank consent form can be downloaded from the GSE student access on-line documents:

In this research, all participants will be informed that the participation is voluntary and they may withdraw at any stage of the research. Before I collect the data, I will make sure that all participants have no doubts about the research aim and purposes and in case of any doubts, I am happy to clarify every point. All participants will be guaranteed that their information and identity will be treated as confidential and I will make every effort to preserve their anonymity when I use the information for this research project, which may include publications. All participants will also be informed that they have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about themselves. To ensure the agreement, I will ask each participant to sign a consent form after we reach an understanding about the research project.

- b) **anonymity and confidentiality**

Each participant will be informed that their contribution to the research is valuable and respected. The information provided by the participants will be treated as confidential and I will make every effort to preserve their anonymity. To ensure confidentiality, all participants will be guaranteed that their information and identity are known only by me. I will conduct all the interviews and analyse all the information by myself. As for the anonymity, I will use an alias for my participants and all other names mentioned. Since one stage of this research is about textual analysis, I will modify text samples by deleting identifiable information and paraphrasing phrases when I present those samples and the findings. All participants will be guaranteed that after the completion of this research, all data will be destroyed by me.

Give details of the methods to be used for data collection and analysis and how you would ensure they do not cause any harm, detriment or unreasonable stress:

In this research, the data will be collected through interviews with each participant and from their academic publication. These data will be used to address the research questions for each stage of

coding. *MR. new 3/6/13* *for textual features* *MR. new 3/6/13*

the research. In the first stage, the data will come from an interview with each participant and it will be analysed using a narrative method. In the second stage, the data will come from each participant's texts and their texts will be analysed separately using a corpus linguistic method. In the third stage, the findings from the textual analysis of each participant's texts will be presented to each participant for another interview and the data from this interview will be analysed using an inductive coding method.

Give details of any other ethical issues which may arise from this project (e.g. secure storage of videos/recorded interviews/photos/completed questionnaires or special arrangements made for participants with special needs etc.):

To ensure the confidentiality of the data, all participants will be guaranteed that the information from each participant in this research will be securely stored by me in a private storage which only I can gain access to and will be destroyed immediately after the completion of the research. In terms of data usage for presentation and publication, all identifiable information will either be deleted or modified using alias for names and paraphrasing for the contents.

Give details of any exceptional factors, which may raise ethical issues (e.g. potential political or ideological conflicts which may pose danger or harm to participants):

To prevent the potential and ideological conflicts which might cause harm to the participants later on both during and after the research, I will make it clear to them beforehand that during the interview they could request me to disrupt the interview recording or refuse to give information so that such information will not be used in the research.

This form should now be printed out, signed by you on the first page and sent to your supervisor to sign. Your supervisor will forward this document to the School's Research Support Office for the Chair of the School's Ethics Committee to countersign. A unique approval reference will be added and this certificate will be returned to you to be included at the back of your dissertation/thesis.

N.B. You should not start the fieldwork part of the project until you have the signature of your supervisor

This project has been approved for the period: February 2013 **until:** September 2015

By (above mentioned supervisor's signature): ...Ros Fisher.....**date:**.....1/2/2013...

N.B. To Supervisor: Please ensure that ethical issues are addressed annually in your report and if any changes in the research occur a further form is completed.

GSE unique approval reference:.....*D/12/13/10*.....

Signed:.....*MR. new*.....**date:**.....*20/2/13*.....
Chair of the School's Ethics Committee

This form is available from <http://education.exeter.ac.uk/students/>



GRADUATE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

CONSENT FORM

I have been fully informed about the aims and purposes of the project.

I understand that:

there is no compulsion for me to participate in this research project and, if I do choose to participate, I may at any stage withdraw my participation

I have the right to refuse permission for the publication of any information about me

any information which I give will be used solely for the purposes of this research project, which may include publications

If applicable, the information, which I give, may be shared between any of the other researcher(s) participating in this project in an anonymised form

all information I give will be treated as confidential

the researcher(s) will make every effort to preserve my anonymity

(Signature of participant)

(Date)

(Printed name of participant)

One copy of this form will be kept by the participant; a second copy will be kept by the researcher(s)

Contact phone number of researcher(s):...+(44)(0)7580802553 (Suthee).....

If you have any concerns about the project that you would like to discuss, please contact:

Suthee Ploisawaschai (sp352@ex.ac.uk) Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter, Heavitree, Exeter EX1 2LU..... OR

.....

.....(s)

Data Protection Act: The University of Exeter is a data collector and is registered with the Office of the Data Protection Commissioner as required to do under the Data Protection Act 1998. The information you provide will be used for research purposes and will be processed in accordance with the University's registration and current data protection legislation. Data will be confidential to the researcher(s) and will not be disclosed to any unauthorised third parties without further agreement by the participant. Reports based on the data will be in anonymised form.

Appendix B: Letter of Invitation to Potential Professors

Letter of Invitation

Dear Professor ***,

The Development of Authorial Identity in Academic Writing among Professors

I am writing to you in the context of a university-funded doctoral research in which I hope you would be interested in participating.

This doctoral research into the development of authorial identity in academic writing among professors is funded by College of Social Sciences and International Studies, University of Exeter. In this research, I will examine the trajectory of professorship and the writing practices in academic writing over time because this research is based on the assumption that academic writing (namely, academic publication) is not just a mere text work but also an identity work since academics need to engage in the interaction with their disciplinary communities through their writing. I will specifically focus on the issues of identity as an academic writer in relation to the aspects of writing development for publication in research communities. Further details about my research are given in the summary below and more details are available on request.

I am contacting you as a key contributor to the development of authorial identity in scholarly publication to ascertain your perceptions and experiences. Your input will be of great value to improve understanding of how both writing and identity develops together on the trajectory of your professorship.

I would very much appreciate it if you are able to take part in this research. This would involve two interview sessions at a place of your choosing to discuss your identity development which should take no more than an hour per session and samples of your written works for writing development analysis. If you are unable to contribute, perhaps you could suggest someone else we might approach?

We look forward to being in touch with you.

Yours sincerely,

Suthee Ploisawaschai

Graduate School of Education

College of Social Sciences and International Studies

University of Exeter

22 April, 2013

RESEARCH PROPOSAL SUMMARY

Current academic situation in the UK, the US, Europe and elsewhere around the world requires researchers to write for scholarly publication as the saying goes, 'Publish or perish', exerting pressure on researchers to negotiate their identity with academic practices to keep their tenure. However, little is known about how academic writers succeed or fail to construct their identity over time as full members of scholarly publication communities. Therefore, the research into the development of authorial identity in academic writing among professors is needed because it could fill such gap of knowledge about how they undergo such journey of academic publication on the trajectory of their professorship.

This research can be divided into three phases, each of which will focus on one research question. In the first phase, the main focus involves the question as to how professors develop their identity as an author in their writing on their career path. In the second phase, the main focus involves the textual feature analysis of the works written by professors and what these features in their writing tell us about their identity as an author. In the third phase, the main focus involves the relationship between how professors develop their identity on their career path and how their texts are written to accompany such identity work.

In this research, the data will be collected through interviews with each professor and from their academic publication samples. These data will be used to address the research question for each phase of the research. In the first phase, the data will come from an interview with each professor and it will be analysed using an inductive coding method. In the second phase, the data will come from each professor's sample texts and their texts will be analysed separately using a manual textual analysis based on taxonomy for the interpersonal aspect of language use. In the third stage, the findings from the textual analysis of each professor's texts will be presented to each professor for another interview session and the data from this interview will be analysed using an inductive coding method.

This doctoral research into the development of authorial identity in academic writing among professors is funded by College of Social Sciences and International Studies, University of Exeter. The interview sessions are intended to be done sometime around mid-2013 and early 2014. The findings and the discussions are intended to be finalised by September, 2014.

Appendix C: An Example of Interview Transcript

[With Professor Wonnacott (Phase 1)]

SUTHEE: Thank you very much for your participation in this research. I'm interested in and to know your insight about writing for publications and I think one of the questions I would like to ask you today is 'Which paper are you most proud of?'

WONNICOTT: I think, probably my second book, which was 'Management in Public Sector' which came out in 1993 which is a comparison of the United Kingdom and the United States. So, that book is probably the one I'm most proud of 'cause it's got most original research in it. It's from cover to cover, it's wholly original research so that's the one.

SUTHEE: Yes, can you explain more when you say about original research?

WONNICOTT: Well, I interviewed, I think, approaching a hundred people in the United Kingdom and the United States, involved in the government at all levels: central, federal, state, local, micro. And the work which was done at the time, the new public management, was really becoming apparent in both Britain and America in terms of its impact and that book, which I took a year to write, based on two-year research, added the debate in a way, that I thought was very beneficial academically both to myself and to the debate. So, I'm, and the book is still, even though it's now nearly 20 years old. It's still cited extensively. So, that's my favourite one. That's why.

SUTHEE: Can you, do you think that when you say that it's your favourite one and say something about being cited most, does it make you feel some kind of confidence with that work?

WONNICOTT: Yes.

SUTHEE: Can you tell me during which path of your career that book was written?

WONNICOTT: That book was written when I was a lecturer at Q College and it was with the publication of that book that I became a senior lecturer and it really laid the foundation for much of what of my later research. So, my later research took that a stage further and really has been reworking many of those themes and developing over the last twenty years.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Because you have that kind of foundation, can you tell me at what time in your career that you feel that you are becoming an established figure in the field?

WONNICOTT: I'm not sure I have ever become an established figure. But I suppose it would have been when I was made a professor and that happened when I was 39. And that was 15 years ago.

SUTHEE: Why don't you consider yourself to be an established figure in the field?

WONNICOTT: Oh, because it's such a big field and I think if you consider yourself established, then you'd probably stop working. You should always be trying to find new things and try to develop things.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Can you tell me more about your progression to become a professor?

WONNICOTT: Well, I was first made a professor at my previous university and then here. In both places, it's based on original research and publications in good journals and books of a good standards and also academic leadership, and putting together new courses and teaching and leading teams. So, it's a combination of things in both universities that led to this. Here, of course, every professor is expected to either be outstanding in terms of research and lead them or do some of the management which is why I'm Head of the Department. And so, I think everybody's career goes through different stages and although I still enjoy original research and publications at the moment, obviously being Head of the Department and doing all those management jobs reduce the amount of time that I've got to do that which I regret but somebody has to do it and you have to take your turn.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. There's one term which you use a lot, original research. How do you define 'original research', can I ask?

WONNICOTT: Yes, very similar to the way that scientists and engineers do, it's the contribution to knowledge either through new empirical discoveries or through new theoretical developments, a reanalysis of something that exists or a new interpretation of, in my case, public administration and public policy.

SUTHEE: Yes, and in your case, you seem to say many things about original research, for example, empirical research or new interpretation, what kind of approach that you think you use the most to contribute to the knowledge in your field?

WONNICOTT: I think that varies according to where I was in my career. For my PhD, I get a lot of original works on the role of scientists and engineers in shaping the civil nuclear energy policy and my book was one of the very few that were around at the time and I then was seconded from my university into the civil service, to actually work on nuclear power, so I knew a great deal about it and a lot of it was an original contribution in terms of social sciences' understanding of science. Then was the book that was my favourite. That again was an original contribution, 'cause I synthesized a lot of what's going on in terms of theories but then look empirically at what's happening and spoke to policy makers and was able to show where some theories were right and some were wrong. So, that was an original contribution in empirical terms. Then I moved to look more at my field in the European Union and I hope to develop both theory and practice in terms of understanding governance and there's an article in there called 'Modern European Politics'. And that, I think, was a good theoretical contribution to the debate and again it's still quite widely cited. So, sometimes it's been theory, sometimes it's been empirical. Usually, it was an amalgamation of the two.

SUTHEE: Thank you so much. And you mentioned many works from your early career on, for example, when you're doing a PhD, can you specify the title of that work?

WONNICOTT: The book that I spoke of was called 'Nuclear Power and Politics'. It was the first book in 1988.

SUTHEE: So, you combined your PhD and nuclear power in the same book?

WONNICOTT: Yes

SUTHEE: Can I ask you when you look at your earlier writing, what do you think about it?

WONNICOTT: I think it stands up fairly well. I'm not aware that my style has changed enormously. I hope I don't make so many grammatical errors. I think I had such a good training in the university I went to as a graduate student that by the time I started to publish, my style was fairly clear. And although it obviously evolved slightly over the years, I think it's fairly similar. People who read my works say that the style is recognisable fairly quickly. And they can see if I've written with another person, they can see which bit I've written.

SUTHEE: Oh, and when you say that they can recognise it, what do you mean by that? What features that they can say it was written by you?

WONNICOTT: I think it's the cadence and the phraseology. I would try and write so that it reads easily. So, even when I'm writing about a very difficult subject, I try and write it so that people who are not expert can understand it.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Do you think that is your strength?

WONNICOTT: I think, as a writer, that would be my strength. Yes.

SUTHEE: Is there any area of writing that gives you concern?

WONNICOTT: I'm no longer as mathematically good as I used to be. I can't do the advanced mathematics anymore. I think that's the feature of age. But that's a concern of my writing. My concern in terms of academic publishing generally is that I think this commitment to open access that the government has, means that more people will be writing in blogs and in poor quality journals and have a concern that in humanities and social sciences we would find it hard to maintain the quality control that we have of academic writing because the government policy and the research council policy is to go for more open access, to go for less quality control, to go for cheaper publishing, and I think, that will harm British humanities, arts and social sciences, if it's going ahead. At the moment, that's not going ahead but if it does, it will be harmful for those reasons.

SUTHEE: Yes. Can you explain more why you think open access, if I understand you correctly, will cause harm?

WONNICOTT: If it's implemented in a way that the government are currently asking, because what happens then is the author will have to pay the publisher and so the publisher will have an incentive to publish lot more papers and not control the quality because they get money for simply publishing rather than selling the product on. 'Cause the product then becomes open access, it means it's free at the point of readers. Some people won't do that so they will simply write electronically on blogs rather than going to journals and others will go to very cheap journals where the control of the quality would be much lower because you won't be able to pay people to be good editors to ensure that this happens.

SUTHEE: In that case, how do you define 'quality'?

WONNICOTT: Quality is the addition to knowledge in a way that I was discussing earlier. Good writing which is grammatical, well-structured, something that is true and honest, so you haven't got plagiarism, you're not stealing somebody else's ideas and the research is valid. It's actually been done because we have examples where people have

lied about the research, in medicine mainly. They claimed to have done research and they haven't. They told the lie. And journals should use referees who can check that, who can verify that it is of genuinely high quality, which means that it is useful, it is truthful and it's not false.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Can I ask you? When you write your research, what helps you to write it?

WONNICOTT: What helps you write it? Mm, I don't know. I just enjoy the process. I like to try and put together new materials in a way that is fresh, new, novel and contribute to the debate.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Can I ask you about your experience with publications over the year? Does it affect your writing?

WONNICOTT: My experience with publications in what way?

SUTHEE: For example, by negotiating with the editors or the reader or the readership or the feedback?

WONNICOTT: Oh, it does affect. The feedback is probably the most important one. If nobody gives you any feedback, you know they haven't read it. So, you're obviously not writing. Or probably you didn't do it properly. Some editors, most editors, you have a very good relationship with. Some, you don't. And I'm of an age now where I just don't publish with people I don't like or publishers that I don't like. So, I always have a good relationship, for example, the people who publish my book, E Publishing, they are extremely good and supportive editors, so I tend to stay with them. The journals where I publish in, well, they're the journals in my field. So, that's the reason I publish with them. Most of the editors there are very supportive and constructive. I think it's the role of a good editor to be constructive so even if that editor doesn't like the approach, then they don't simply force the writer to do something else. They suggest ways in which it may be improved.

SUTHEE: Yes, can I ask you? In the past, when you have written with the editor that you don't like, what happened that makes you feel you don't like it? What is the struggle?

WONNICOTT: Well, I think the worst one was one of the books that I co-wrote with the colleague. And the editor didn't like, this is the publisher's editor, not the editor of a journal, the editor didn't like our opening chapter and wanted us to drop it and then

completely rewrite it. And we didn't think that was academically necessary or good. And he tried to make us do this on academic terms. He said that the chapter wasn't good but we had it looked up by other people and they supported us. And so we have to compromise in the end by writing, leaving that chapter in but writing a new introduction. So, I said that I would never publish with that publisher again.

SUTHEE: Oh, but you still publish with that publisher.

WONNICOTT: No, this one is not with E Publishing, this was another publisher. Oh! I wouldn't have published with that publisher again.

SUTHEE: So, you move to another publisher. I see. I see. Can I ask you about your writing for journals with revision and review, what do you think about it?

WONNICOTT: I think it's the only way that you can do. I think everybody who thinks they're very good should be turned down at least once a year. It makes you humble and makes sure that you write properly and of good quality. I think review and revision and review is absolutely essential to maintain high quality.

SUTHEE: Can you ask you about, How do you manage your rejection?

WONNICOTT: Oh, I get disappointed but then I sort it out. Obviously, if I think I've written something very good and they come back with points that I disagree with, then I argue the points. I just have had something, not rejected, but sent back with a request for major revision. I was a bit upset but when I read through the comments that the two reviewers had made, I think they were absolutely right. So, I'm in the process now of rewriting it according to their recommendations.

SUTHEE: Yes, do you submit to the same ...

WONNICOTT: I will resubmit back to that journal.

SUTHEE: Also, is it still recent thing?

WONNICOTT: Yes.

SUTHEE: OK. Can I ask you about any other previous papers that you also had major corrections like this before?

WONNICOTT: Yes, and I accept that they were correct and then I rewrote and then I have several minor corrections and I've rewritten them and resubmitted it and then it was published.

SUTHEE: Can you mention one paper that you said you have major revisions?

WONNICOTT: That would have been my last one with a Politics journal which was on the privatisation of public transport.

SUTHEE: Is it in 2010?

WONNICOTT: Experiences from a newly privatized organization

SUTHEE: And you submit to the same journal?

WONNICOTT: Yes.

SUTHEE: When you get the feedback, what is the main feature that they would like you to revise?

WONNICOTT: On that particular journal, they said it was very empirical, and they wanted me to strengthen the theoretical framework in which I put the empirical study. When I read it, I thought it was true so I strengthen that framework.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Can I ask you? Do you find that the language required in academic writing is comfortable for you?

WONNICOTT: Yes.

SUTHEE: Why do you think it's comfortable?

WONNICOTT: I suppose I had extensive training as a postgraduate student so it's something that I find, yeah, to use your phrase, that I'm comfortable with.

SUTHEE: What kind of extensive training did you get? Can you tell me?

WONNICOTT: Yes, in my taught Masters, I had training in understanding theoretical concepts. Obviously, I had it as undergraduate as well. Then, it was taken a stage further. It's taught postgraduate and that was a very good preparation for the PhD and while I was studying my PhD, researching my PhD, I had training in quantitative and qualitative methodology as well. So, again, the language was very academic. But what I have, as I said earlier, tended to do with my own writing is to turn some of that very extensively deep, difficult academic language into simpler forms so that the wider audience can understand it.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. What about your voice? Do you think you have a voice in your writing?

WONNICOTT: Yes, that's when people recognise my style, I think.

SUTHEE: But what about you yourself? What kind of voice or expression that you would like to express in your writing?

WONNICOTT: Oh, it depends entirely on the topic that I'm exploring. I try and guide the reader and say 'Look at this from different perspectives.' And then I don't very often tell them what they should think but how they should think.

SUTHEE: Interesting really. Do you think your writing, the language that you use, changes over time?

WONNICOTT: I think it may have done slightly but as I said earlier I don't think it. I don't think the style, and therefore, language has changed enormously.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Then, can I ask you? What do you think about writing for publication as part of career in academia?

WONNICOTT: I think it goes with the job. If you want to be an academic, then that's what you have to do. And you become an academic because that's something that you enjoy doing. If you didn't, there's been no point of doing the job. So, I think carrying out research or scholarship, it doesn't all have to be original research, it could be scholarship, and then expressing that in ways that are of interest and use to other people is the core part, or what I call 'part of the job.'

SUTHEE: You mentioned two things, about original research and scholarship. What is the difference between these two?

WONNICOTT: They can be the same but also scholarship can involve, Research will always involve scholarship but scholarship doesn't always involve research. It can involve reading the works that others have written and interpreting it or re-interpreting it or expressing it in different ways for other people.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Can I ask you what makes it difficult for younger academics to write for publication?

WONNICOTT: I think the most difficult thing is overcoming their own fear and that they will be rejected. A lot of people find that rejection is very hard to take. And I give a lot of talks to postgraduates all round Europe and elsewhere as part of the training that we do in political science and I always say 'You'll be rejected many times and take it on board. Learn from it.' But a lot of people don't. It makes them leave academia. They can't handle the rejection. And I always say, you know, every top professor should be rejected at least once a year, to learn humility and to go back and make sure their craft is

well-written. And I think PhD or graduate students should learn from that. You know it's not a bad thing to be rejected. It's a good thing. It makes you do it properly.

SUTHEE: Yes, so can you tell me your first experience of rejection?

WONNICOTT: Oh, God! I would have been a graduate student then. And that's, it was, yes, it was painful and I thought 'Well, I can't be very good.' But I went away and rewrote it completely and put it into another journal and then it was published.

SUTHEE: Wonderful! Is it your very first paper that you've written?

WONNICOTT: I show you which one it was. I think it was based on my PhD. So it would have been in the 1980s. It would have been down there somewhere. I sent it to a Politics journal but then it went into another one instead. But that's a completely rewritten version. And that came out before my PhD. Yeah, it was accepted before the PhD.

SUTHEE: Thank you. What do you think about, when you look back in 1986 and now, what do you think about the climate of writing for publication?

WONNICOTT: It's much more competitive now. It's easier in the sense that you have other medium, like the internet, which didn't exist in 1986. But to get published in a high quality, highly cited journal, it's much much harder because it's harder to get promoted in academia now. Because the system is far more rigid and mechanistic. And you used to be able to just have fun, write to lots of places where you like and you don't have to publish so much. But now, the competition is such, in this country, it copied the United States, it began in the United States, that you don't get tenure, you don't get promoted, you don't even keep your job unless you're publishing in a high quality journal. And that was a lot more pressure, I think, on younger researchers, younger academics than it used to.

SUTHEE: Yes, thank you very much. And what do you think can help them to write for publication?

WONNICOTT: I think it helps to first co-write with somebody else, either their supervisor, or another person who's already been published who can help them.

SUTHEE: Then, in that case, how do you learn to write for publication?

WONNICOTT: Again, I was given lessons on that when I was studying at L University as a graduate student. As a graduate student we were told that 'This is the thing you have to do'. And then we would practice and we would send it to journals and we've

been turned down and then come back with referees' comments and you would learn structure in that ways. So, it was a tough process but that's the only way you can learn, that is by being taught and doing it.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Let me go back to 15 years ago when you were promoted to be a professor.

WONNICOTT: 15 years ago, yes. But that was based on lots of publications. The one that got me my senior lectureship was in 1993. That was that one.

SUTHEE: What about the time when you become a professor, what kind of work that you're doing at that moment?

WONNICOTT: When they made me a professor, I was working on, I've just finished projects looking at the reform of the British civil service and then I was moving in to look at the comparative European changes so I was looking at modernisation and restructuring public administration. So, the publications that were coming out were based on Europe and there were some official publications on agencies, British Next Steps agencies.

SUTHEE: Can you specifically mention one?

WONNICOTT: Yes, 1995 and 1996 ones. That was based on original research and I then took that empirical work that I did for the government and put it in two or three journal articles that were quite well received. These series here from 94 onwards were the journal articles that were very important and the official report. Those were deemed to be quite important, so they were beneficial for my promotion as well.

SUTHEE: And what do you think about after being a professor, what do you think about publication?

WONNICOTT: Well, now I mean the career is probably at its height, so probably it can only go down now. But it was, it's been a fascinating professional career and I was able to do all kinds of writing that I enjoy. I'm also the editor of two journals so I may be able to encourage other people, help them to develop.

SUTHEE: Yes, one thing that you strike me the most is when you said now you are at its height and you seem to say it may be going down. Why do you think that way?

WONNICOTT: That was a joke.

SUTHEE: [laughs] Thank you so much. Do you think as a professor, you have more works to do?

WONNICOTT: Oh, yes, absolutely. I'm still putting in bids for grants and I still have several projects that I'm working on. So, yes.

SUTHEE: And then do you think it's easier for you to write nowadays?

WONNICOTT: Some things. Other things, no. You still get a block sometimes and you think 'I can't understand this particular concept or I can't get the material for that project.' So it does become, I don't think it ever gets easier, it's just become different.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much. Is there any area of writing that you would like to add in the research interview?

WONNICOTT: No, I think I'm covering all the areas of writing, books, journal articles, lighter things for people to read, and that's fine.

SUTHEE: And in this research, I would like to ask your permission to analyse some of written works.

WONNICOTT: Yes, of course.

[discussion of papers for textual analysis]

SUTHEE: Can you tell me more about writing with other people?

WONNICOTT: I never used to do it. I recommend every young researcher does it now but I never used to work with other people at all. It's only when I started it that I realise how interesting it could be and how you could do good work. The book that came out just before the last RAE, I did it with Richard O'Neil, that I was very pleased with. Richard and I worked together extremely well and I found it very interesting process working with him. We're going to do another book soon.

SUTHEE: In the past, why are you not used to writing with other people?

WONNICOTT: Because in the past, you got promoted, in social sciences, by monographs and single-authored papers. In sciences, that wasn't the case, engineering and sciences are always ten or fifteen people in every project and they all get cited. But in the university where I was, particularly in L University where I had my early part of my career, they wanted single-authored books, single-authored articles. And that's just the way I was taught. Things have changed about 15 years ago in social sciences. You've got a lot more joint authored things then. It wasn't a policy change. Nobody stood up one day and say, 'Now I would change it.' It just evolves.

SUTHEE: And then, if it evolves like this, do you think, what is the benefit and disadvantage of this change?

WONNICOTT: I can't see any disadvantages. The benefits are that you work as a team, and teamwork and group work is always more powerful and more effective than individuals because you are able to play to each other's strength. The only disadvantage is if you disagree with each other, or you don't like each other, then you wouldn't work together in the first place.

SUTHEE: Thank you very much for your contribution to this research.

WONNICOTT: You're very welcome.

SUTHEE: Thank you so much.

Appendix D: The Sample Texts in This Study

The sample texts chosen for this study were arranged from the early career up to the present moment. The paper titles are changed in order to protect their anonymity and the professor participants agreed with the suggested titles. The abbreviations behind the title are as follows:

(P) for Pride, or the paper which the professor participant feels most proud of

(A) for Sense of Authority, or the paper which was written when they first experienced their sense of authority

(J) for Joint-Authored Paper

These papers are also classified according to Swales' taxonomy of traditional article genres (see section 3.4.2. for further information):

Theory articles offer a clear argument and contain no empirical data.

Review articles give an overview of, or problematize, the subject matter.

Data-based articles contain empirical data (in this case, interviews).

Shorter communications include letters, notes, forum pieces and ripostes. (No sample text in this study fits this genre).

However, it should be noted that some papers are largely hybrid and I did my best to categorise them according to the criteria described above (see section 8.3.3. Caveats about findings for my discussion of genres in law and politics)

Table 1 shows the sample texts by Professor Bracton

Abbreviation	Title	Genre
Bracton 1981	Law with ambiguity (J)	Theory
Bracton 1997	Misconduct and law **(P) *(A)	Review
Bracton 2006	“She didn’t say anything” A case on rape trial	Theory
Bracton 2011	Managing court trials *(P)	Theory
Bracton 2012	New era of justice (J)	Data-based

Table 2 shows the sample texts by Professor Wonnicot

Abbreviation	Title	Genre
Wonnicot 1986	Energy and politics	Review
Wonnicot 1995	Reform in the government ** (P)	Data-based
Wonnicot 1999	European policy change: a case study ** (A)	Data-based
Wonnicot 2004	Europe in a modern day	Theory
Wonnicot 2010	Experiences from a newly privatized organization	Theory

Table 3 shows the sample texts by Professor Woodworth

Abbreviation	Title	Genre
Woodworth 1996	Libel online: a case study (J)	Review
Woodworth 2004	Copyright for educational purpose ** (A) (J)	Theory
Woodworth 2010 (F) or (Fair)	Fair trade and trade marks (J)	Review
Woodworth 2010 (S) or (Shaping)	Shaping the future of knowledge	Theory
Woodworth 2012	Book technology and new experience ** (P) (J)	Theory

In the case of Professor Woodworth, there were two papers written in the same year (2010) because one was joint-authored and the other was single-authored. Otherwise, there would be no single-authored paper as a sample text.

Appendix E: Poster for Research Showcase



The Development of Writing and Identity among Senior Researchers

Suthee Ploisawaschai, Graduate School of Education (sp352@exeter.ac.uk)

The saying 'Publish, or Perish' might still echo in many parts of academia but this socio-economic concept can give misleading impressions that only publication matters and that academic scholars are tantamount to factory workers whose duty is to churn out written works.

Recent socio-cultural theories suggest that writing allows writers to represent themselves in their text. Therefore, academic scholarship could be seen as the nexus of 'text work/identity work' in which academic scholars flourish as they develop their writing for publication.

The Research Focus

The nexus of 'text work/identity work' for academic scholarship development is explored through

- An interview with 3 professors
- A textual analysis of 5 papers written by each professor, chosen over the trajectory of their career from their early years up to now

A Recent Concept of Academic Scholarship: The Nexus of Text Work/Identity Work



The Key Findings from Interview and Textual Analysis

IDENTITY DEVELOPMENT

Two major themes emerge from the interviews as follows:

Academic Authorship

An academic = an author

To write for publication is part of being an academic.

Publications = Credentials

Academic credentials are built up through publications.

High competition = High quality

Publication in the most prestigious academic journals could indicate the quality of academic output of an academic scholar.

Authorship = Peer Review

Academics not only write for publication but also review others' work and this participation in peer review is an important academic tribute.

Personal Growth

Conquering Fear of Rejection

With high competition, papers might be rejected but this means the research quality control.

Learning One's Own View

With feedback through peer review, professors learn about their worldview in their publications.

Sense of Authority

Being known in the academic community is like having the weight of academic reputation which brings professors closer to policy makers.

Sense of pride

People connect professors with their works, resulting in their mark of 'identity'.

WRITING DEVELOPMENT

Textual Features

More works cited over time

Recent texts contain a much larger number of works or references cited in comparison to past papers.

Argumentation through addition and contrast

Adding more arguments and showing contrasts are frequently used rhetorical modes. However, comparison is almost never used.

Decrease in overly confident expressions

There is a decrease in frequency count per 1,000 words of confident expressions (e.g., 'There is no doubt at all', 'Clearly').

Implicit engagement with readers

Engagement with readers can be seen more implicitly than explicitly through passive structure form (e.g., 'It must be noted that', 'As can be seen').

Educational Implications

1. Writing for publication can be seen as a way towards both personal growth and academic success.
2. Since authorship is also about peer review, learning to write is also about learning to interact with other writers.

Further Steps

There are still questions for further research, such as

- Why are more works cited over time?
- Is this increase of cited works related to the 'addition' argumentation style?
- Is the decrease in overly confident expression more of the norms in academic discourse or of personal development?

Select References

- Hyland, K. (2005). *Metadiscourse*. London: Continuum.
- Ivanic, R. (1998). *Writing and Identity*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
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Appendix F: An Example of Textual Report

Dear Professor Woodworth,

Given below is a brief account of the findings from the textual analysis of your papers written over time. I have done my best to understand how writing for publication has changed over time from your early career up to the present moment. Please note that because you have written many papers over the trajectory of your career, some of which you co-wrote with your colleagues, and I have analysed only 5 of them, the findings are not intended to be exhaustive. You are more than welcome to share your viewpoints, agreements as well as disagreements with the findings in this research. Should you wish to have a full account of the textual analysis with statistical number, I am also happy to provide you with one.

Your name and the paper titles are changed to protect your anonymity as follows:

Abbreviation	Title
Woodworth 1996	Libel online: a case study (J)
Woodworth 2004	Copyright for educational purpose **(A) (J)
Woodworth 2010 (F) or (Fair)	Fair trade and trade marks (J)
Woodworth 2010 (S) or (Shaping)	Shaping the future of knowledge
Woodworth 2012	Book technology and new experience **(P) (J)

Please also feel free to suggest any changes to the paper titles above-mentioned to protect your anonymity.

Main Findings for Discussion in the Second Interview are grouped under the following topics:

1. References
2. Getting message across
3. Argumentation
4. Attitude expressed in academic writing
5. Being an academic author

1. References

Referencing, or citation, is considered to be a crucial part of academic publication. A textual analysis of the references in five sample papers could be seen in the table below:

Topic	Woodworth 1996	Woodworth 2004	Woodworth 2010 (Fair)	Woodworth 2010 (Shap)	Woodworth 2012
References per 1,000 words	11.87	15.19	11.32	9.90	24.79
Long quotes (or quotes as paragraph)	3	2	19	7	4
Short quotes	25	7	12	16	14

The number of references in each paper is presented here according to the frequency per 1,000 word count because each paper differs in word length and the total number of references in each paper varies. It should be noted that each cited work is counted only once although it may be cited many times in the same paper. These numbers, therefore, signal the frequency of citation in each paper. To illustrate, the 1996 paper is 13,814 words in length (without quotes and footnotes) and contains 164 works cited; hence, 11.87 items per 1,000 word count.

It seems that the number of cited works in each paper varies. The two papers in the edited book in 2010 (Fair and Shaping) contain the lowest frequency of cited works per 1,000 word count. The 2012 paper contains the highest frequency.

In all five papers, there are more short quotes inserted in the main paragraph than long quotes (or quotes which stand alone as a paragraph). Still, an exception can be found in the 2010 paper (Fair) where there are many more quotes as paragraphs than any other papers.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Search engines are powerful tools. While Internet service providers (ISPs) may be the gatekeepers to the Internet,² search engines make accessible the content of the Internet.³ It is said that 80 per cent of Internet users who are searching for a specific site will start their search using

a search engine.⁴ A meaningful use of the Internet without search engines is therefore virtually impossible.⁵

² See ch 1.

³ Search Engines have also been described as the gatekeepers of public communication. See W Schulz, T Held and A Laudien, 'Search Engines as Gatekeepers of Public Communication: Analysis of the German Framework Applicable to Internet Search Engines Including Media Law and Anti Trust Law' (2005) 6(10) German Law Journal 1419.

⁴ L Otterwell and D Bray, 'Search for Answers—Search Engine Functionality and Infringement Concerns' [2005] Copyright World 154.

⁵ German Federal Court of Justice, I ZR 259/00, 17 July 2003, 'Paperboy'

2. Getting message across

Another important aspect of academic publication is to get the message across. Therefore, it is important to understand how academic authors explain words/concepts, give examples or add comments in their texts for their readers. Expressions which are used for this purpose in each paper have been counted in order to understand how this aspect has changed over time. Examples of these expressions include 'such as', 'for example', 'i.e.' and 'that means'. Parentheses were also counted when they are used to add comments.

According to the frequency count of this category, the number of these expressions is similar in four of the five papers, or around 10 uses per 1,000 word count. In the 2012 paper, however, the frequency of these expressions is one third more or around 16 uses per 1,000 word count, when compared to the 1996 paper.

In all five papers, there were found to be many uses of 'such as', 'or' to explain words or concepts to the readers as well as the use of parentheses to add comments. In case of 'i.e.', it is frequent in all papers except for the 2010 paper (Shaping) in which it was not found. The word 'say' is frequent in the 1996 paper but was not found in other works.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 1996): The psychological experience of posting a message to a bulletin board (say) is very different from that of publishing in conventional print-bound media.

(Woodworth 1996): E-mail especially tends to combine intimacy, lack of forethought and lack of personal cues (such as voice tone and eye contact) in a dangerously defamation-prone combination.

(Woodworth 2004): This paper considers the aspect of copyright in the light of the so-called "digital (or internet) revolution" of the last twenty years,

(Woodworth 2010 Fair): Despite the pressing questions over the current state and role of the law ..., it is perhaps too early (and indeed undesirable at this stage) for regulators to step in ..., particularly as the regulators themselves are unclear as to the underlying rationales ...

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Disputes have arisen between search engines and the content owners (such as the entertainment company, the publisher, the author) in which the law has been applied at times hesitantly, at others bullishly, to the business followed, and the technology deployed, by the search engine.

(Woodworth 2012): These are all socially and legally important questions with which this article engages while focusing more squarely on the questions of how technologies aid the disabled (specifically the blind) in accessing culture (specifically books), and how the law helps or hinders that access.

3. Argumentation

There seems to be no doubt that the core of academic publication in social sciences is the argument it presents. Therefore, it is important to understand how academic authors craft their argument.

According to the textual analysis of conjunctions, adverbs and expressions for text flow or for argumentation, the type with the highest frequency per 1,000 word count belongs to the category of addition (such as 'and', 'in addition') with the frequency of around 3.7 uses per 1,000 word count. This is followed by the categories of (a) contrast (such as 'but', 'however') with a similarly high frequency, (b) cause-effect (such as 'as a result', 'because') and (c) concession (such as 'although', 'despite'). The latter two were used with lower frequency. The category of comparison (such as 'likewise', 'in the same vein') is extremely low (i.e., 1 use per 5,000 word count).

However, argumentation is not just about using these expressions for rhetorical purposes. Therefore, it will be more useful to discuss this during the second interview in order to gain further understanding based on these sample texts or any other texts selected by the author regarding how to craft and establish the argument.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 2004): The key point was that, by contrast with the analogue world in which, although copying was easy, the copy was

invariably less good than the original, the digital work would always copy perfectly. The digital downloader would get as good a version as the master copy on the original site--and would get it increasingly easily and quickly as the digital technology moved on. The internet thus provided a tremendous new way to reach consumers in the comfort of their own homes. But the difficulty also facing those minded to exploit these opportunities was precisely the ease and speed of digital copying.

(Woodworth 2004): The paper thus concludes by suggesting that there are now at least three major questions of policy and fact requiring further investigation. How is policy for digital dissemination being interpreted in sectors not concerned with entertainment (for example, education and research, and supporting industries such as libraries and archives; i.e. how are producers exercising their rights here)? What impact is that having on the digital delivery of content by publishers and other suppliers to the education/research sector? Is the policy followed in recent reforms of copyright and related areas of law suitable for digital dissemination of works in those sectors outside the entertainment industry?

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Search engines are powerful tools. While Internet service providers (ISPs) may be the gatekeepers to the Internet,² search engines make accessible the content of the Internet.³ It is said that 80 per cent of Internet users who are searching for a specific site will start their search using a search engine.⁴ A meaningful use of the Internet without search engines is therefore virtually impossible.⁵ There is, however, the potential for harm. By controlling the accessibility of Internet content, search engines inevitably create winners and losers through the inclusion or exclusion of that content. It is vital, therefore, that a regulatory environment not only lays out a regime in which the innovative work of the search engine can flourish, but does so whilst also recognising the harms that can be inflicted on the interests of other stakeholders.

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Content will not stop being produced; content owners will not stop making available content; search engines will not stop innovating; users will not stop wanting access to content. The question is whether the regulatory environment is optimal for the future development of a balanced and orderly information marketplace in which innovation can thrive, interests of content owners be respected, and the public interest furthered.

4. Attitude expressed in academic writing

One aspect of academic publication which might not be widely recognised is about the attitude expressed in academic writing. The attitude referred to here is intended to be about the argument rather than the subject matter. Two main kinds of attitude to be discussed here are certainty and doubt but there are also other kinds of attitude such as surprise and significance.

Based on the five sample texts, the frequency of expressions to signal attitude regarding the argument is reduced slightly in the later papers.

In all five sample texts, it was found that the expressions which emphasise certainty (such as ‘certainly’, ‘clear’) are less frequent than the expressions which tone down certainty (such as ‘might’, ‘quite’). The frequency of these confident expressions was found to be usually one third of the ones to tone down certainty.

4.1 Emphasising Certainty

The frequency of the expressions to emphasise certainty is quite low in all papers or around 4 expressions per 1,000 word count.

These words ‘certainly’, ‘clearly’, ‘no doubt’ and ‘of course’ were found in many papers to emphasise the certainty and they tend to be used at the beginning of a statement.

4.2 Toning down Certainty or Casting Doubt

The frequency of expressions to tone down certainty was found to be quite high, around 12 uses per 1,000 word count or three times as many as the ones to emphasise certainty. The words in this category with the highest frequency include ‘might’, ‘could’, ‘would’, ‘should’, ‘argue’ and ‘certain’. The frequency remains quite stable over time except for the 2012 paper which contains the lowest frequency (around one third less).

4.3 Other kinds of attitude

Other kinds of attitude which could be found in the five sample texts include the attitude about significance (such as ‘important’, ‘significant’) and surprise (such as ‘unfortunately’, ‘unsurprisingly’). Overall, the frequency of attitude per 1,000 word count was found to be quite low. The expressions for significance were found with higher frequency only in the 1996 paper.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 1996): Should the traditional law of libel apply to the Internet? Should the Internet not be exploited in an unregulated atmosphere? On the one hand, the argument, in its broadest sense, is that the Internet has grown and expanded because of the enthusiasm of its users. Any form of formal regulation would stifle its vibrance and utility. Regulation should lie with the creators and users, and not faceless bureaucrats. Anyone wishing to 'play' on the Internet should be prepared to accept the rules and behaviour that have been created with it.[18] On the other hand, there are those (the 'new-style' Internet users) who argue that the laws applying to the Internet should be the same (or similar) as for any other equivalent medium, notably traditional hard copy publishing. Growth of the Internet will not be encouraged by the lack of intervention and regulation. Rather, lack of intervention may lead to underuse of the potential of the Internet because only a few can accept its at times anarchic content and unknown legal risks. There are even those who argue that, because of the ease with which information can be disseminated and reputation ruined on the Internet, a fortiori there should be increased penalties for those who use and hide behind the anonymity of the medium to ruin the reputation of others? Such commentators regard the Internet as a serious site of commerce and interaction, not a playground.

This debate creates uncertainty and risk for all 'players'. Does the law of libel apply, and if so, to whom?

(Woodworth 2012): For example, consider height, or rather shortness. This is a physiologically-based human variation which might have some impairing consequences, but which has been constructed as a disability ... The hormone manufacturer Genentech claimed that the shortest 3% of the population should be treated. Of course, such claims shift to the variation-bearer the burden of responding to the societal discrimination used to justify the treatment, and also to entrench and regularise a potential (permanent) client base. Unfortunately, for the impaired person:

The only group that clearly doesn't gain from the medicalisation of social difference is its targets. In the 1998 the ... Lancet reported that "short children whose height was increased by two to three inches ... received no psychological benefits". [Quote as Paragraph]

5. Being an academic author

In this topic, there are the issues of how academic authors interact with their readers and the research community. Three main issues will be explored here as in how academic authors portray themselves in the papers, how they address their readers for engagement and how academic conventions influence their writing.

5.1 Personal profile in the paper

Based on these 5 sample texts, the personal pronouns ‘we’ and ‘our’ are used to portray the author profile even though some of them are single-authored (i.e., the 2010 paper on Shaping the Future of Knowledge). There is no instance of ‘I’ in any paper and ‘we’ can be seen in all papers except for the 2010 paper on Fair Trade. The 2012 paper contains the highest frequency of ‘we’ because the word ‘we’ is repeated many times in the same paragraph but the 1996 paper contains much higher frequency of ‘our’ than ‘we’.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 1996): Our aim is to ... Our strategy, therefore, is first to ... In our scenario, ... The issue is very relevant to our example.

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): So what trends do we see so far? ... So once again we see differences in the application of the laws of the US and UK ... Here we see the court regulating activity by copyright ... We turn now to a different project in which Google is engaged

(Woodworth 2012): Below, we map recent efforts to use technology to increase access to the written word by the blind. We then consider the legal framework, focusing on human rights law, which endeavours to protect all people equally, as it interacts with copyright law. We argue that, with one notable exception, this framework is very much designed by and for the sighted with limited regard for the interests or inclusion of the unsighted or partially sighted.

5.2 Addressing readers and interacting with the audience

According to the textual analysis in which the frequency of expressions to denote engagement with the reader or the audience was counted, the frequency of these expressions per 1,000 word count was found to be similar in each paper. The word ‘question(s)’ can be seen in all five papers as well as expressions for attention such as ‘consider’, ‘regard’, ‘describe’ and ‘note’.

Sample texts

(Woodworth 2010 Fair): These figures can be interpreted in two ways. On the one hand, it could be argued that by allowing competitors to bid on trade marks, consumers are faced with more choice as to websites to visit, and they take up that opportunity. On the other hand, it could be suggested that sponsored links are confusing and that consumers are diverted to competitors’ sites although they expect the trade mark owner’s

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): One might argue that the link to the cached page is only provided to the single user who initiates a search, and does thus not fall under this provision.

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): Another question may be as to whether the cached webpages are really temporary.³⁷ Google stores the webpages in its cache at present for approximately 14-20 days.³⁸ Although this has been regarded as temporary in US law,³⁹ the same result may not be arrived at under the CDPA. It has been described as a ‘moot point’ whether proxy server caching by universities, libraries and others to avoid congestion could fall under the temporary reproduction section.⁴⁰ But there are other difficulties. Providing access to cached webpages is unlikely to be considered a technological necessity. It is rather an end in itself, offering the user who searches the Internet an additional service.⁴¹

5.3 Academic convention

Academic publication tends to involve a certain level of academic influence. It will be useful to discuss these issues during the second interview based on the sample texts in this report or any other texts you wish.

To illustrate, the word 'describe' which may signal engagement with the reader was found more frequently in its passive form 'libel has been described as ...' rather than 'Prosser describes libel as ...'.

Sample texts

[Passive form]

(Woodworth 1996): This distinction is also relevant in the United States, where libel has been described as 'the embodiment of the defamation in some more or less permanent physical form', whereas slander is more transitory.

[Using action verb with inanimate object]

(Woodworth 2004): This paper considers the aspect of copyright in the light of the so-called "digital (or internet) revolution" of the last 20 years, and raises some issues about the current and future shape of the law which seem to require further examination and reflection. In particular, it argues that much of the reform of copyright law ... has been motivated by the concerns of what we call the "entertainment industry" ...

(Woodworth 2012): These are all socially and legally important questions with which this article engages while focusing more squarely on the questions of how technologies aid the disabled (specifically the blind) in accessing culture (specifically books), and how the law helps or hinders that access.

[Use of modals such as 'would', 'will', 'could', 'can', 'may', 'might']

(Woodworth 2010 Shaping): One might be tempted to argue that the lawful use is that of the user finding the link to the page, it being lawful for the user to call up the webpage. However, it would appear that this is not the 'work' for the purposes of this exception. The work is rather the one that has been cached and is used to produce the index. Moreover, it is difficult to argue that the cached copy has no independent economic significance. Search engine functionality depends upon the cache and it thus lies at the heart of the search engine business model. It would seem that this exception is not relevant to the caching process.

Appendix G: Code Families in Phase 1

Code family: *'Academic Authorship'*

Code members: *'Personal Experience'* and *'Self-Perception'*

Sub-code members: *'Academic Influence'*, *'Personal Growth'*, *'Sense of Authority'*, *'Sense of Price'* and *'Sense of Weakness'*

Membership rules: Each code is related to academic authorship in terms of how the professor participants experience themselves as an academic author over time in order to understand the academic influences on their personal development and their self-perception.

Code	Code Description	Example of Coded Text
Academic Influence	Use this code for any description about the academic influence on the professor regarding their writing	<i>Because in the past, you got promoted, in social sciences, by monographs and single-authored papers. In sciences, that wasn't the case, engineering and sciences are always ten or fifteen people in every project and they all get cited. But in the university where I was, particularly in L University where I had my early part of my career, they wanted single-authored books, single-authored articles. And that's just the way I was taught. Things have changed about 15 years ago in social sciences. You've got a lot more joint authored things then. It wasn't a policy change. Nobody stood up one day and say, 'Now I would change it.' It just evolves.</i>
Personal Growth	Use this code for any description about the professor's personal development.	<i>I think when you start off as an academic, you always feel a little bit worried about how your article would be taken but when you then realise that nobody says anything bad thing about you, or they don't say anything at all. If they do usually it's usually something nice, you get more confidence, but more confidence comes not just from when you do more writing, but when it comes when you reach, the process between your research and your, and your teaching and your writing and the conferences you go to, the interaction with people, the research projects that you do. So, all this gives you the confidence that actually your idea is very good and that people enjoy what you have to say.</i>

Sense of Authority	Use this code to any description about the sense of being an established figure in the field, or the feeling that they are recognized or that they are an expert in the subject area.	<i>I'm not sure I have ever become an established figure. But I suppose it would have been when I was made a professor and that happened when I was 39. And that was 15 years ago.</i>
Sense of Pride	Use this code for any description regarding the professor's sense of pride and achievement or any positive self-appraisal of their work.	<i>each department is looking at the publications and doing an internal grade and then they send them out to somebody famous to see. And they graded it quite high, higher than I would have done. So, I looked vindicated.</i>
Sense of Weakness	Use this code for any description regarding the professor's sense of weakness or concern for improvement.	<i>And I've gone to conferences and I was so angry that I went into a rant. And I tried to calm it down officially. 'You Scots!' I'm trying to listen and you can't go on like that. So I'm not saying I'm completely changed at all but when I'm writing for the REF, and I was getting this feedback so in 2006, maybe the last 5 years or so I tried to be calmer particularly because what's happening in criminal trials make me so angry that I will lose the argument if I express myself in the tone I'm feeling. You can't do that. There's a lot of practitioners who go around and say 'It's the end of everything.' You know what I mean. And the people who run the system would say, 'You are so emotional and traditional. You got to produce arguments which are persuasive.'</i>

Code family: 'Academic Language'

Code members: 'Attitude towards Academic Language' and 'Personal Use of Academic Language'

Membership rules: Each code is related to academic language in terms of how the professor participants think about academic language in general and how they use academic language in their writing.

Code	Code Description	Example of Coded Text
Attitude towards Academic Language	Use this code for any description and attitude about the language used in academic publication as expressed by the professor.	<i>if I read publications in English literature, I think, 'Why do they write in this foreign language? Why do they not want me to understand what they're saying?' I don't get it. It's the same with sociology, why don't they just say what they mean. Mm, so there's no, for lawyers, there's no value in complication for its own sake. I'm not succeeding if people say 'I don't understand what they say.'</i>
Personal Use of Academic Language	Use this code for any description about the professor's personal language use in their written work.	<i>Well, it's playing with language. It's playing with language and it's playing with ideas in your use of the language. And so, that's exactly what it is. It's having academic experience to have the ideas and the knowledge to have the ideas and then it's control of the language to be able to play with it in order to express the ideas in ways that, attracts your audience, your reader.</i>

Code family: 'Academic Publication'

Code members: 'Getting Message Across', 'Feedback Received', and 'Decision on Feedback'

Membership rules: Each code is related to academic publication in terms of how the professor participants communicate and negotiate their worldviews with other scholars in their academic publication.

Code	Code Description	Example of Coded Text
Getting Message Across	Use this code for any description about how the professor gets their message across in their writing	<i>as long as I have a message I don't I don't mind. My voice needs to be balanced. It needs to be ... but it needs to have a message. So, it needs to be balanced and make a message. And I always, because I don't believe in hectoring, I don't believe in, 'bashing', people over their head with my views. I believe in arguments and I believe in making your argument in a moderated way. But I do believe also that, you know, making a strong argument is a good thing. Having a view is a good thing and making an argument is a good thing.</i>
Feedback Received	Use this code for any description about the feedback given by others to the professor	<i>Sometimes it's just, 'I think you should have mentioned such and such a case, so it's quite specific. You know, 'you should consider mentioning American literature on this'. You know, if you want to please them you go away and do that. So, it may be about structure. It may be about specific contents they want.</i>
Decision on Revision	Use this code for any description about the professor's decision on the revision and the rejection	<i>So, I just took it somewhere else not because I have any issues with that journal - I published in that journal since - but because he's got this lunatic and he doesn't really want to have a confrontation with that person. And we don't need it. We've got somewhere else to publish it, so we don't care. So, there are a couple of points which he made that are sensible. So we took them on board but you know, he was convinced that we were trying to say that this small study claimed to show a national trend but we did say earlier on that we were not trying to claim or show that.</i>

Code family: *'Writing Development'*

Code members: *'Writing Difficulty'*, *'Writing Support and Learning to Write'*, and *'Concerns for Young Academics'*

Membership rules: Each code is related to writing development in terms of how the professor participants experience writing difficulties, writing supports and concerns for young academics in reflection to their past experiences as young academics themselves.

Code	Code Description	Example of Coded Text
Writing difficulty	Use this code for any description about the difficulty in writing or the struggles in writing as experienced and understood by the professor.	<i>Well, that comes back to my process of writing, when I start off, I usually have a brilliant idea and know what I want to write. I've got a message there. I want to get it out. And that's absolutely fine but then I find sitting down and starting writing very hard. That's what I do my avoidance tactics and I walk round and round and round it. But when I got to a certain stage that I can actually sit down and write the thing, then I start to really enjoy it a lot more when it starts to take shape and the message starts to come out.</i>
Writing support (including Learning to Write)	Use this code for any description about the support the professor gets when they write a paper or what helps them to learn to write and publish a paper.	<i>I think having a point of view is important and I'm always saying to our students when they are writing essays: 'Have a point of view.' Because otherwise, it's not gonna go anywhere and it's very hard to structure if you do not feel you are trying to persuade somebody. But quite often, if you haven't got a point of view, you can fake one, you know. 'Okay, we won't believe this to be the case but we're going to say this is the case.' I talk myself into it and yeah I agree with myself. So, I think in terms of how can you write from an external point of view, it's having a belief.</i>

Concerns for young academics

Use this code to any description related to writing concerns for young academics and any insights into their own feelings when they started their career.

I think the most difficult thing is overcoming their own fear and that they will be rejected. A lot of people find that rejection is very hard to take. And I give a lot of talks to postgraduates all round Europe and elsewhere as part of the training that we do in political science and I always say 'You'll be rejected many times and take it on board. Learn from it.' But a lot of people don't. It makes them leave academia. They can't handle the rejection.

Appendix H: Metadiscourse Items in Phase 2

The table below gives an overview of the differences between ordinary words and metadiscourse items in the actual sample texts.

Metadiscourse?	Example in the Context	Reason
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- there is no <u>figure</u> representing conviction rates	This ' <u>figure</u> ' is beyond the textual structure of the paper
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- see Figure 8.1	This ' figure ' is within the textual structure of the paper
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- shortness (or <u>below</u> average height)	This ' <u>below</u> ' is not for organising the text structure
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- The equivocality judgment is discussed below	This ' below ' helps organise the text structure for readers
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- Under the [...] Act, a defence case statement must set out, inter alia, the nature of the accused's defence, <u>indicate</u> the matters of fact on which they take issue with the prosecution and why	The word ' <u>indicate</u> ' here involves neither the author's view nor the author's interaction with the source.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- Contemporary evidence indicates that deaf persons value being deaf	This ' indicates ' involves the author's interaction with the source and their implicit view
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- There is nothing in this Report to show what the Committee think 'recklessness' <u>means</u>	There is no transition for an argument.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- The defence of rixa may be available. This means that a defamatory statement is not actionable if it is shown that it would not be taken seriously by others	There is a transition to make an argument.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- new forms of distribution [are] made <u>possible</u> by the internet	This ' <u>possible</u> ' is not about attitude.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- It is perfectly possible for individuals to take action	This ' possible ' is about the author's implicit assumption. So, it is hedging.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- There are a number of possible exceptions available in domestic law	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- The publishers and <u>authors</u> , perhaps unsurprisingly, object to this business model	The ' <u>authors</u> ' refer to any writers in general, not the actual authors of such paper.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- The authors were indebted to Professor [A.B.] for her invaluable comments.	The ' authors ' refer to the actual writers of such paper. So, this is a self-mention.

Metadiscourse?	Example in the Context	Reason
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- In Europe there have been extensive discussions and meetings to <u>examine</u> possible solutions to this issue	The word ' <u>examine</u> ' in this case does not engage with the reader.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- In order to discuss some of these areas in more detail, it is useful to <u>examine</u> the structures of the 'new Whitehall' more closely	The word ' <u>examine</u> ' in this case asks the reader to engage with the writer.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- We do not need a lengthy <u>and</u> scholarly report in order to preserve what we already have. - The same is true of a motor cyclist, travelling at 77 mph, who glances at his speedometer <u>and</u> mistakenly thinks it reads 30 mph. - The differences are influenced by the approach that each jurisdiction takes to the functions of a trade mark, <u>and</u> the understanding of where the parameters of the monopoly conferred by the mark should lie.	The function of ' <u>and</u> ' is for listing or adding the information only. However, there is no interaction with the audience in terms of transition or argument.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- This principle is rarely applied in criminal cases, <u>and</u> its operation is unclear. - when their Lordships expressed their considered findings on this question the academic reaction was universally critical <u>and</u> these findings consequently have been ignored. - However, <u>and</u> as will be argued below, it may be that the court was striving for a balance between the content owner <u>and</u> the search engine.	The function of ' <u>and</u> ' is for transition. It can substitute many functions like inference, comparison and contrast. The meaning can vary, for example, ' as a result ', ' to the extent that ', ' whereas '. In the third example, the first ' <u>and</u> ' is a metadiscourse item because it recognises the existence of the reader to follow the argument but the second ' <u>and</u> ' is not a metadiscourse item.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- WhenU [company] offered a downloadable software <u>called</u> SaveNow which generated pop-up advertisements	This ' <u>called</u> ' is not a code gloss. It just tells the name of the software to the readers.
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	- it also displays small advertisements, also <u>called</u> sponsored links,	This ' <u>called</u> ' is a code gloss. It helps the readers understand another name of 'small adverts'

Appendix I: Examples of Metadiscourse Use over Time

List of Boosters in Professor Bracton's Writing over Time

Bracton 1981	Bracton 1997	Bracton 2006	Bracton 2011	Bracton 2012
actually (4) always as shown believes certain (2) certainly (4) clear (6) clearly (4) demonstrate entirely established held (5) hold indeed (3) know knows (3) must (2) never no doubt (2) obvious (6) of course (3) realised really show (2) shown (4) shows (2) simply (4) submitted sure surely think (3) thinks true (3) undeniable undoubtedly we have shown without doubt	always believed clear (4) clearly (5) demonstrated (2) entirely (2) has shown held (2) know knows must (3) obvious obviously (2) of course really shown shows simply (2) surely think thought	actually always believe (5) believed (4) believing clear (7) clearly (3) entirely (4) held (13) hold (2) indeed (2) must (1) of course realised shows simply (2) submitted (2) true (3) undisputed	always (2) believe (4) certainly clear (7) clearly demonstrated (2) entirely (5) held (2) indeed (3) indubitably must obvious of course really simply (5) truly	absolutely always believed (2) certainly clear (4) clearly entirely has shown held shows simply (4) There was no general view that ... think thought (2) true

List of Code Glosses in Professor Wonnacott's Writing over Time

Wonnacott 1986	Wonnacott 1995	Wonnacott 1999	Wonnacott 2004	Wonnacott 2010
etc i.e. indeed (4) means named or (3) particularly such as	define defined (3) defining definition (7) example (3) indeed (5) means (2) meant or (4) Put simply such as	call define defined example (2) indeed mean namely or (2) particularly put it more bluntly specifically (2) such as (2)	calls defined (2) defines (2) defining (2) definition example in other words (3) indeed (11) known as (2) or (5) specifically such as (11)	define example in other words indeed (5) known as (2) mean meant (2) namely or Specifically such as (8)

List of Attitude Markers in Professor Woodworth's Writing over Time

Woodworth 1996	Woodworth 2004	Woodworth 2010 (F)	Woodworth 2010 (S)	Woodworth 2012
acceptable admittedly agree agreed (2) appropriate (7) appropriately convincing correct differ (4) even (10) expected hopelessly important (7) importantly (2) inappropriately increasingly interesting (4) of little use potentially (3) prefers principally reasonably significant (7) The significance of unexpected unfortunate (2) Unfortunately unhelpful unsurprising usually (5)	admittedly agree (3) agreed appropriate differ even (7) expected increasingly (4) interesting preferred principally problematic unsurprisingly usually	acceptable agreed (2) appropriate correctly desirable differently (2) differs disagree (2) disagreed dramatically even (11) expect important (10) Importantly increasingly (2) interesting Interestingly (2) potentially prefer problematic (2) reasonably significant (6) significantly surprise surprising surprisingly undesirable (2) unexpected	agree (3) agreed (5) appropriate (2) differ (3) differs (2) disagreed essentially even (5) important (2) increasingly interesting (4) potentially preferable problematic (2) Sadly significant (4) significantly (2) surprise surprising (3) unconvinced unsurprising unsurprisingly (2) usually	agree (2) agreed (2) agreeing appropriate (3) differently (2) dramatically even (2) expect important (4) importantly (2) increasingly Interestingly ironically Parenthetically preferred significant (2) Significantly (3) Unfortunately (3) Unsurprisingly usually

Appendix J: Coding Frame in Phase 3

In Phase 3, I adopted the topics from the textual report as codes for analysis of the professor participants' reflections on the textual findings. There were 5 codes as follows:

Code	Code Description	Example of Coded Text
Referencing	Use this code for any description about the way the professor participants use and make sense of their references in their work	<i>It's not numeric at all. The convention in law is if you're saying this is the law, you always cite the source. And it should not be a textbook; it should be a legal source which means a decided case or an Act of Parliament. Otherwise it would be invalid; it can be anybody's opinion. You must give the authority for that and I guess referencing all scholars, when you cite them, you mention the source. So, for lawyers there is double obligation really,</i>
Getting Message Across	Use this code for any description related to the way the professor participants do to ensure that their readers receive their intended meaning. This code also includes their knowledge of their readers	<i>I don't explain myself anymore. You're right. I think you're probably right. It's very interesting. It's weird for people like me to be assessed like this. No, it's good. It's interesting. I don't know what your other interviewees say but it seems to me that one factor is journal or book you're publishing in because you have to know your audience. So, if you're writing a textbook for students, you will explain a lot and give a lot of examples and illustrations and stuff whereas if you know that the audience is professional, for example, this is the journal that I edit, so who is going to subscribe to this journal? It's not going to be people who don't know quite a lot about it. You know they are people who're really interested in it.</i>

Argumentation	Use this code to any description related to the way the professor participants set up or bridge many steps in their argument	<i>It is law so we always argue. We're arguing ourselves. We want to make a point. We will look at two sides of the argument. We look at the argument for and we look at the argument against. And we come to viewpoint or at least we have our argument and then we have to look at the argument for and the argument against why we argue. So, anything that helps us to make a point, then of course we add in addition, this is what I will point to. So, this is something that makes your argument a bit stronger and with 'but', 'however,' we have to deal with it but actually it's not the argument that we want to make but it's not the point that we actually agree with in terms of argument that we are trying to make. So, I think if you're saying to me such as 'in addition' why it comes out more regularly, yeah, they are ways of strengthening the argument perhaps, possibly. I haven't thought about it.</i>
Expressing Attitude	Use this code for any description about what they think about attitude expressed in academic publication	<i>'unfortunately' is a value-laden term and I try to avoid them. I could be surprised but it's not for me to say that something is unfortunate. That lens put me on someone's side and I think my role as an academic and as a writer is for the most part, not take sides, here's the evidence, here's the option. If I say, 'unfortunately', then I'm taking side with someone. And I try not to do that.</i>
Being an Author	Use this code for any description about the academic influences on the professor participants to write as an academic author	<i>Well, looking at it now, I don't like it very much. And I think maybe I should have said, 'I would examine' and 'I will raise the question' because it all seems a bit pompous, you know, 'oh, get on with it'. Although I can see, I don't know whether I can physically do it. It's not my way. It's not what I do. I've seen it without getting upset but I don't do it. But you could easily put it in the first person singular and make more sense really.</i>

Appendix K: Key Findings from Each Phase

I summarised the key findings from each phase and coded them as data to look for interrelationships and to create constructs in relation to social theories.

Key Findings from Phase 1 (Interview about their Experience of Development as Academic Authors)

- Academic authorship is now driven by the pressure to publish and the assessment framework. It is not just writing for others to review one's own works but also includes the contribution through reviewing other scholars' work. **[#1 Authorship = Writing and Reviewing]**
- Feedback by other scholars allow the authors to review their works and their worldview about the subject matters. Rejection is a way of maintaining quality control or improving academic scholarship. **[#2 Feedback and Rejection = Quality Control]**
- Sense of confidence, authority and pride comes from the fact that their works are cited or heard, that they become known with academic reputation and that they can work with other scholars to make an impact. **[#3 Authority = Being Recognised and Having Contact]**
- Academic authors feel comfortable using academic language and writing for publication because of their extensive training and supports. **[#4 Feeling Comfortable through Training and Support]**
- The REF (Research Excellence Framework) paves way for what counts as a good paper and academic authors cannot write for anywhere as they used to and they have to add theories or write in the way which help them achieve higher score. **[#5 Writing to Meet the Criteria]**
- Academic authors get their message across through original data and argumentation **[#6 Message = Original Data and Argumentation]**
- Academic authors distinguish comments and make judgements about how to revise their works. They cannot accept everything that everybody says. They need to see the point of such revision rather than they revise just to please the reviewers. **[#7 Selective Revision]**
- Being neutral about the topic makes writing difficult. A clear position is important. Another tactic is to ask questions or have a hypothesis to prove or disprove **[#8 Difficulty to write without positioning or questions]**
- Concerns for young academics are about their fear of rejection, their lost sense of joy for writing, their pressure to deliver high quality papers from start and their decreasing standard of written English. **[#9 Conquering Fear/ Dealing with Pressure/ Improving One's Language Use]**

Key Findings for Phase 2 (Textual analysis of their Interaction in Writing over time)

- Overall, interactive categories (evidentials, code glosses, transition markers) are more frequent than interactional categories (boosters, hedges, self-mentions, engagement markers), except for some of Prof Bracton's sample texts. [**@1 More Interactive than Interactional Groups**]
- There is a higher frequency in evidentials (or references) over time among all three professor participants' sample texts. [**@2 Higher frequency in references over time**]
- Self-mentions ('I', 'we') are low for all three professor participants and 'we' are more likely to be 'inclusive' rather than 'exclusive'. [**@3 Inclusive 'We' and Low Self-Mentions**]
- Addition markers ('furthermore') and contrast markers ('however') are highly used in the professor participants' sample texts. [**@4 Frequent use of Addition and Contrast**]
- In some instances, boosters and hedges are used in the same statement, making it ambiguous whether the academic authors wanted to increase or tone down their certainty about the statement. [**@5 Conflict in Attitude Markers**]
- For Prof Bracton's sample texts, there is a lower frequency in interactional groups (boosters, self-mentions and engagement markers). Exclusive 'we' is gradually replaced by inclusive 'we'. She rarely uses code glosses [**@6 Prof Bracton's lower frequency in Boosters, Self-Mentions, Engagement Markers and Code Glosses**]
- For Prof Wonnacott's sample texts, the features are quite similar over time, except for the fact that there is a higher frequency in evidentials and self-mentions (including citation of one's own previous works) [**@7 Prof Wonnacott's higher frequency in Self-Citations**]
- For Prof Woodworth's sample texts, there is a higher use of evidentials and code glosses and a lower use of hedges and engagement markers. Almost all 'we' are inclusive. [**@8 Prof Woodworth's higher frequency in Code Glosses, Decline in Hedges, Mostly inclusive 'we'**]

Key Findings for Phase 3 (Interview about their Reflection on Textual Analysis)

- The higher use of references is due to lack of original data, collaboration with other scholars, knowing more, more research studies of the same topic going on, more arguments and more theories. [**~1 References are related to Data, Knowledge and Argumentation**]
- Code gloss is useful for showing the relevance with real world, signalling the key points and explaining the complex concepts. [**~2 Code gloss for Signalling and Explaining**]
- Prof Bracton did not explain much in recent academic papers to avoid description because the readers are knowledgeable. [**~3 Low code gloss to avoid descriptive impression in order to fit the anti-explanation model because the readers are knowledgeable**]
- Argumentation is an exercise of persuasion. [**~4 Argumentation as an exercise of persuasion**]
- Prof Wonnicott disproves a hypothesis to follow the Socratic tradition. He engages with his readers explicitly [**~5 Hypothesis/ Socratic tradition**]
- Prof Woodworth strengthens her point through an internal debate. [**~6 Internal debate**]
- Prof Bracton uses contrast words to shows a caveat or a way out in law. [**~7 Contrast shows a Caveat/Opposite View**]
- Prof Wonnicott avoids value-lade attitude markers ('fortunately') and let the evidence speak for itself. [**~8 Avoiding Value-laden Attitude**]
- Prof Woodworth's sample texts contain more hedges to be more persuasive rather than 'bashing' [**~9 Hedges = Not bashing**]
- Prof Bracton believes that lack of attitude makes her papers uninspiring. Moreover, attitude is not only about certainty but also the level of aggression. [**~10 Attitude enliven papers and involves the level of aggression**]
- Use of 'I' is self-promoting and pompous. [**~11 Reasons for Low Self-mentions**]
- Professor participants were indoctrinated to use passive structure ('it was felt') and double negative sentence ('it is not uncommon') in law and they implicitly hint some reasons for using such forms. [**~12 Features of academic language**]
- Academic papers in English literature are impenetrable because they are too complicated to understand [**~13 Features of bad academic writing**]
- The use of modality can be understood as technical usage for hypothetical, conditional or subjective mode of expression (Prof Bracton), usage according to evidence (Prof Wonnicott) and usage according to the level of certainty and caution (Prof Woodworth) [**~14 Personal usage of modality**]

Appendix L: Interrelationships of Findings, Constructs and Conceptual Overviews

In this appendix, I list all the interrelationships of findings from each phase to create constructs in relation to social theories with their conceptual overview. There are 6 constructs in this study.

Construct A: *The Outstanding Quality and Level of Academic Scholarship*

Interrelationship of findings: [#1 Authorship = Writing and Reviewing] / [#2 Feedback and Rejection = Quality Control] / [@2 Higher References over time] / [~1 References are related to Data, Knowledge and Argumentation]

Description: The professor participants learned what counted as better and poorer in terms of authorship and research papers. To achieve the outstanding quality of academic scholarship, academic authors need to write for publication and review others' work. Through peer review, academic scholars could help distinguish what papers are suitable for publication. Rejection means that accepted papers are outstanding and pass the quality control. Some comments require professor participants to revise their works by adding more theories and this addition can be related to more references over time. The references are related to the professor participants' display of knowledge on the subject matter and helpful for their argumentation. Throughout this process, professor participants learned the dualistic typologies of authority and legitimate culture to judge which papers are poorer and better.

Conceptual Overview: These issues are related to Bourdieu's notion of dualistic typologies to make class distinctions among social groups.

Construct B: *Title of nobility and 'noblesse oblige' or the obligation to live up to the title of nobility*

Interrelationship of findings: [#3 Authority = Being Recognised and Having Contact] / [#5 Writing to Meet the Criteria] / [@6 Prof Bracton's lower frequency in Code Glosses] / [~2 Code gloss for Signalling and Explaining] / [~3 Low code gloss to avoid descriptive impression in order to fit the anti-explanation model because the readers are knowledgeable]

Description: The professor participants experience their sense of authority when their works are recognised by others and they have frequent contact with others. However, they cannot write as they wish as they used to do. They need to write/revise their works to achieve the highest score in the REF because two stars cannot live up to their title of nobility during the assessment period. Although code glosses are useful for signalling and explaining complicated concepts in some types of paper such as reports for policy makers, to achieve the highest score in the REF requires low frequency of code glosses to fit the anti-explanation model to avoid the impression that their papers are just descriptive. This is because their readers are knowledgeable. Within this subgroup, it can be discussed that the sense of authority is about being recognised that their works are relevant for the real world but their papers cannot be too descriptive. Otherwise, their papers do not live up to their title of authority as professorship.

Conceptual Overview: These issues are related to Bourdieu's concept called 'noblesse oblige', or the obligation to live up to the title of nobility.

Construct C: *Recognition of legitimate academic discourse and symbolic power*

Interrelationship of findings: [#4 Feeling Comfortable through Training and Support] / [@1 More Interactive than Interactional Groups] / [@3 Inclusive 'We' and Low Self-Mentions] / [~8 Avoiding Value-laden Attitude] / [~11 Reasons for Low Self-mentions] / [~12 Features of academic language] / [~13 Features of bad academic writing]

Description: Through training and support from other scholars, the professor participants feel comfortable using academic language and they can recognise what kind of academic writing is good or bad. Within this subgroup, it can be discussed that the recognition of legitimate culture of academic language begins with their training and support from other scholars. The professor participants internalise the logic of practice through dualistic typologies of comparison between good and bad forms of academic writing, and as such they recognise the symbolic power of such features to legitimate their ways of writing and their revision in their academic discourse.

Conceptual Overview: These issues are related to Foucault's concept of discourse, but more specifically related to Bourdieu's legitimate discourse and symbolic power.

Construct D: *Dialogicality or writing papers as utterances*

Interrelationship of findings: [#6 Message = Original Data and Argumentation] / [#8 Difficulty to write without positioning or questions] / [@4 Frequent use of Addition and Contrast] / [~4 Argumentation as an exercise of persuasion] / [~5 Hypothesis/ Socratic tradition] / [~6 Internal debate] / [~7 Contrast shows a Caveat/Opposite View]

Description: The professor participants did not just write; they wrote their papers with a message and to answer a question or a hypothesis. To get their message across, the professor participants look for the original data they have and the arguments they craft. They might argue to persuade real readers or argue with their internal debate or to show the opposite view of the argument. The issues in this subgroup include addressivity and answerability.

Conceptual Overview: These issues are related to Bakhtin's notion of dialogicality.

Construct E: *Dealing with Others' Words or Worldviews*

Interrelationship of findings: [#7 Selective Revision] / [@5 Conflict in Attitude Markers] / [~9 Hedges = Not bashing] / [~10 Attitude enliven papers and involves the level of aggression]

Description: The professor participants learned to deal with their feedback and to use others' words or worldviews in their works. They acknowledged that they cannot accept every comment that everybody says about their works. They gave examples of their use of attitude markers such as hedges to avoid 'bashing' on the head of their readers and other kinds of attitude to enliven the papers. Some attitude expressions they used reflected the style of calm lawyers to reduce the level of aggression. The conflict in attitude markers signals the fact that their statement is hybrid and multi-voiced.

Conceptual Overview: These issues can be discussed in relation to Bakhtin's theory about heteroglossia and hybridity.

Construct F: *Expressing extra-linguistic authorial speech*

Interrelationship of findings: [#9 Conquering Fear/ Dealing with Pressure/ Improving One's Language Use] / [@6 Prof Bracton's decrease in Boosters, Self-Mentions, Engagement Markers and Code Glosses] / [@7 Prof Wonnicot's Increase in Self-Mentions] / [@8 Prof Woodworth's Increase in Code Glosses, Decline in Hedges, Mostly inclusive 'we'] / [~14 Personal usage of modality]

Description: The professor participants learned to insert evaluative judgements in their writing as part of their worldview. They needed to think about their readers and they had different understandings of the use of modality in their writing, signalling their personal usage of language.

Conceptual Overview: These issues are related to Bakhtin's concept of evaluative accents in language use.

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