Authorial References in Single-Author Research Articles of L2 English Student Writers and L1 English Authors

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ABSTRACT


The current study aims to explore to what extent L2 English student writers make their authorial presence explicit or implicit, using personal and impersonal authorial references in Applied Linguistics single-author research articles (RAs) throughout the whole RA or across article sections, compared to L1 English expert writers. The study constructed an L2 English corpus of 33 RAs written by Korean postgraduates and an L1 English corpus of 25 RAs written by L1 English scholars. It analyzed the frequency of four types of personal or impersonal authorial references in the two corpora: first-person singular and plural pronouns, their-person NPs and inanimate NPs. The results of the study revealed predominant use of inanimate NPs, abstract rhetors, in the two corpora; yet, author group variations were also noted from underuse of first-person singular and plural pronouns, overuse of third-person NPs, and less section-specific use of authorial references in the L2 English student writer corpus; and from preferred choice of specific impersonal self-reference expressions between the corpora. The findings from the study suggest not only the influence of impersonal written discourse style but also that of L2 English student writers’ native language, culture and literacy practice, and their status in the academic community and publication context, on their authorial references.

KEYWORDS
authorial reference, authorial presence, self-reference, personal, impersonal, explicit, implicit, research articles, L1 English, L2 English, student writers

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1. Introduction

In writing a research article (RA) authors project themselves into their research to effectively position their work in relevant research fields in presenting research purposes, methods, results, and implications (Hyland 2001, 2002, Swales 2004). They employ authorial reference strategies such as referring to themselves with first-person pronouns. Authorial personal references used to be avoided in RAs since impersonal style is a prevalent convention in academic writing, which should not be subjective and personal (Chang and Swales 1999, Hyland 1998, 2002). In the past few decades, yet, a move away from impersonalized style of academic writing to personal style has been recognized in prior research on RAs, highlighting writers' social and interactive performance (Hyland 2001, 2002, Swales and Feak 2012), though there is no consensus on the style in academic writing style manuals (Bennett 2009) and personalized style does not appear prominent in empirical studies of academic discourse (Hyland and Jiang 2017). Authorial references in RAs are acknowledged as rhetorical strategies, as Hyland (2005) views them as a “conscious choice by writers” (Hyland 2005: 181) for authorial presence.

The authorial reference or authors’ self-mention refers to the degree of explicit authorial presence in a text (Hyland, 2005). It is typically realized by first-person singular or plural pronouns (e.g., I, my, me, we, our or us); yet, it can also be realized by impersonal linguistic forms including inanimate noun phrases (NPs) (e.g., this study) or passive voice as well as by third-person NPs referring to the author (e.g., the researcher) (Molino 2010, Walková 2018). These authorial reference devices are employed to construct personal or impersonal authorial presence in RAs from an individual or collective perspective or a detached self, which is related to internal and external factors determining the extent of authorial visibility in positioning their research in relevant disciplinary fields and addressing the reader in a discourse community (Dontcheva-Navrátilová 2013). From the individual perspective, authors refer to themselves in presenting claims or arguments and addressing individual achievement in or contribution to relevant research fields; they are exclusively realized in first-person singular pronouns. On the other hand, authors can be visible from the collective perspective in establishing common grounds in a discourse community with the reader; this is linguistically realized in first-person plural pronouns. Moreover, authors can be less visible as being a detached self, who constructs a position with a distance from their readers by representing themselves in third-person NPs such as the researcher (Wu and Zhu 2014).

Authorial references in RAs have been mainly examined from individual or collective perspectives; thus, previous studies have focused on analyzing first-person singular or plural pronouns (Kuo 1999, Hyland 2001, Martínez 2005, Molino 2010). These studies have presented the occurrence patterns of first-person pronouns and their rhetorical functions in RAs, suggesting interdisciplinary variations (Hyland 2001, Khedri 2016, Khedri and Kritsis 2020) or cross-linguistic or cross-cultural variations (Chen 2020, Martinez 2005, Molino, 2010, Mur Dueñas 2007, Walková 2018, 2019, Wu and Zhu 2014, Xia 2018). Predominant use of first-person pronouns found in L1 English RAs has denoted L1 English researchers’ preference of explicit personal authorial presence.

Whether authors make their presence explicit or implicit, or personal or impersonal in RAs is their rhetorical choice (Khedri and Kritsis 2020). Though a stylistic change from impersonal to personal has been noticed from academic discourse including RAs (Hyland 2001), such a personalized and subjective style of academic writing has not yet appeared prevalent (Hyland and Jiang 2017). The writing style of RAs is still often viewed as impersonal or objective (Khedri 2016). Implicit or impersonal authorial references can perform functions for positioning authors’ work and establishing their credibility as rhetorically as explicit or personal authorial references (de Chazal 2014, Khedri and Kritsis 2020, Rundblad 2007). Previous studies reflect a dearth of research

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1 Authorial reference, self-mention and self-reference are mutually used to refer to authors’ self-reference in this paper.
observing both explicit and implicit or personal and impersonal authorial references. In a language such as Korean, personal pronouns are often omitted as long as they are recoverable in the context. This leads to avoiding the use of first-person pronouns for explicit authorial visibility and employing less explicit expressions like third-person NPs (e.g., *the researcher*) or impersonal constructions such as inanimate NPs, abstract rhetors (e.g., *this research* or *the current study*) (Hyland 1996). Furthermore, authors’ cultural background would refrain them from using personal self-reference devices, since authorial references are influenced by external factors such as authors’ social and cultural background (Dontcheva-Navrátílová 2013, Ivanič 1998). Those from collective cultures such as Korean L2 English student writers could rely on covert authorial references, avoiding self-reference with first-person singular pronouns like Chinese or Slovak L2 English student writers (Chen 2020, Walková 2019) due to their culturally shaped understanding of authorial presence (Hyland 2002). The influence of these factors has been rarely explored in journal articles written by L2 English student writers.

As the need of publishing RAs in English-mediated international journals is enhanced in the globalized academic world, L2 English student writers, particularly postgraduate students, have been pursuing publishing RAs in English, particularly, in international journals as well as local journals, to become a member of the relevant international or local academic discourse community. Yet, constructing authorial presence to create credits of their research in the relevant fields is a challenging task, as a lack of authorial visibility or voice in L2 English RAs or authors’ self-mentions are recognized as problematic in L2 English academic writing by international journal editors (Flowerdew 2001, Hyland 2002). How L2 English student writers present themselves as an author would reflect not only their status in the academic community and their genre knowledge of RAs and academic writing training but also their linguistic and cultural background including culturally shaped authorial responsibility, as suggested from cross-linguistic and cross-cultural studies (Ivanič and Camps 2001, Martínez 2005, Molino 2010, Mur Duenas 2007, Sheldon 2009, Vassileva 2000, Xia 2018). As mentioned above, nonetheless, such linguistic and cultural influence on authorial presence in L2 English student writers’ RAs have been scarcely examined, inadequate to provide insights into their rhetorical choice and thus pedagogical guidelines on authorial presence as rhetorical strategies in asserting or promoting their research claims and contributions. The majority of studies on the authorial presence of L2 English student writers including Korean L2 English students have investigated first-person pronouns in student essays, project reports, term papers or master’s or doctoral theses (Can and Cangır 2019, Chen 2020, Hyland 2002, Lee 2007, Luan and Zhang 2016, Luzón 2009, Sung 2015). No specific study has explored personal and impersonal authorial references in L2 English student writers’ journal articles.

The current study thus aims to examine to what extent Korean L2 English postgraduates make their authorial presence explicit or implicit, using personal and impersonal self-reference devices (first-person singular and plural pronouns, third-person NPs, and inanimate NPs) in their RAs in the field of Applied Linguistics, compared to L1 English expert writers. The study further explores whether their authorial references display a distinctive pattern across article sections from that of L1 English experts in the discourse community in which they seek membership to secure their positions as researchers. Ultimately, the study attempts to shed light on how L2 English RA authors, particularly, Korean L2 English student writers, position themselves in their disciplinary fields by constructing the relationship with the readers of the target academic community. The study addresses the following research questions:

1. To what extent do L2 English student writers make their authorial presence explicit or implicit, using personal and impersonal authorial references in Applied Linguistics RAs, compared to L1 English experts?
2. What are the explicit and implicit personal authorial references used in the RAs and across the article sections by the two author groups?
3. What are the impersonal authorial references used in the RAs and across the article sections by the two author groups?

2. Literature on Authorial References in Research Articles

Linguistic forms used as authorial references are categorized as interactional meta-discourse markers (Hyland 2005, Thompson 2001). Up until now, a number of studies on authorial references have explored first-person pronouns as a way of establishing the author’s voice in academic writing including L2 student writing (Hinkel 2002, Hyland 2001, 2002, Ivanič and Camp 2001, Tang and John, 1999). The frequency and functions of first-person pronouns from individual or collective perspectives have specifically been analyzed in RAs since the degree of authors’ overt presence plays an essential role not only in demarcating their research from other studies and projecting their contributions to the research field but also in constructing a dialogical space with the reader (Hyland 2005, Kuo 1999).

Authors project their presence in RAs in either a personal or impersonal style (de Chazal 2014, Molino 2010, Khedri and Kritsis 2020). The majority of studies on authorial references have explored explicit personal authorial presence by analyzing first-person pronouns (Hinkel 2002, Hyland 2002, Ivanič and Camp 2001, Lee 2007). In a science RA analysis of personal pronouns, for instance, Kuo (1999) found far more prominent occurrences of first-person plural pronouns than other personal pronouns. The study also provided insights into the interplay of semantic references and discourse functions of first-person plural pronouns chosen by the writers for their communicative purposes such as explaining the research, highlighting the contribution to the research field, or establishing a common knowledge ground with the target reader as a member of the discourse community.

The influence of authors’ academic disciplines on the use of authorial references has been observed in research on authorial presentation in RAs (Harwood 2005, Hyland 2001, Khedri, 2016, Khedri and Kritsis 2020). For example, Hyland (2001) revealed interdisciplinary variations in a comparative study of first-person pronouns and self-citation in L1 English RAs between soft disciplines (e.g., applied linguistic and sociology) and hard sciences (e.g., biology and engineering). Authors of soft science RAs employed first-person singular pronouns more frequently for more explicit authorial presence, while first-person plural pronouns were mainly used in hard sciences, which pursue objective positions of researchers. Presenting the discourse purposes of self-mention expressions, Hyland stated that authorial references are not just determined by genre or disciplinary conventions but also by authors’ rhetorical decisions in promoting their scholarly identity and research. Cross-disciplinary variations have also been found in other studies (Harwood 2005, Khedri, 2016). In line with Hyland (2001), Khedri (2016) observed a discrepancy between soft discipline and hard science RAs in the frequency and use of first-person plural pronouns: soft discipline authors used them more frequently in enhancing the explicitness of authorial presence, addressing their research contributions.

Additionally, authorial references appear to reflect RA authors’ linguistic and cultural background (Molino 2010, Mur Dueñas 2007). This has been illustrated by corpus-based comparative studies of RAs published in English and other languages (Molino 2010, Mur Dueñas 2007, Sheldon 2009, Vassileva 1998, Wu and Zhu 2014). Vassileva (1998) conducted a comparative investigation of authorial presence in English, German, French, Russian, and Bulgarian by analyzing the frequency and discourse functions of first-person singular and plural subjective pronouns (I and we). The results of her study demonstrated more prominent use of the pronouns in the Linguistics RAs written in English compared to those written in the other languages. They further revealed culture-specific features (e.g., the influence of a culture favoring collective responsibility) as well as common features in authorial
presentation across the five languages (e.g., avoidance of personal perspectives in concluding remarks following the impersonalized scientific style). Subsequent intercultural analyses of authorial references in journal articles published in English and other languages have also displayed cultural influence on the use of self-reference expressions. In a comparative study of Mur-Dueñas (2007), for example, authors’ self-mentions with first-person pronouns were found to be more prominent in RAs written in English than in Spanish, which can be accounted for by different cultural and linguistic contexts of publication in the two languages, such as the competitiveness in publishing articles in international journals. More recently, Wu and Zhu’s (2014) contrastive study of English and Chinese RAs in Applied Linguistics has also suggested cross-linguistic and cross-cultural variations in the use of first-person singular and plural pronouns, though it has displayed a common pattern of the two language groups’ performance as a detached self by using third-person NPs (e.g., the researcher). Authorial presence of English authors was more explicit or individual with the use of first-person singular pronouns for the role of discourse constructor, arguer, and evaluator than that of Chinese authors, who did not use singular pronouns but represented themselves as a collective self by using plural pronouns for the role of researcher.

Cross-linguistic or cross-cultural issues in RA authors’ self-reference have motivated a comparison of journal articles written by L1 and L2 English authors, as non-native English researchers face the need of publishing their research in English-mediated local or international journals and of becoming multi-rhetorical to meet expectations in local and international academic discourse context (Mur-Dueñas 2007). Martínez (2005), for instance, compared the use of first-person plural pronouns in Biology RAs written by L1 English and L2 English (Spanish) academics. A significantly higher frequency of first-person plural pronouns was found from the L1 English corpus, which is in accordance with the findings from Hyland (2002). Significant differences across article sections except for the Method section were also noted due to L2 English writers’ underuse or overuse; L1 English authors employed first-person plural pronouns in the Results and Discussion section more frequently to explain the research procedure and state the results of the study and their claims, indicating their commitment to the research and their responsibility of the research findings and interpretation. Similarly, the analysis of metadiscourse use in Applied Linguistics RAs written by L1 English and L2 English (Korean) academics in Uhm, Kim, Nam and Oh (2009) illustrated prominent occurrences of authorial self-mention markers in the L1 English corpus compared to the L2 English counterpart. Kafes’ (2017) analysis of authorial references in Applied Linguistics RAs also revealed predominant use of I in the L1 English corpus, while it found noticeably high frequency of we and the third-person NP the researcher in the L2 English corpus, implying culture-specific influence on the strategical choice of authorial references for different rhetorical purposes. Interestingly, overuse of exclusive we was found from the L2 English RAs in computer engineering written by Iranian authors in Kuhi, Tofigh, and Babaie (2013). L1 English and L1 Iranian researchers were similar in using explicit and implicit authorial references; nonetheless, Iranian L2 English authors employed explicit expressions slightly more, while L1 English researchers used prominently more implicit devices.

In writing a research article, it is essential not only to deliver the contents of the research such as its goal, research procedures, results, and claims effectively to the reader in the target disciplinary community but also to gain credibility of the research by projecting authorial presence with the use of authorial references (Harwood 2005, Hyland 2001, Sheldon 2009), as academic writing has not only its transactional purpose but also its interpersonal purpose (Chen 2020). Likewise, findings from previous studies on authorial presence in RAs have revealed authors’ strategical use of self-reference devices for rhetorical purposes. More prominent use of first-person pronouns found from L1 English RAs, particularly in hard science, has suggested preference of explicit personal authorial references in English RAs. In addition to disciplinary factors, RA authors’ linguistic and socio-cultural background play an influential role in their self-presentation and discourse style such as personal or
impersonal. This implies problems L2 English writers may encounter in explicitly projecting themselves as a credible researcher in the disciplinary field to promote their research to be published in international research context. It would become more problematic when L2 English student writers work on writing their RAs, as Hyland (2001) states inexperienced L2 English writers would be at a disadvantage in constructing their author identity. Furthermore, there is no consensus on the use of personal or impersonal authorial references in English academic writing style manuals (Bennett 2009); inconsistent or conflicting findings on L1 and L2 English academics’ use of self-reference expressions (Xia 2018) could not provide clear guidelines for L2 English student writers. Authorial presence in L2 English student writers’ RAs inherits complex nature since it is triggered not only by their understanding of RA genre conventions and competence as a researcher (Hyland 2002) but also by their English proficiency (Luan and Zhang 2016) and L1 linguistic and cultural background (Chen 2020). Nonetheless, no specific information on their authorial presence in a research article is available due to a dearth of studies on it, though they have a growing need to publish a research article to become a member of the target disciplinary community and develop their credibility as a researcher. The majority of studies on authorial references of L2 English student writers including Korean L2 English students have dealt with first-person pronouns in argumentative essays, project reports, term papers or master’s or doctoral theses (Back 2014, Hyland 2002, Lee 2007, Luzón 2009, Sung 2015). For instance, Back (2014) analyzed authorial references as part of interactional metadiscourse markers in the corpus of L2 English (Korean) graduate students’ term papers, demonstrating noticeably higher frequency of self-mention expressions in the Results, Discussion and Conclusion section than the L1 English RA corpus and different functions of first person singular pronouns between the two corpora. As investigated in Molino (2010) and Chen (2020), authorial presence could also be realized in implicit or impersonal linguistic forms such as third-person NPs or inanimate NPs, especially in a language such as the Korean language, in which personal pronouns are rarely used in academic writing (Kang 1999). Thus, an investigation on impersonal authorial references as well as explicit and implicit personal authorial references in RAs written by L2 English student writers could shed light on their rhetorical strategies for explicitly or implicitly projecting authorial presence as an RA author. Moreover, a comparison with L1 English RAs would provide valuable insights into the extent to which L2 English student writers make their presence explicit or implicit similarly or differently from L1 English academics.

3. Research Method

3.1 Corpus

A corpus of L2 English single-authored RAs in Applied Linguistics written by Korean L2 English postgraduates (L2 English corpus) was constructed by 33 articles (190,882 words) published from 2009 to 2019 in the following 11 Korea-based local journals on the KCI (Korea Citation Index) list: "English Teaching, Korean Journal of Applied Linguistics, Korean Journal of English Language and Linguistics, Foreign Languages Education, The SNU (Seoul National University) Journal of Education Research, Multimedia-Assisted Language Learning, STEM Journal, Journal of Research in Curriculum Instruction, The Journal of Linguistic Science, Journal of Studies in Language, and The Linguistic Association of Korea Journal. The articles were selected by controlling authors’ educational background, research methods, article structures, and publication years. The authors were limited to the Korean L2 English graduate students who had not received higher education in English-speaking countries to control the influence of L1 English rhetoric instruction on academic writing. Their educational background was checked by
the information on their tertiary education institutes provided in a Korean government website or the biodata presented in their master’s thesis or doctoral dissertation. Data-based studies with a separate method section including corpus or text analyses were selected since authorial references were analyzed across article sections using the IMRD (Introduction-Methodology-Results-Discussion) structure framework (Swales 2004) to minimize the possibility of variations by types of research methodology such as case or ethnographic studies, in which a large number of self-reference to the author, especially in first-person singular pronouns, could have occurred.

Table 1. Corpus Profiles by Author Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RA Section</th>
<th>Total words</th>
<th>L2 English (33 articles)</th>
<th>L1 English (25 articles)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total words</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>64844</td>
<td>1964.97</td>
<td>709.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>42218</td>
<td>1279.33</td>
<td>517.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>54993</td>
<td>1666.15</td>
<td>885.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>28837</td>
<td>873.85</td>
<td>441.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total length</td>
<td>190882</td>
<td>5784.30</td>
<td>1215.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To construct a corpus of L1 English expert writers’ RAs (L1 English corpus) comparable to the L2 English postgraduate RA corpus, 25 single-author RAs in Applied Linguistics (174,908 words) were drawn from the following international journals published between 2009 and 2019: Journal of English for Academic Purposes, Journal of Second Language Writing, TESOL Quarterly, The Modern Language Journal, English for Specific Purposes, Reading and Writing, Written Communication, Applied Linguistics, English Language Teaching Journal, Journal of Pragmatics, Language Assessment Quarterly, Language Policy, Reading in a Foreign Language, and System. The articles were also collected by controlling authors, types of research, and article structures. The authors were limited to L1 English scholars affiliated to a tertiary education institute in the inner circle of countries, USA, UK, Canada, Australia, and New Zealand. Their biographical information was checked through the biodata provided in the articles and personal and institutional homepages to verify their linguistic and cultural background as an L1 English writer. Additionally, the research type of the articles was limited to data-based research including corpus or text analyses with an independent methodology section.

In constructing the two author group corpora, only the main parts of the articles were compiled by removing names of authors and journals, information on authors’ affiliation, article titles, page numbers and headers, abstracts, keywords, bios, acknowledgements, references, notes, and appendices. Tables and figures were also excluded. Table 1 presents the size of the two corpora and the average length of the article sections. Section headings, direct quotes, excerpts, and examples were included in counting the total words; however, they were excluded in the data analysis. Each L2 English student writer’s article was shorter than that of the L1 English experts; thus, more articles from the former were included in the corpus.

3.2 Data Analysis

All the articles in PDF format collected for each corpus were first converted to Word DOC format. After removing the parts excluded from the analysis, they were converted into TXT format. For the quantitative analysis, then, the total number of words of each corpus, article and section was calculated by using AntConc 3.5.8. Four types of expressions referring to the author or the study examined in the previous studies (Chen 2020, Hyland 2005, Kuo 1999) were analyzed in the present study. The first two types were first-person singular and plural pronouns by grammatical cases: I, my, me, mine, we, our, us, and ours. Since an instance of mine and ours was not
found, these two possessive pronouns were eliminated. The third type contained third-person NPs including expressions with the noun *researcher* or *author*. The fourth type was inanimate NPs, abstract rhetors, such as a construction with the words *study, research, paper, article, or investigation* as identified in prior research (Chen 2020, Khedri and Kritsis 2020). With the concordance program of AntConc, the four types of authorial references were searched in each corpus. All the instances of expressions referring to the authors or their research listed in the results of the concordance analysis were manually reviewed by the researcher to eliminate the cases which did not refer to the author or the author’s research in direct quotes, excerpts, and data of the study. For the reliability of data coding, authorial references marked by the researcher in each corpus were reviewed by a TESOL instructor with a doctoral degree in Applied Linguistics.

The number of authorial references was counted in each RA and by its article sections. The researcher counted the raw frequency of total occurrence, authorial references by types, and individual self-reference expressions, and calculated the percentage of authorial references by types and article sections per corpus, and within a type of expressions. To compare the frequency distribution of authorial references between the two corpora, the raw number of expressions was normalized to the frequency per 1,000 words since the two corpora and each RA differed in length.

### 4. Results

#### 4.1 Frequency of Authorial Reference by Types

The total instances of authorial references in Table 2 display a lower frequency in the L2 English corpus (648 cases) than the L1 English corpus (808 cases); the percentage (0.35%) in the corpus and the mean frequency per article (19.64 cases) were also smaller than those in the L1 English corpus (0.47%, 32.32 cases). The normalized frequency of authorial references revealed the Korean L2 English student writers (3.45) used self-reference expressions less frequently than the L1 English experts (4.73). This is in accordance with the underuse of self-mention devices observed from the L2 English undergraduate corpus in Hyland (2002) and the L2 English RAs written by Korean writers in Uhm et al. (2009) and Slovak writers in Walková (2018).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>L2 English</th>
<th>L1 English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total occurrence</td>
<td>648</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st person singular pronouns</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>2.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st person plural pronouns</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person NPs</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>14.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inanimate NPs</td>
<td>524</td>
<td>80.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The comparison of authorial references by types, as shown in Table 2, illustrates similarities and differences in the use pattern of the four types of self-reference expressions between the corpora. The raw and normalized frequency and percentage of inanimate NPs were markedly higher in both corpora than first-person singular and plural pronouns and third-person NPs. A discrepant frequency pattern between the two author group corpora was also noted from first-person singular and plural pronouns and third-person NPs. The L2 English student writers
used first-person pronouns saliently less than the L1 English scholars, six times less frequently, while they represented themselves with third-person NPs more frequently. Underuse of first-person pronouns was also observed from L2 English RAs in Linguistics or Applied Linguistics compared to L1 English ones in prior research (Dontcheva-Navrátilová 2013, Jasim Al-Shujairi 2018, Uhm et al. 2009, Walková 2019, Xia 2018). Within first-person pronouns, the Korean L2 English postgraduates made marginally more use of plural pronouns, parallel to a higher frequency of first-person plural pronouns over singular ones found in the Chinese L2 English master’s thesis and doctoral dissertation corpus (Chen 2020). First-person singular pronouns were the least preferred choice in the L2 English corpus, though the corpus contained only single-author RAs. Contrarily, singular pronouns were the second salient authorial references in the L1 English corpus, similar to their predominance found from the L1 English Linguistics and Applied Linguistics RAs in Wu and Zhu (2014) and Chen (2020). On the other hand, the raw and normalized frequency of third-person NPs in the L2 English corpus exceeded those in the L1 English corpus, as prominent use of third-person NPs has also been observed in Applied Linguistics RA corpora of L1 Korean authors (Lee 2014, Park 2012) and L1 Chinese authors (Chen 2020) compared to L1 English counterparts. Their higher frequency appears to compensate for the low frequency of first-person pronouns.

4.2 Personal Authorial References: First-person Pronouns and Third-person NPs

First-person singular and plural pronouns as authors’ self-reference expressions were analyzed across the three grammatical cases (subjective, possessive, and objective) to explore whether the L2 English student writers and L1 English RA scholars had a preference for certain types of first-person pronouns, as in Table 3. In both author group corpora of single-author RAs, the singular subjective pronoun \(I\) and the plural subjective pronoun \(we\) were found as the most predominant authorial references, in congruence with the highest normalized frequency of \(I\) and \(we\) over other first-person pronouns found in Dontcheva-Navrátilová’s (2013) analysis of L1 and L2 English single-author RAs in Applied Linguistics. Yet, author variations were also observed between the two author groups. The L2 English student writers favored \(we\) from a collective perspective (45.45%, 15 cases) over other first-person pronouns; the L1 English experts more often referred to themselves in \(I\) (49.49%, 98 cases) than \(we\) (31.31%, 62 cases) and their use of the plural objective pronoun \(us\) (18 cases, 9.09%) was also noticeable since there was no single occurrence of \(us\) in the L2 English corpus. The normalized frequency of first-person pronouns indicates a markedly lower frequency of not only \(I\) and \(us\) but also \(we\) in the L2 English corpus compared to the L1 English corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>L2 English</th>
<th>L1 English</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(I)</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>27.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(My)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Me)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(We)</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>45.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Our)</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Us)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The raw and normalized frequency and percentage of first-person singular and plural pronouns across the sections were analyzed in the two author group corpora. Table 4 displays noticeably lower frequency of singular
and plural pronouns per section in the L2 English corpus, as their smaller amount was noted from the total number of first-person singular and plural pronouns in the corpus (see Table 2).

Table 4. Frequency and Percentage of First-person Singular and Plural Pronouns by Sections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>L2 English</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>L1 English</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Normalized</td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Normalized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>53.85</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>16.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singular Pronouns</td>
<td>Method</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.38</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>36.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Results</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>15.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30.77</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>32.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st Person</td>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>36.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural Pronouns</td>
<td>Method</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Results</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.24</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>33.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>23.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The frequency distribution pattern of singular and plural pronouns across the sections in the L2 English corpus demonstrates the L2 English student writers’ use pattern of singular and plural pronouns across the sections was similar. They used both singular and plural pronouns more frequently in the Introduction section, followed by the Discussion section than the other two sections, though a limited number of pronouns occurred in all the sections. As shown in Example (1) from the Introduction section, four L2 English postgraduates made use of singular or plural pronouns for a low-risk task, stating the goal or purpose of the study or explaining the background or motivation of the study. In the Discussion section, contrarily, three L2 English postgraduates employed these pronouns for a high-risk task, that is, suggesting implications or conclusions of the study as an originator (Tang and Johnson 1999), as in Example (2). This conflicts with the avoidance of using singular pronouns in the Results section; unlike the Discussion section, the L2 English student writers were more cautious with their authorial references in the Results section, which triggers a high-risk authorial reference task in stating the results.

(1) [Introduction]
To date, a number of studies have been undertaken to identify common grammar errors made by Korean students ..... However, studies are scarce in the Korean EFL context that attempted to explain those errors by identifying their specific sources. Therefore, I set out to inquire into these recurrent, systematic deviations from the norms of the English language presumably due to cross-linguistic influence (Sharwood Smith, 1983) and to get at their possible sources. (L2 RA 33)
This study focuses on peer interaction on the basis of group structure in online text-chat discussion since my previous pilot research showed that group structure is a significant factor that should be carefully considered to facilitate peer pressure in small group activity in a CMC context. (L2 RA 29)
The studies provide a general view of the effective ways to develop CALL materials and extend our understanding of individual SLA principles. (L2 RA 3)
Lu (2011) commented that it is important to control the related factors when we study the relationship between syntactic complexity measures and language proficiency and that more measures should be taken into account. (L2 RA 16)
(2) [Discussion]
On the basis of the findings from this current study, I offer several educational implications. (L2 RA 11)
Therefore, we can conclude that regardless of whether Korean students learn English as a second language or a foreign language, they have a tendency to introduce more sentence topics than native English speakers. (L2 RA 15)

Compared to the L2 English corpus, the raw and normalized frequency distribution of first-person pronouns by number was more distinctive across the sections in the L1 English corpus. The L1 English scholars made more salient use of singular pronouns in the Method section (36.79%) and the Discussion section (32.08%) and of plural ones in the Introduction (36.96%) and the Results section (33.70%). This suggests the L1 English researchers made a strategical choice of singular or plural pronouns for authorial presence depending on article sections or rhetorical functions. The dominant use of singular pronouns in the Method section denotes that the L1 English experts preferred explicit personal authorial presence to demarcate their research methods from other studies, as shown in Example (3), in which the authors, as a recounter of the research process, explicitly delivered what they did, assuming “personal responsibility for actions or decisions” (Martínez 2005: 184) made in the research procedure. The smallest amount of singular pronouns was found in the Results section compared to the other sections; nonetheless, it was markedly larger than that in the L2 English corpus since no single case was found in that section of the corpus. Example (4) shows that the L1 English author explicitly projected his authorial position as a researcher who states the results or has responsibility for certain methodological actions leading to the results found in the study. This is the rhetorical function identified from the plural pronoun we in the Results section in Martínez (2005).

(3) [Method]
I applied SEM to evaluate the conjectured causal relations among the various variables investigated in the study. (L1 RA 6)

(4) [Results]
From the analysis of both samples of texts, I found that, when reviewing literature, the writers consistently expressed criticality by means of their use of three elements of genre knowledge from those listed in Table 1: 

....

.... After doing the initial move analysis, I decided to include Move 2 .... Table 2 outlines my analysis of the move structure of the whole of each Introduction section from the applied linguistics articles and .... (L1 RA 16)

As for first-person plural pronouns, the L1 English expert writers made prominent use of them in the Introduction and Results section. They mainly employed these pronouns for presenting a research gap or the necessity or motivation of the study to establish a niche in the Introduction section, as illustrated in Example (5), similarly to the L2 English corpus, or for stating results or interpreting the findings in the Results section as in Example (6). Contrary to singular pronouns, which were the most salient authorial references in the Method section, first-person plural pronouns were the least preferred authorial references in the section. This finding contradicts the highest frequency of we in the Method section of L1 English Applied Linguistics RAs found in Khedri (2016).

(5) [Introduction]
When planning how to train learners in listening for academic purposes, instructors are disadvantaged by the
inaccessible nature of the skill and by the lack of readily available information about it. We know comparatively little of the processes upon which a student relies when attending a lecture in a second language. (L1 RA 2)

Nevertheless, most agree it is important to consider why students might copy from source texts when completing academic assignments, as such investigations may help us to better understand not only students’ attitudes about textual borrowing, but also the role that such borrowing might play in their academic development. (L1 RA 20)

(6) [Results]
In Table 1 we can see that for the 3rd 1,000 word families, learners would need to read just over 300,000 running words in order to meet most of the 3rd 1,000 word families an average of 12.6 times. (L1 RA 19)

If we frame the Kroll et al. (2002) results (b) and (c), above, in neurodynamic terms, we would interpret them to mean that, in the case of the less fluent participants (and the Adult L2A condition here), the distributed memory networks were less efficient at … (L1 RA 5)

Third-person NPs as a self-reference device were mainly of two types of construction in the two corpora: the researcher and the author. They mainly appeared in the subjective position, as in Example (7). The two author groups had a preference of the researcher over the author (see Table 5), as noted from the L1 and L2 English Applied Linguistics RA corpus in Jasim Al-Shujairi (2018). A comparison of the raw and normalized frequency of the two types revealed more occurrences in the L2 English corpus. Interestingly, the L2 English student writers made more use of the author than the L1 English authors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>L2 English</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>L1 English</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The researcher</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>84.44</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td>.52</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>93.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The author</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>15.56</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Authors’ use pattern of third-person NPs was examined across the article sections. Table 6 displays a similar frequency distribution (percentage) of third-person NPs across the sections between the two corpora.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>L2 English</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>L1 English</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>82.42</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>93.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.69</td>
<td>.20</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third-person NPs were overwhelmingly used in the Method section, as in Example (7), in which both author groups projected themselves as the researcher of the study from the third-person perspective in recounting the research methods and procedures such as how research materials were developed or data were collected or analyzed. Jasim Al-Shujairi (2018) also found the prevalent use of the expression the researcher in the Method

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section of L1 English single-author Applied Linguistics RAs. Besides the Method section, seven instances of the researcher or the author were identified in the L2 English corpus in the Results and Discussion section, respectively, while only one or two incidences were found in the counterpart. The normalized frequency across the sections demonstrates the L2 English student writers used third-person NPs more frequently than the L1 English scholars in all sections. This illustrates they were less inclined to present their authorial role explicitly across all sections.

(7) [Method]
Students were given a scoring rubric for self-assessment and the researcher gave students a lesson about how to self-assess using the rubric. (L2 RA 4)
With regard to the above criteria, the researcher first calculated the percentage of correct translations. (L2 RA 20)
The author limited the number of attendants to thirty, since the workshops were provided in a computer lab with limited space and also she wanted to have more active communication with the participants. (L2 RA 22)
Based on the information from the preliminary text, the researcher chose to administer the main study text. (L1 RA 8)

4.3 Impersonal Authorial References: Inanimate NPs

As mentioned above, inanimate NPs referring to the study, that is, abstract rhetors, were the predominant authorial references in both author corpora. They included construction of the lexical word study, research, or paper with the singular demonstrative adjective this or the definite article, often with the adjective current or present, as Examples (8) to (10) illustrate. In the L1 English corpus, a small number of the noun article with this was found (see Table 7); moreover, diverse expressions with the demonstrative adjective this (e.g., this exploratory study or this investigation) were found, though their cases were limited to one or two in the corpus.

The raw and normalized frequency and percentage of inanimate NPs by construction types in Table 7 show that the L2 English student writers tended to favor this study and the present study over the other expressions. These two expressions were also frequently used by the L1 English experts; yet, they used a larger number of the study and the current study than the L2 English student writers. Both author groups referred to their studies more often with the noun study than with the noun research. An interesting finding is the two author groups’ preference of a different adjective in the phrase of the study or the research. The L2 English student writers tended to use the adjective present with study and the adjective current with research; while the L1 English scholars demonstrated the opposite pattern. The normalized frequency of 11 expressions between the two corpora in Table 7 further denotes higher occurrences of this article, this paper and the present research in the L1 English corpus.

A comparison of the frequency and percentage of inanimate NPs across the sections revealed more occurrences in all sections of the L2 English corpus, except for the Results section. It also denoted a similar frequency distribution between the two corpora, as in Table 8. Both author groups made the most frequent use in the Discussion section, followed by the Method and Introduction section.

Examples (8) to (10) illustrate that the L2 English student writers and the L1 English experts employed inanimate NPs for section-specific rhetorical purposes. Inanimate NPs were used to present main findings, implications or limitations, or state claims based on the results in the Discussion section (see Example 8); to recount the research design and process in the Method section (see Example 9); and to state purposes or goals of the study or address research gaps or background in the Introduction section (see Example 10).
Table 7. Frequency and Percentage of Inanimate NPs by Construction Types

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>L2 English</th>
<th>L1 English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This study</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>47.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The study</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>12.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The current study</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>9.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The present study</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>24.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This research</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The research</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The current research</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The present research</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This paper</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The paper</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>This article</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8. Frequency and Percentage of Inanimate NPs by Sections

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>L2 English</th>
<th>L1 English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Raw Number</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>26.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>29.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>192</td>
<td>36.64</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(8) [Discussion]
In closing, the findings of this study have pedagogical implications for teaching academic writing in EAP contexts. (L2 RA 32)
The present study delved into the Korean EFL learners’ processing of the English CMCs through online and offline experiments. (L2 RA 20)
Unlike the first hypothesis, which played a peripheral role in the study, the second hypothesis was central to the main research question (L1 RA 4).
Background knowledge in Taboada and Guthrie (2006) was operationalized as discipline-specific knowledge, whereas the current study examined the contributions of more general knowledge. (L1 RA 8)

(9) [Method]
The participants for this study majored in humanities (English literature) and social science (journalism) .... (L2 RA 11)
The present study was designed to examine the effects of two types of voice-based chat on Korean EFL students’ negotiation of meaning, according to proficiency levels. (L2 RA 1)
All participants completed a background survey, used to confirm eligibility for the study and to gain deeper understanding of learning histories. (L1 RA 9)
In the current study, students wrote their diaries (in Japanese) using the online word processing tool Google DocsTM. (L1 RA 12)

(10) [Introduction]
To fill the gap between theoretical and pedagogical TBLT in class, the present study aims to explore TBLT for
novice L2 learners in Korean college context with the following rationales … (L2 RA 1)
Therefore, this study aims to investigate the effects of digital English textbooks on college EFL learners’ self-regulated learning in an English class. (L2 RA 5)
The study presented in this article takes a step in this direction by comparing the oral fluency development of ESL learners in an entirely online SCMC classroom with that of a comparable group of learners in a traditional face-to-face classroom. The present research also involves a control group to provide a better framework for understanding the contribution that SCMC makes in the development of oral fluency. (L1 RA 4)
The current study, conducted for this purpose, examined the effects of requiring learners to generate synonyms for target words in a first language (L1) on incidental and intentional vocabulary learning during L2 reading. (L1 RA 11)

Examples (8) to (10) further display that each author group was inclined to use certain abstract rhetors. The L2 English student writers preferred this study and the present study and the L1 English experts favored the study and the current study across the sections, as in the use pattern of the constructions in the two corpora. The L2 English student writers made preferable use of this study in all sections over the other constructions, as shown in Example (11) (54 cases in the Introduction section; 78 cases in the Method section; 18 cases in the Results section; and 97 cases in the Discussion cases). This suggests they might not differentiate its rhetorical functions section-specifically, in other words, they used it as the agent of the study regardless of rhetorical purposes. To contrast, the L1 English authors made more strategical use of the four constructions; besides this study (93 cases in the Discussion section), they made prominent use of the current study in the Discussion section (46 cases) and Introduction (30 cases); and the study in the Method section (59 cases).

(11)[Introduction]
This study will investigate the patterns of syntactic complexity in English as L2 used by college-level students in Korea …. (L2 RA 16)
[Method]
The participants of this study were 27 undergraduate or graduate students in the Republic of Korea. (L2 RA 5)
[Results]
In this study, the NP-based bundles used in the Move 3-step 1 and Move 3-step 2 acted as triggers to achieve the specific communicative purpose as represented in text sample 4 and 5. (L2 RA 32)
[Discussion]
To address efforts needed for the abovementioned concerns, this study propose [sic] practical considerations applicable for standardized tests centers. (L2 RA 7)

5. Discussion

The current study has addressed to what extent L2 English student writers use personal or impersonal authorial references in their single-author Applied Linguistic RAs and across the article sections, compared to L1 English expert writers. The findings from the study presented in Table 1 reveal the L2 English student writers’ underuse of authorial references, particularly explicit personal references (first-person singular or plural pronouns), and their marginal overuse of implicit personal references (third-person NPs). This is congruous with the findings from the L2 English RAs written by Korean writers in Uhm et al. (2009) and Slovak writers in Walková (2018).
Predominant use of inanimate NPs in the two author group corpora, out of the four types of personal or impersonal authorial references analyzed in the study, nonetheless, is not supported by previous studies which found higher occurrences of first-person pronouns over third-person NPs or inanimate NPs, in other words, explicit personal authorial references over implicit personal or impersonal ones, in L1 English corpora of RAs in Linguistics or Applied Linguistics (e.g., Chen 2020, Khedri and Kritsis 2020, Walková 2018). Contrary to the discussion on the personal style of academic discourse including RAs (Hyland 2001, 2002, Swales and Feak 2012), prominent use of impersonal authorial references in both L2 English and L1 English corpus suggests that in Applied Linguistics RAs, L1 English authors as well as L2 English authors including student writers do not appear to prefer explicit or personal authorial references, as expected; rather, they make their RAs depersonalized and lower author visibility, maintaining the objective tone to minimize subjective biases.

The lower frequency of first-person singular and plural pronouns and higher ratios of third-person NPs as well as inanimate NPs in the L2 English corpus, compared to the L1 English corpus, as in Table 1, indicate that Korean L2 English student writers appear to preferably avoid explicit personal authorial presence more than L1 English experts, and yet favor implicit personal or impersonal authorial presence, projecting themselves as a research conductor rather than an opinion holder or originator (Tang and Johnson 1999). This might stem from their status in the academic community; the influence of the linguistic and rhetorical features of their native language; and their understanding of the genre conventions of RAs by which they might have been overwhelmed, particularly since their RAs address academic readers in the Korean local context. The status of novice members of the target academic community would lead L2 English postgraduates to project themselves as a detached self from the reader, using less explicit personal authorial references, since they may lack confidence in making their research claims personal and promoting their research explicitly. In Korean academic discourse, personal pronouns including first-person pronouns tend to be avoided, as their smallest number in academic theses has been found in the Korean corpus analysis across diverse written genres (Kang 1999). As suggested by the finding from the studies of L1 Korean RAs that third-person NPs or inanimate NPs were rhetorically preferred authorial references (Lee, 2014, Park 2012), Korean authors tend to construct less personal position with some distance from the readers, avoiding the use of first-person pronouns to preserve the objective tone based on their understanding of the writing style of academic discourse including RAs.

To discuss the findings from the analysis of personal and impersonal authorial references across the article sections, the ratios of the four types of authorial references across the sections in the two corpora are presented in Figure 1. Salient use of inanimate NPs in all sections in the two corpora, except for the Results section of the L1 English corpus (see Table 8), indicates that L1 English experts and L2 English student writers of single-author RAs in Applied Linguistics project themselves as a detached self rather than an individual or collective self through impersonal authorial references in all sections as well as in the entire RA. They use abstract rhetors as the agent of the study regardless of rhetorical purposes. More abundant occurrences of inanimate NPs in the Discussion section of the two corpora presented in Table 8 are contradictory to the subjective nature of the section suggested in Hyland (1998), in which authors make their own claims or arguments, provide speculation on the results, and draw implications. Figure 1 further displays the rhetorical preference of third-person NPs in the Method section than the other sections shared between the two author groups to explain research methods and procedures from third-person perspectives by sounding objective and downgrading personal involvement (see Table 6). This finding is consistent with the prevalent use of the third-person NP *the researcher* in the Method section of L1 English single-authored Applied Linguistics RAs found in Jasim Al-Shujairi (2018).
A similar frequency distribution of the four types of authorial references across the sections in the L2 English corpus suggests that L2 English student writers might be insensitive to section-specific rhetorical functions of authorial references (see Tables 4, 6, and 8). To contrast, more noticeable section variations of the four types in the L1 English corpus, particularly first-person singular and plural pronouns, denote L1 English experts’ more section-specific use of personal and impersonal authorial references, for example, more occurrences of first-person singular pronouns in the Method section, similar to the largest ratio of the singular pronoun I found in the Method section of the L1 English Applied Linguistics RA corpus in Jasim Al-Shujairi (2018). This is more conspicuous in the use of first-person singular and plural pronouns in the Results section, though instances of authorial references were the smallest in the section due to its nature (see Table 4).

Lack of explicit personal authorial references in L2 English academic discourse has been viewed as problematic (Flowerdew 2001, Hyland 2002). Underuse of authorial references, particularly that of first-person singular and plural pronouns, and overuse of third-person NPs found in the current study would pedagogically suggest L2 English student writers need to enhance explicitness in authorial references in writing their RA, particularly in the Method or Results section like L1 English experts. Yet, it would not be desirable to view the use of implicit or impersonal authorial references in L2 English student writers’ RAs merely as a lack of authorial presence since they appear to make a strategical choice of explicit or implicit authorial references for rhetorical purposes as much as L1 English experts. De Chazal (2014) states a great number of academic texts are written in an impersonal or objective style; the use of implicit or impersonal authorial references, avoiding personal pronouns, can perform the same rhetorical functions as authors’ personal self-references in delivering the contents subjectively. L2 English student writers should be thus exposed to a repertoire of diverse personal and impersonal authorial references for similar or distinct rhetorical functions in L1 English RAs and raise their awareness of L1 English experts’ rhetorical strategies including section-specific reference strategies. Furthermore, they need to be trained to make their own rhetorical choice depending on article sections and the publication context with consideration of the target readers, and their willingness to make themselves visible, highlighting their personal involvement and responsibility as the researcher in order to promote their research and themselves as a member of the target academic community. Additionally, author-specific

![Figure 1. Percentage of Types of Authorial References by Sections in the L2 English and L1 English Corpus](image-url)
preference of different constructions of the noun *study* for certain rhetorical purposes denoted in the L1 English corpus (see Table 7 and Examples (8) to (10)) further suggests that L2 English academic writing instructors provide a reference corpus of L1 English experts’ RAs with a list of personal and impersonal self-reference expressions for L2 English student writers and instruct them to use a concordance program for the selection of appropriate authorial references to the given context and their own rhetorical purposes.

The conflicting findings of the current study from previous studies (e.g., Chen 2020, Khedri and Kritsis 2020, Walková 2018) on personal and impersonal authorial references suggest further research on explicit and implicit authorial references in RAs in Applied Linguistics written by L1 English authors and L2 English authors including L2 English student writers. Such incongruous findings might have been triggered by differences in RAs analyzed.

The present study compiled only single-author articles of data-based studies written in the IMRD structure, excluding qualitative, ethnographical, or case studies, in which an abundant amount of first-person singular pronouns would be used. Khedri and Kritsis (2020) analyzed multiple-authored RAs to examine the use of first-person plural pronouns; Chen (2020) and Walková (2018) examined single-authored RAs and yet, research types were not controlled. Research on both personal and impersonal authorial references is limited; thus, they need to be further explored to draw a more generalizable or conclusive finding on to what extent authorial references are personal or explicit in Applied Linguistics single-author RAs in L1 and L2 English including L2 English student writers’ RAs, controlling corpus variables such as the number of authors and types of authors and research to make author group corpora compatible for comparison. As mentioned above, the current study has controlled types of research methodology to exclude their influence on the use pattern of personal and impersonal authorial references. If RAs are compiled by research types in a discipline, research method-specific variations can be explored and findings from the research would shed light on the influence of research methods on explicit or implicit authorial presence. If RA authors are retrospectively interviewed to explain why they used certain types of authorial references, as conducted in Hyland (2002), more profound insights can be provided into their strategical choice of explicit and implicit or personal and impersonal references for particular rhetorical functions.

Since statistical analyses have not been conducted in the study, future research needs to compile a more substantial number of RAs to detect whether any variations denoted from the study are statistically significant. Additionally, Applied Linguistics single-author RAs written by Korean L2 English academics should be explored to investigate whether the findings from the Korean L2 English student writers in the study reveal use pattern of personal and impersonal authorial references shared in the Applied Linguistics academic community of the Korean local context, specifically to generate pedagogical implications for L2 English student writers when they write an RA for the local readers of the community. It would also be meaningful to examine L2 English academics’ RAs published in international journals as well as in local journals in order to see the influence of publication context and the target discourse community, as the impact of competitiveness in publishing articles in the international context on the use of personal authorial references was denoted in Mur-Dueñas (2007). Functional analysis of personal and impersonal authorial references is also suggested for a statistical analysis. The current study has mainly conducted a quantitative analysis of the frequency of authorial references. If rhetorical functions of personal and impersonal authorial references are analyzed and their frequency is compared between L1 English experts and L2 English student writers, clearer and more valuable insights can be provided into the extent to which the two groups of writers make a similar or different rhetorical choice of authorial references for certain rhetorical purposes.

Further detailed analysis of lexico-grammatical features of authorial references and collocational patterns is also recommended by the findings from the similar or different rhetorical preference of certain constructions with a third-person noun (e.g., *the researcher*) or an inanimate noun (e.g., *this study, the study, the current study, the present study*) as well as first-person singular and plural subjective pronouns in the corpus of L1 English scholars
and L2 English student writers, as analyzed in Can and Cangır’s (2019) study of L1 and L2 English doctoral dissertations. Such an analysis may provide useful pedagogical guidelines on how to select appropriate grammatical forms of authorial references to the given context for certain verbs or verb tense.

6. Conclusion

The current study has dealt with both explicit and implicit or personal and impersonal authorial references in Applied Linguistics RAs written by L2 English student writers, compared to L1 English expert writers. The study provides insights into the extent to which L2 English student writers make their authorial presence explicit or implicit in their single-author RA compared to L1 English experts. The findings from the study illustrate not only their use pattern of personal and impersonal authorial references in the entire RAs or across article sections shared with L1 English authors but also their distinctive use pattern, particularly their underuse of explicit personal ones and overuse of third-person NPs, their preferred choice of specific impersonal self-reference expressions and similar use pattern of personal and impersonal authorial references across the sections. They imply not only the influence of impersonal written discourse style still prevalently adopted in writing journal articles in English but also that of L2 English student writers’ native language, culture, and literacy practice, and their status in the academic community, which triggers avoidance of first-person pronouns, in particular from individual perspectives, and preferred rhetorical choice of third-person NPs and inanimate NPs as the agent of their research detached from the readers.

References


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Examples in: English
Applicable Languages: English
Applicable Level: Tertiary