

**Chinese students' practice of using sources and
citations in their one-year taught Master's
programmes in a UK university**

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Abstract

This study investigated ten Chinese students' practice of using sources for rhetorical purposes during one-year taught Master's programmes (TESOL and Applied Linguistics) in a UK university. Participants' texts written over the year were collected and analysed for their citation use; discourse-based interviews were then conducted to understand the participants' reasons behind their own source use in texts; further, semi-structured interviews with the participants and collection of artefacts explored the support available to the participants on source use.

The findings of text analysis mainly confirm previous literature that student writers primarily use citations for knowledge display and less often establish links between sources or evaluate sources. However, they made more links between sources in their literature review chapter at the end of the year. In addition, the high-scorers used more citations and a wider range of rhetorical functions than the mid/low-scorers. The discourse-based interviews with students revealed complicated reasons behind their source use. Awareness of the rhetorical aspects of source use, language proficiency, grasp of domain knowledge, personal dedication to and time limits on coursework writing, and genre differences in coursework, were all found to be influential on students' source use. Further, a range of input on source use has been identified in the department and institution investigated. The majority of such support tends to be general advice. Only a few types of support involved a limited amount of specific contextualised source use, and only a part of this is about rhetorical source use. On the other hand, the participants clearly engaged with such support differently, and some were able to assimilate more input into their writing than others. However, a particular learner's level of engagement and dedication to study were often unstable – they cannot always be classified as cue-seekers or cue-deaf. Pedagogic implications will be discussed.

Keywords: international Chinese students; academic writing; citation analysis; source use; rhetorical functions; institutional support

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is a presentation of original work and I am the sole author. This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, University. All sources are acknowledged as References.

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Overview of the context

This thesis reports research conducted in an academic department of a northern university in the United Kingdom, hereafter referred to as the Northern University. The Northern University has relatively high ranks in the UK league tables. Its subject teaching is carried out in various academic departments. This study adopted a case study approach to investigate ten Chinese students' source use practices over a one-year taught Master's programme in the Department of Education at the Northern University. All of the students studied English language teaching-related subjects. Nine were enrolled on an MA TESOL programme (Teaching English to Speakers of other languages); one was on an MA Applied Linguistics programme.

It is interesting to investigate Chinese students' experience of learning as one representative group of international students. According to UK Council for International Student Affairs (2018), 42% of postgraduate students studying in the UK come from non-EU countries. Among these, Chinese students account for one-third of non-EU students, representing the largest number among international students. International students typically concern those who do not speak English as their first language. Many of them had not studied subject content in the medium of English in their home countries and had not been exposed to an Anglophone academic culture before coming to the UK (Chanock, 2008; Tian & Low, 2012).

They may find studying in Anglophone universities very different from their past educational experiences. Degree programmes in social sciences in Anglophone contexts usually require a substantial amount of academic writing for assessment purposes (Cooper & Bikowski, 2007; Gardner & Nesi, 2013). International L2 postgraduate students with little experience of academic writing in their previous education encounter considerable difficulties when studying social science subjects in Anglophone universities (Hamp-Lyons, 1991; Jordan, 1997). A major difficulty is source use, which is a key skill for engaging with others' work and advancing one's own arguments (Groom, 2000a; Pecorari, 2008a). This is hence the focus of this study.

This chapter will start with my personal interest in investigating students' use of sources. The chapter will then define source use in the context of this study. This will be followed by the rationale for the study, in terms of the importance of source use in academic writing, novice international students' difficulties in source use and Chinese students' source use in particular. The chapter will end with introduction to the layout of the thesis.

1.2 Personal Interest

I developed my interest in academic writing when I came to the UK to study my own MA degree in the same department that I investigated in this study. The requirement of academic writing which is based on wide reading of the literature, with the need to record these references clearly in the text, was rather new to me. I was rarely asked to write academic essays during my undergraduate study in China, even though I went to a prestigious university. For the only degree thesis that required some source use, there was no clear requirements or guidance on how to use sources in texts. What I and most classmates wrote was a mixture of our own ideas and ideas we translated from foreign texts, with all references aggregated into a bibliographic list without mention within the body text. Later on, during my Master's dissertation research, and during this study, I found that many of my participants had similar experience to mine in their undergraduate study in China. Similar issues of lack of clear requirements on source use have been documented in other countries as well. However, in order to succeed in the Master's programme in the UK, we need to understand the convention on source use and conform to it in our coursework writing.

Luckily for me there were many resources I could refer to during my Master's year, both in terms of academic writing in general and source use in particular. The tutors I encountered also made efforts in showing us how to signal citations. More importantly perhaps, as I read more texts, I was able to gain a sense of how citation use should look. For essay writing, I received good marks overall. However, I also noticed that many of my classmates were clearly struggling with source use conventions, and they continually had doubts about what was expected of them. It became clear to me that we perceived academic writing differently, despite being in the same department. Such experiences of being an international student, exploring

disciplinary conventions of source use, and observing other students' learning processes, motivated my interest in this research. I also became more familiar with the local departmental setting and the resources available in terms of academic support, which benefitted me later in recruiting participants and understanding writing tasks in this context.

After becoming enrolled on the PhD programme and becoming a graduate teaching assistant, I also began to see writing from the tutor point of view. As I taught workshops on text-matching software and pre-sessional EAP courses, I understood more about international students' typical challenges and was interested in exploring how institutional support could best help them in disciplinary learning.

1.3 Definition of source use

First of all, it is useful to define key terms used in this study. The term *source use* is adopted as an overarching umbrella term (Mott-Smith, Tomaš, & Kostka, 2017) covering all issues related to the use of source materials in academic writing, including the use of citations, referencing, paraphrasing, summarising, patchwriting, and the process involved in source use. These areas will be further explained in the Literature Review (Chapter 2). Another overarching definition is the distinction between source user and the sources used. Following Thompson and Ye (1991) and many others, I use the term *author* to refer to the creators of source texts, who are mostly disciplinary experts; the term *writer* refers to those using source texts for academic writing, i.e. student writers in my context.

This study will focus principally on the area of citation. Citation can be defined generally as “the act of putting an authorial reference into text” (Davis, 2013, p.125), which is a defining feature of academic writing (Hyland, 2000; Swales, 1990). In other words, academic texts always need to give reference to other texts, and to make knowledge claims based on previous literature. The term *citation* is often associated with its forms. Swales (1990) defined *integral citations* as citations that are merged within sentences (as in *Author X argued that...*), and *non-integral citations* as citations that are inserted at the end of sentences as a separate component from the sentence itself (as in *...(Author X)*. in APA style). Thompson (2001) further divided

integral and non-integral citations into sub-categories. The use of different citations forms indicates different rhetorical meanings in text. When using *integral citations*, a *reporting structure* can further be adopted to introduce the content, as in the verb *argue* in *Author X argued that...* Reporting structures can carry a range of semantic and rhetorical meanings. These rhetorical functions will be further explained in section 2.4.4.

Apart from citations, other areas of source use also contribute to students' difficulties. Arguably, all areas have an interrelated effect on each other, and it may be necessary to view these aspects holistically in investigating students' practice of source use (Cumming, Lai, & Cho, 2016; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). To begin with, the moral aspect of source use is well documented in the literature on L2 student writing. The term *plagiarism* covers a broad range of norm-breaching acts in source use, which is traditionally viewed as dishonesty and consequently institutional penalties. More recent literature pointed to the vagueness of the term plagiarism, that it in fact contains a range of misconducts from purchasing essays from essay mills to missing acknowledgement of an author (Mott-Smith et al., 2017). It has also been argued that students commit plagiarism not necessarily because of an intention to cheat, but usually because of their misunderstanding of the source use conventions (Pecorari, 2008a; Pecorari & Petrić, 2014). Most typically, unacknowledged source use is a type of plagiarism, that is passing on knowledge from sources as one's own. This might be due to a lack of knowledge of the concept of authorship, which will be explained further in Section 2.4.2.

Another term related to plagiarism is *patchwriting*, the act of copying language from source texts with only minor changes (Howard, 1995). This is more an issue of language difficulty in rephrasing the source's content rather than stealing others' language without acknowledgement. To avoid patchwriting, *paraphrasing* and *summarising* are important skills for re-stating the content in students' own words (more details in Section 2.4.3). *Paraphrasing* typically refers to retaining the same meaning as the original texts in different words, while *summarising* usually involves selecting and condensing meaning from source texts. These source use skills have also been widely investigated in student writing in universities (e.g. Hirvela & Du, 2013;

Keck, 2006; Shi, 2012). Successful use of these skills, however, are in fact more complex than their surface definitions and appear to require mastery of many other sub-skills (Shi, 2012).

Having explained key terms, the next section will provide the rationale for this study.

1.4 Rationale for the study

1.4.1 The Centrality of source use in academic writing

For novice L2 writers in Anglophone universities, the need to meet with the general requirement of argument and criticality is pressing (Durkin, 2008). These requirements are also vague and lacking in explicit explanations. In fact, source use is an important component for meeting these overarching requirements. Academic texts by nature need to engage with and build on previous sources in order to generate the writer's own arguments (Chanock, 2008; Hirvela, 2011; Rose, 1996). By contrast, arguments lacking sources as support and relying on personal opinions deviate from widely held academic conventions (Groom, 2000a).

Some studies have highlighted the importance of source use in argumentation in the context of UK higher education (HE). For example, Greasley and Cassidy (2010) surveyed 32 lecturers about what they look for in marking assignments, and found that critical arguments based on supporting evidence (i.e. the use of sources) was a major means to impress the markers. Wingate (2012a) analysed tutor comments on 60 undergraduate first-year essays, and found that many argument-related comments were about source use. 12 out of 40 low-achieving essays contained tutor comments on a lack of evidence, 14 of the 40 essays contained comments on uncritical description of sources, whereas 14 out of 20 high-achieving essays contained comments on good use of sources. This points to the importance of not only having sufficient sources to support arguments, but also giving analytical comments when using sources. Further, several studies have found a relationship between source use and the received mark of dissertations (Petrić, 2007, 2012; Schembri, 2013), giving ample evidence of the centrality of source use in academic writing.

1.4.2 Novice international (L2) students' difficulties in using sources

This section will introduce source use difficulties for students at different levels of study. It is first of all useful to define writers at different levels: novice writers, post-novice or pre-advanced writers, advanced writers, and expert writers. Novice writers typically refer to undergraduate (UG) students in first year (Li & Casanave, 2012; Morton, Storch, & Thompson, 2015) as well as in later years (Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). Postgraduate Master's students are sometimes regarded post-novice or pre-advanced writers (Shi, Fazel, & Kowkabi, 2018; Swales, 2014). However, in other contexts, if the learners lack previous experience in academic writing, L2 students during or immediately prior to graduate level can also be regarded as novice writers (Davis, 2013; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; McCulloch, 2012). This is also the case for the ten Chinese Master's students in the present study. These participants were new to academic writing in the UK context, although they were relatively advanced in general English writing due to their degree background in English language. I therefore define my participants as novice writers of academic texts. Students at PhD level are typically regarded as advanced writers (Penrose & Geisler, 1994; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). Expert writers usually refer to authors of published articles, who have become academics in a subject discipline (Harwood, 2009; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011).

Some language-related difficulties in source use may be more prominent for international L2 students than L1 students. L2 students in general have been reported to struggle with academic reading and writing demands due to their limited vocabulary set (Grabe & Zhang, 2013; Schmitt, 2005), and consequently extract less content from source materials for use than L1 students (Wu, 2013). They also tend to rely more on the original sources' language than L1 students, and tend to avoid paraphrasing or summarising (Keck, 2006; Shi, 2004; Wu, 2013). Instances of patchwriting, i.e. unsuccessful attempts to paraphrase with similar sentence structure and similar vocabulary use as the original, are also prevalently reported in L2 students' writing (Hyland, 2009; Li & Casanave, 2012; Wette, 2010). On a different aspect, L2 students also show more difficulties in understanding source authors' stance and integrating source information into their own writing (Borg, 2000; Chi & Nguyen, 2017). These difficulties are more prominent for L2 students with lower

English language proficiency than L2 students with higher proficiency (McDonough, Crawford, & De Vleeschauwer, 2014; Plakans & Gebril, 2012).

In contrast, other difficulties of source use are widely found in novice writers regardless of being L1 or L2 speakers, as academic language is no one's mother tongue (Keck, 2014; Wette, 2017). Low-achieving novice students' texts are often characterised as being descriptive and lacking authorial voice, that is that they rely too much on other sources to the extent of excluding their own ideas (Abasi, Akbari, & Graves, 2006; Borg, 2000; Groom, 2000a; Pecorari, 2003). It is also difficult for students to comprehend this requirement and to know how exactly to achieve it (Wingate, 2012a). However, recent studies have found that the problem of descriptive writing can be explained in part in terms of inability to use sources effectively. Novice writers in general employ a narrower range of rhetorical functions of citations than expert writers (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011), which can also be inferred from studies that documented novice writing (Li & Casanave, 2012; McCulloch, 2012; Shi, 2010) and expert writing (Harwood, 2009; Thompson & Tribble, 2001) respectively. In particular, student writers have been shown to use sources mostly for knowledge display, instead of critical evaluation or analysis of ideas (Abasi et al., 2006; Harwood & Petrić, 2012; Petrić, 2007), which may fall short of meeting with the requirement of criticality in academic writing in higher education.

Students' problems with authorial voice is caused by a combination of reasons. New students to UK postgraduate study are unlikely to have a developed awareness of criticality (Abasi & Graves, 2008). They may perceive academic texts as a monologic description built exclusively on others' sources, instead of a dialogic discussion involving both their own voices and others' voices (Chanock, 2008). They may have adopted this set of assumptions from their previous education (Chanock, 2008). Students can also be reluctant to criticise sources, particularly if their culture tends to assign authoritative status to published scholarly texts (Carroll, 2007). This also applies widely to any novice writers who perceive scholarly sources as superior and impossible to challenge (Thompson, Morton, & Storch, 2013; Wette, 2017). More importantly, a lack of domain knowledge can impede students from engaging critically with sources, as they lack confidence that their own contribution is valuable

(Lee, Hitchcock, & Casal, 2018; Mori, 2017; Wingate, 2012a). Overall, L2 students' difficulties in source use come from a range of reasons: linguistic issues, unfamiliarity with the discourse convention, and insufficient knowledge of subject discipline content.

1.4.3 Chinese students and source use

Chinese students share many of the same difficulties as those identified above for L2 students, but some difficulties might be even more pertinent for Chinese students. These are mainly because of three reasons: literacy experience, language and culture. To begin with, it appears that Chinese students typically lack experience of source-based academic writing before and during tertiary education in the Chinese education system. For example, Tian and Low (2012) noted that little literature documents student writing for academic purposes in Chinese universities, in Chinese or English language, in contrast to a large body of literature on student writing in UK and US universities. Tian and Low further surveyed 40 Chinese students with undergraduate degree from a range of Chinese universities, and found that most students did not have substantial writing experience, and did not receive enough training in China to cope with the postgraduate writing demands in the UK, particularly in terms of evidence-based arguments. Further, it has been shown that Chinese undergraduate programmes may train students' general EFL writing skills, but typically in the form of short opinion-based essays with a few paragraphs without any requirement of source use (You, 2004; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). Issues of source use therefore tend to be rarely addressed in Chinese tertiary EFL literacy education (Hu, 2005; Shi, 2004). However, caution must be taken when generalising this situation in a country as diverse as China. For example, one recent study has evidence of source-based writing as a means of undergraduate assessments in several Chinese universities (Cumming et al., 2018).

Regarding language issues, it is generally acknowledged that the syntactic and semantic difference between Chinese and English is larger than that between e.g. English and European languages (Richards & Schmidt, 2013). Chinese students may therefore face more difficulties in paraphrasing and using appropriate vocabulary to convey rhetorical meanings. For example, reporting structures (structures used to

convey an author's ideas, e.g. *state, suggest*) in English do not have one-to-one counterparts in Chinese language (Hu & Wang, 2014), and therefore it may be difficult for Chinese students to understand their rhetorical meanings, and to employ them appropriately in writing.

Other than language and experience, cultural difference on the perception of intellectual property might add to the difficulties that Chinese learners encounter. The concept of plagiarism is believed to derive from a western culture of individualism, in which ownership of ideas belong to authors of the texts and therefore need due acknowledgement (Pecorari & Petrić, 2014). In contrast, the Chinese culture typically represents a collectivist culture. In this regard, some Chinese students' preference to use original texts from sources instead of paraphrasing may be due to their respect for authors (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996; Qian & Krugly-smolska, 2008). This could also be due to the learning culture of rote memorising of texts in Chinese education (Ouellette, 2008; Pennycook, 1996). For example, rote memorisation is prevalent in the Chinese *gaokao* (College Entrance exam) system, a high-stakes test for 18-year-old students entering universities (Tao, 2016). This is in contrast to the emphasis on analysis, problem-solving and interpreting skills in equivalent exams in most Anglophone countries (Eckstrin & Noah, 1989). Nowadays, this latter difference in educational cultures seems more important than the general individualism / collectivism divide.

There is also substantial research evidence about the prevalence of plagiarism issues among Chinese learners. There was firstly some observation from EFL teachers when teaching Chinese learners, and frequent instances of plagiarism were reported (Hyland, 2001; Pennycook, 1996). In the Chinese university contexts, survey studies have found students' lack of sensitivity to the concept of plagiarism (Hu & Lei, 2012). Studies on summary writing tasks further found frequent instances of full or partial copying without acknowledgement in Chinese students' writing (Shi, 2004). Such documented deficiency in source use could be because of students' lack of understanding of plagiarism, as well as unfamiliarity with academic genres. However, when Chinese students receive training on plagiarism in Anglophone universities, there is evidence that they become more familiar with the convention than their peers based in Chinese institutions (Li & Wharton, 2012), and are less likely to plagiarise

(Tian & Low, 2012). There is also evidence that contemporary Chinese scholarly texts generally adopt the western convention when acknowledging source texts (Bloch & Chi, 1995; Kirkpatrick, 2002; Taylor & Chen, 1991), suggesting that traditional cultural tendencies have limited influence on acknowledging sources in this day and age. Overall, it seems that unfamiliarity with source use conventions and a lack of experience in source-based writing are more important than cultural aspects in influencing Chinese students' source use practices.

Given the importance of source use in academic writing in Anglophone higher education, the difficulties that L2 students and Chinese students in particular encounter in source use, it is clear that such students' source use practice is worth exploring. In particular, an understanding of how students develop their use of sources in their disciplinary writing, and how students learn about source use, can contribute to existing knowledge of the topic. It will also give more directions for how international students can be best supported to enhance their source use skills over a one-year programme.

1.5 Outline of the thesis

This section outlines the structure of the entire thesis. Chapter 2 will begin with theoretical aspects that grounded this research. Writing is viewed as communication with the audience. Related concepts such as genre, discourse community and stance and voice will be discussed in relation to source use. The review will then lay out the context of academic literacy practices in higher education, focusing on how knowledge is constructed in a range of disciplines, and task types students are typically required to write. This will be followed by models of literacy support in the UK—how institutions react to the literacy demands that students face. After explaining these overarching issues of higher education and academic writing, the review will then discuss theories and studies on source use from a range of perspectives—the basic *attribution* function of source use, the language re-use aspects of citations, and the rhetorical aspects of source use. Accordingly, literature devoted to teaching source use will be discussed. The chapter will conclude with a review of individual studies that can particularly inform this study, and highlight the existing gap in source use research. Research questions of this study will be posed at the end of Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 will begin with justification of a constructivist and interpretivist research paradigm adopted in this study. It will explain the research designs of this study, including the research methods adopted and how they were implemented. Issues such as ethical considerations will also be highlighted. Participants recruited in this study will be introduced in terms of their biographical information and previous education background. The chapter will then turn to data analysis methods, and end with a section on how trustworthiness of the study was ensured.

Chapter 4, 5, and 6 will present results of the study according to Research Questions 1, 2, and 3. Chapter 4 will answer what citation features the participants used, and highlight developmental and cross-sectional patterns (RQ1). While focusing mainly on quantitative findings, some qualitative excerpts of student texts will also be presented. Chapter 5 will address the reasons why students used citation certain features and avoided others, according to the participants' self-reports (RQ2). Chapter 6 will describe the range of support on source use for students, and report participants' comments on such support (RQ3).

Chapter 7 will discuss themes that emerge from findings and compare them with other studies' findings. It will discuss how findings of this study contributes to current research. It will conclude with pedagogic implications on supporting students' source use practices, drawing on all aspects of the analysis. Chapter 8 will conclude key findings and point to methodological implications and directions for further research.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

As set out in the introduction, this chapter will review previous literature that has informed this study. It will begin with an overview of the theoretical foundations of this study – the view that writing is communication (Section 2.1) – and highlight how concepts such as genre, discourse community, and stance and voice are useful for theorising within this study. It will then lay the scene of current practices in UK higher education, focusing on issues of tasks and disciplines (Section 2.2). This will be followed by current models of teaching literacy used in UK higher education (Section 2.3). This chapter will then give an overview of a range of areas in source use (Section 2.4). Literature on source use pedagogy will also be discussed (Section 2.5). This chapter will finally review individual key studies that have similar foci to that of this study (Section 2.6) and highlight the existing research gaps (Section 2.7). After this survey of the literature, the research questions of this study will be proposed at the end of this chapter.

2.1 Theoretical approach – writing as communication

This study departs from the theoretical standpoint that writing is communication. The ways language is used in writing carry messages to be communicated to the audience. This point will be explained in the following sub-sections through the discussion of relevant concepts.

2.1.1 Genre

The concept of *genre* is important in setting the theoretical approach of this study. This concept developed and evolved through previous understandings of writing. Within English for Specific Purposes (ESP) traditions, genre is an advancement to an earlier notion of register. In the 1960s, register research identified surface lexical and syntactic uses in e.g. scientific English texts (Swales, 1990), which in turn became prescriptive rules for L2 scientists to follow in scientific writing through ESP teaching. Towards the 1980s, more and more variation was found among scientific texts that were previously perceived as homogeneous (Swales, 1990). It became clear that language is more than simply lexical and grammatical correctness, and that its use

varies according to the specific purpose of writing. Attention has therefore extended to the role of language in communication. Today, the communicative messages embedded in linguistics forms are emphasised more than in the past (Hyland, 2016b).

Genre is also an advancement to a cognitive/process approach to writing. Around the 1980s, process approaches highlighted the writer's thinking process in composing texts, focusing on generating creative content through a series of stages from pre-writing to publishing (e.g. Flower & Hayes, 1981). Process approaches treated writing as an isolated act performed only by the writer, and any linguistic items were only addressed according to the content of the writer's creation (Bruce, 2008). As a result, writers trained through these approaches often failed to adapt to different contexts of writing (Tribble, 1996). Near the mid-1980s, with the research focus shifting from cognitive process to the social-cultural dimension of writing, the teaching of genres was adopted in US freshmen composition classrooms (Russell, Lea, Parker, Street, & Donahue, 2009). Genres offered a way for students to understand disciplinary expectations through decomposing texts situated in disciplinary conventions.

Therefore, emphasising communication with the audience in writing, Swales' (1990) definition of genre stated that: "A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (p.58). Expanding on this, Hyland (2016b) further defines genres as "abstract, socially recognised ways of using language. It is a term for grouping texts together, representing how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations" (p.9). Both definitions highlight the presence of social conventions (i.e. "members of which share" in Swales' definition, and "socially recognised" in Hyland's definition) that guide language use for a type of text for a particular purpose. The use of language depends on the social convention of the genre.

In the context of this study then, it is important to establish the nature of the genres of student writing, and what they suggest in terms of source use. An overall communicative purpose of writing for assessment would be to answer a particular intellectual query, as well as to demonstrate to lecturers the students' knowledge of the subject and be assessed accordingly (Kusel, 1992). Such genres have been termed *classroom genres* or *learner genres*, in that they are very different from the so-called

expert genres in academic publication contexts (Charles & Pecorari, 2016; Johns, 1995). On the other hand, even the term *classroom genres* is a very broad entity. Different types of academic tasks may require a diverse range of more specific communicative purposes, therefore constituting genres and sub-genres of academic tasks. I will return to more detailed discussion of specific genres in current higher education academic literacy practices in Section 2.2.2.

When writing a particular piece of academic writing, students need to consider both the immediate social convention invoked by the specific task rubric, and also the wider context of academic writing. This can be explained by Malinowski's (1994) concepts of *context of situation* and *context of culture*. Context of situation refers to identifying the content, the relationship between audience and writer, and the mode in which the writing takes place (Halliday, 1998). For student writers, each unique essay task forms a context of situation; the student needs to identify the content needed to address the essay title, the appropriate way to interact with the tutor marker, and the textual structure of that essay. Context of situation is situated within a larger context of culture. Context of culture is the overall *system* of language use for a particular social purpose (Halliday, 1998). Therefore, a student's language use for a particular essay task also needs to conform to a larger culture of student academic writing, which may further share some similarities with academic writing by expert scholars.

Then it is important to consider where social conventions come from. For a particular piece of academic writing in higher education, the "socially recognised ways" of language use come from a number of levels, including (see Fenton-Smith, Humphreys, Walkinshaw, & Lobo, 2015): the country's overall requirement for academic writing, institutional requirements, the subject field, and, lastly, from the course tutors' individual expectations. At the national level, the genre expectations of academic writing in the UK may not be shared by most incoming Chinese students, which returns to a previous point about difficulties faced by Chinese students (Section 1.4.3). As shown, the overall purposes for exam writing in Chinese and UK high school appear starkly different, and such differences in academic genres may continue into undergraduate study. Further, even within the UK higher education, different institutions might have different policies on academic writing depending on the nature

of the university. At the subject level, different subject disciplines have different conventions for language use, which will be expanded upon in Section 2.2.1. This disciplinary difference also forms part of the genre difference. Finally, at the most specific level, individual tutors can develop their unique expectations through teaching cohorts of students and their own experience of academic writing in the discipline. Genre expectations thus are influenced by several stakeholders and are by no means static.

2.1.2 Discourse communities and legitimate peripheral participation

For a study of source use practices in academic writing, it will be important to understand the academic discourse community in which it is located. A *discourse community* refers to a group of people who utilise one or more genres for similar communicative purposes (Swales, 1990). In return, members of a discourse community need to follow a set of social conventions as set out in the genre(s) they possess competency with in order to communicate effectively with other members (Spack, 1988). There are various ways of grouping an academic discourse community (Hyland, 2016b); it could be academics writing research papers, students writing essays for assessment in universities, students and academics alike in the same discipline, and so on. In this study, the identifiable academic community is that of subjects related to TESOL in the UK academia, which may share similarities with TESOL academic communities in other Anglophone countries. Subject lecturers are expert members of this discourse community, while the ten Chinese students investigated were novice members in this discourse community when they were first enrolled onto the degree programme. They were novices also in terms of their limited subject knowledge of TESOL¹.

¹ As will be explained in the methodology chapter (Section 3.5.2), these students enrolled on MA TESOL programmes typically studied English Language, English Literature or Translation as their undergraduate subject in China, instead of TESOL or Education. Only one participant, Olivia, studied English Education. Further, Elsa

Novices in the academic community typically experience difficulties conforming to the discourse expectations due to the fact that they are only starting to communicate in a totally new discourse, or another language (Harris, 1989; Schmitt, 2005; Zamel, 1995). However, despite these constraints, newcomers still need to adapt to the discourse conventions in order to succeed. Novice members need to go through a process of *legitimate peripheral participation* (Lave & Wenger, 1991) in order to become more senior members of the community. *Legitimate* means that novices have potential opportunities to actively participate in discourse-related activities together with senior members of the community, which can be viewed as some forms of apprenticeship. Students being instructed to write academic papers under the help of supervisors is an example of such a legitimate opportunity. *Peripheral* means that novices at first need to participate in tasks that are not central, but nonetheless contribute to the aims of the community. Writing essays is one such low-stakes activity; essays mostly make little contribution to existing intellectual knowledge (Wingate, 2012a), but they still constitute an essential step towards writing more advanced academic work. Only through participating in peripheral tasks at first and then moving more and more towards central tasks can novices become experts and able to achieve full participation. In this study, acquiring and developing source use skills can also be regarded as a process of legitimate peripheral participation in the discourse community.

2.1.3 Interpersonal resources: Stance and voice

The importance of communicative purposes and that language form can achieve communicative purposes has been repeatedly discussed through the concept of genre. In particular, *metadiscourse* is a useful framework to understand which aspects of language use carry which types of communicative functions. It effectively demonstrates the types of interpersonal resources used in written communication.

and Fiona had taught English for at least one year at the beginning of the programme. Other participants had relatively little knowledge of TESOL.

Citations, as a key focus of source use in this study, are one type of metadiscourse device.

The metadiscourse framework dates back to Halliday's (1985) concepts of *metafunctions* of texts. Texts were theorised to have three metafunctions: ideational (experiential, the propositional content), textual (signposting where the text is going, e.g. connectives) and interpersonal (interacting with the audience, e.g. personal pronouns). For example, in the sentence: *The next point I want to make is that writing is a social activity*, “the next point” is regarded as textual, since it signposts the sequence of the sentence in the whole paragraph. The use of “I” highlights the writer’s identity in front of the reader, emphasising the author’s presence, and thus can be seen as an interpersonal resource. “Writing” and “social activity” are the content components of the sentence, which constitute ideational meaning. The use of “is” in “writing is a social activity” shows the writer’s degree of certainty (in this case very certain), which can also be regarded as interpersonal.

Metadiscourse refers to language devices that can achieve *textual* and *interpersonal* metafunction, i.e. discourse components other than the propositional content. These are as crucial as the content in communication with the audience. For this terminology, Hyland and Tse (2004), based on previous concepts, pointed out that all metadiscourse is in fact *interpersonal*. This is because what was previously called textual components actually show the writer’s anticipation of the reader’s reaction. Hyland and Tse divided metadiscourse into two broad categories: *interactive* and *interactional* resources. Interactive resources guide the audience through the text and signpost location within discourse. Interactional resources show the writer’s attitude towards some aspects of the text to the audience. They further emphasised that:

Metadiscourse is not simply the ‘glue’ that holds the more important parts of the text together, but is itself a crucial element of its meaning—that which helps relate a text to its context, taking readers’ needs, understandings, existing knowledge, prior experiences with texts, and relative status into account. (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p.161)

From this perspective, the concept of metadiscourse places interpersonal meaning at the same level of importance as the ideational content. Metadiscourse is used as a repertoire to engage with the audience and to show the writer’s sense of belonging to

the specific discourse community (Hyland, 2005). A competent writer would show awareness of the audience he/she is addressing by ensuring the audience's understanding of the message and predicting the audience's reaction (e.g. Hyland & Tse, 2004; Myskow & Gordon, 2012; Thompson, 2001).

In Hyland and Tse's metadiscourse framework, citations "indicate the source of textual information which originates outside the current text" (2004, p.168) and thus they are interactive resources. In other words, the act of inserting citations signals to the reader that the content belongs to other authors, instead of the writer. In this regard, *attribution* and its related signposting effects are indeed one fundamental function of citations. However, citations in fact are also interactional. By citing a source, the writer can at the same time communicate to the audience his/her attitude towards the source. In cases where no manifest attitude is present, the lack of attitude itself carries some interactional message about the writer. I hereby argue that citation as a metadiscourse device has both *interactive* and *interactional* functions. In other words, citations perform the function of signposting within the discourse, as well as showing the audience the writer's attitudes towards the content.

The attitude that writers need to communicate, or the interactional message, is also termed *stance*. Stance has been defined as "the lexical and grammatical expression of attitudes, feelings, judgments, or commitment concerning the propositional content of a message" (Biber & Finegan, 1989, p.93). Definitions similar to this have been commonly adopted or paraphrased in work related to source use (Charles, 2007; Lee et al., 2018; Maher, 2015). Moreover, Lancaster (2014) referred to stance as "the ways that writers project an authorial presence that conveys attitudes and evaluations while also interacting with the imagined readers, positioning them as aligned or resistant to the views being advanced in the text" (p.29). Clearly, stance involves demonstration of support or distance from the propositional content, which further contributes to interaction with the audience. It has been found, and it is also generally agreed upon, that university students in their academic writing are expected to show personal commitment and engagement towards the content in a way that is considered appropriate according to the discipline convention (Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011; Soliday, 2004). It has also been found that

students who do so more effectively tend to be marked favourably as compared to other students who do not show their ability to signpost stance appropriately (Lancaster, 2014).

Use of stance further contributes to an overall image of the writer, or *voice*, which can be regarded as “the amalgamative effect of the use of discursive and non-discursive features that language users choose, deliberately or otherwise, from socially available yet ever-changing repertoires” (Matsuda, 2001, p.40). In other words, the writer’s choice of linguistic devices can conform to or diverge from discourse expectations, which constructs the writer as a competent member or an immature member of the particular discourse community. This constructed image built by the choices of language might be intended or not intended by the writer. In addition, authorial voice is re-constructed by the audience, so a certain image intended by the writer might not be perceived by the audience in the same way (Matsuda & Tardy, 2007). In terms of source use, voice can also refer to the intertextual relationship between the writer and other authors. Writers need to show their audience the *voice* responsible for each piece of propositional content (whether it belongs to the writer or other authors), and ensure that the writer’s voice is manifest to the audience (Groom, 2000a). Such manipulation of different voices further constructs the writer’s overall authorial voice. This point will be further developed in a later discussion of how writer’s voice can be achieved through source use, in Section 2.4.4.

Manifestation of stance and construction of voice are shown to be important criteria for judging the quality of academic writing (Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Woodward-Kron, 2002b), in which source use plays a key role. However, there is also a view that analyses of texts with too much linguistic focus overlook the actual intellectual content contained in academic writing (Stapleton, 2002). It seems that devices for achieving stance and voice need to be studied in the light of the propositional topic in specific contexts, because writers would need to pay attention to both the usage of stance devices and the content in any writing activity.

2.2 Academic Literacy practices in UK higher education

A discussion of concurrent academic tasks required in UK higher education constitutes the backdrop to this study. Section 2.2.1 will discuss how knowledge is constructed in a range of disciplines, and its implication on academic tasks in those different disciplines. Section 2.2.2 will define essays and research reports, the most common academic tasks in higher education. In the institution investigated in this study, these two task types are also the main genres students need to write for, and as such will be chosen as the focus of inquiry.

2.2.1 Knowledge construction in disciplines

This section will discuss how knowledge is built differently in different disciplines. In this study, one challenge is to locate TESOL/Applied Linguistics subjects within the disciplines, in order to know how the students on these programmes are expected to use sources. Biglan's (1973) taxonomy of the *hard - soft, applied - pure* dimension is especially helpful for understanding disciplinary differences in knowledge building. *Hard* disciplines such as science subjects develop knowledge based on valid empirical evidence (Coffin & Hewings, 2003); knowledge in these disciplines is impersonal and value-free (Charles & Pecorari, 2016). It is also cumulative: previously established knowledge would be seen as the truth until later research can prove otherwise (Charles & Pecorari, 2016). For example, Earth was believed to be the centre of the universe until later observation discovered that in fact the Sun is the centre of the solar system. Further, within hard disciplines, *hard-pure* subjects (e.g. physics, mathematics) deal with more theoretical inquiries; *hard-applied* subjects (e.g. engineering, computer science) use scientific principles in the use of real-life techniques and machinery.

On the other end of the continuum, *soft-pure* disciplines (e.g. philosophy, fine literature) view knowledge as value-laden, constructed by diverse schools of thought. The quality of evidence in such subjects is measured by how well things are argued (Coffin & Hewings, 2003). Authors can have different approaches to an issue, and their interaction forms on-going academic debates. *Soft-applied* subjects adopt the similar subjective lens in making arguments, but they concern practical professional work in the real world (Charles & Pecorari, 2016).

Somewhere in the middle between hard and soft dimensions are the social sciences. They adopt research methods from sciences, but use them for more changeable human subjects, and often generate evidence from the statistical calculation of probability (Coffin & Hewings, 2003). In this study, TESOL subjects are classified as social sciences; there are both scientific and social aspects. TESOL studies can involve those topics more aligned to the humanities, such as English Language Literature; as well as more science-aligned topics, such as Second Language Acquisition. However, these sub-topics of TESOL are also changing and their epistemology can shift along the continuum of *soft* and *hard* (May, 2011). Therefore, a particular module in the MA TESOL programme might be positioned anywhere along this continuum. This represents a difficulty in pinning down the disciplinary factor for a group of students in a TESOL programme. The framework of disciplines will be used when looking at the particular modules that my participants took (in Section 3.4.3).

The way knowledge is constructed in a particular discipline also influences how sources tend to be used in the discipline. Having researched citation use in scholarly writing across disciplines, Hyland (1999) summarised that social sciences a) perceive knowledge as constructed rather than existing as truth (as in the hard sciences), hence more evidence is needed; b) appreciate ownership of knowledge due to the subjectivity of social activity, hence the person/scholar responsible for the knowledge is more often highlighted with the use of integral citations; c) appreciate debate among viewpoints, hence more argumentative verbs are used to indicate the stances of the author and writer. Overall, social scientists are expected to argue more, and to engage more closely with the sources they cite than scientists. In addition, disciplinary differences also exist in the practicalities of source use conventions. For example, whether a bibliography list is expected in essays depends on the discipline (Etherington, 2008). More areas of disciplinary differences in source use will be discussed in Section 2.4.1 where there is a review of a wider body of research on source use.

2.2.2 Academic task types in higher education

Classroom genres in higher education vary greatly across levels of study and discipline. The concept of *knowledge telling* versus *knowledge transforming* provides a means to better understand differing requirements of academic genres (Dudley-Evans, 2002). Knowledge telling and knowledge transforming first appeared in Bereiter & Scardamalia's (1987) model of the composition process. Knowledge telling is the writer simply re-stating knowledge without application of the knowledge to any specific issues. By contrast, knowledge transforming is the writer actively guiding the reader through how they perceive the knowledge, with the aim of solving a problem. Knowledge transforming requires reflective writing in that the writer constantly rethinks what their argument is and relates it to the overall aim of writing (Plakans, 2009). Apart from being a process of composition, these two terms also reflect students' approaches to knowledge construction and how the end product of the writing is perceived by the reader. Texts that engage mainly in knowledge telling would result in a product suggesting a monologic view of knowledge; knowledge from other sources would be listed as it is, without further re-production from the writer. Texts that engage with knowledge transforming combine multiple voices to construct knowledge; the writer offers some original knowledge by re-processing other authors' knowledge.

Most classroom genres in higher education require a combination of knowledge telling and knowledge transforming. The most common classroom genre is *essays*, as found in a number of large-scale studies on authentic task rubrics in higher education (Hale, Taylor, Bridgeman, Carson, Kroll, & Kantor, 1996; Moore & Morton, 2005; Nesi & Gardner, 2012). This is particularly the case for arts, humanities, and social science subjects (Hewings, 2010; Nesi & Gardner, 2012). Essay is nevertheless a fuzzy concept that entails a range of different requirements (Dudley-Evans, 2002; Johns, 1997; Kusel, 1992; Moore & Morton, 1999). Gardner and Nesi (2013), based on a large corpus of student writing in UK higher education, defined an overall social purpose of essays: "to demonstrate/develop the ability to construct a coherent argument and employ critical thinking skills" (p.42). Moore and Morton (2005), in their attempt to identify genre differences between IELTS compositions and essays, defined essays as "tasks requiring the presentation of an argument in response to a

given proposition or question” (p.50). Both definitions highlight the need for argument, which is typically characterised by development of positions based on logical reasoning through linking interrelated claims (Andrews, 1995) and critical selection and evaluation on the content (Wu, 2006). In particular, a “documented essay” (Alexander, Argent, & Spencer, 2008, p.128) requires argumentation based on researching authorial sources, which is commonly used as a means of assessment at the university level. Overall, essays essentially require knowledge telling of the content, but it needs to be further transformed through the student writer’s re-organisation of information into a coherent position.

The concepts of knowledge telling and knowledge transforming also help us to understand the *descriptive* versus *critical/analytical* labels that commonly appear in assessing student essays. Although the specific meaning of (critical) analysis depends on discipline variations, some studies have attempted to define analysis across disciplines. For example, Chanock (2000) defined analysis as “looking closely at the relevant material or information with the aim of answering the questions we bring to it” (p. 103), based on survey responses from 10 subject tutors in Politics, History and Media studies. Woodward-Kron (2002a) interviewed subject experts in Education and concluded that analysis involves “making connections between theory and practice, drawing links between theories, evaluating theories and research and considering implications for the classroom as well as arguing and reasoning” (p.127). The latter is a rather long list of how analysis can be achieved, but one commonality can be found among the definitions of analysis – that source materials need to be used for addressing a specific issue in the discipline, instead of simply listing the content of different source materials. Analysis has to be built on description of the basic concepts being discussed, but it needs to move beyond description to contribute to the academic enquiry being posed (Humphrey & Economou, 2015; Woodward-Kron, 2002a). When student writing is only descriptive and lacks analysis, it becomes problematic from subject lecturers’ points of view and tends to be given low marks (Greasley & Cassidy, 2010; Shaheen, 2012). The use of stance, as discussed previously (in Section 2.1.3), is an important contributor to this overall requirement of critical analysis.

Besides essays, another common genre of student writing is that of the research project report (Cooper & Bikowski, 2007; Curry & Hewings, 2003). A Master's *dissertation* or *thesis* is one such research project report that is typically a major piece of work for graduating from Master's programmes in most UK universities (Cooper & Bikowski, 2007). For most social sciences subjects, a Master's dissertation or thesis contains the same Introduction-Methodology-Results-Discussion (IMRD) structure as published research articles², which is intended to develop students' research skills in preparation for academic communication (Hart, 2018). It resembles expert academic genres and can be seen as one step forward to students' initial peripheral participation in the discourse community (see Section 2.1.2 above).

The literature review (LR) sub-genre of the Master's dissertation or thesis usually require students to first provide an overview of the current literature in the topic area, moving to sources more specifically relevant to the current research, and finally to identify a research gap that leads to the student's own project (Biggam, 2015). This is similar to Swales' (1990) creating a research space (CARS) model of writing introductions to research articles. The LR sub-genre bears some similar literacy expectations to those of essays, as both ask students to perform knowledge telling of other sources as well as to transform knowledge in an original way. At the same time, the LR and essays differ; in a LR students need to provide evidence of in-depth understanding of one specific topic and arrange other sources for the purposes of justifying their own research (Boote & Beile, 2005; Hart, 2018; Ridley, 2012) and, in contrast, essays usually require understanding of a broader disciplinary field, which is pre-defined by the lecturer. This genre difference may influence the expected types of sources used and the coverage of each source in LR and essays.

² The introduction section in research articles typically combines the function of introducing context and reviewing current literature about the topic, whereas the literature review usually exists as a separate chapter in Master's dissertations and theses (Charles & Pecorari, 2016).

2.3 Models of literacy support in higher education

Given the difficulties students face in academic writing and its complexity in current university contexts, it is useful to look at how literacy is supported in UK universities. Writing in any English-speaking university can be understood as writing to learn content knowledge of subjects, instead of learning to how to write basic prose in a second language (Hirvela, 2011). Three interrelated models of academic literacy support in UK higher education are identified as the study skills approach, the academic socialisation approach, and the Academic Literacies approach. Features of these models will be relevant when discussing the types of support students receive on source use in this study.

The study skills approach emerged first and has been a traditional form of literacy support. In the UK, it appeared in the early 1990s as a response to a so-called literacy crisis due to the expansion of the university entrance which resulted in some students coming to university less prepared than others in terms of academic literacy (Kinneavy, 1983; Lea & Street, 1998; Russell et al., 2009). Study skills support intended to help disadvantaged students become adequate in their writing skills. Typical coverage of support can be technical referencing skills such as compiling reference lists, or general advice on note taking and compiling paragraphs (Charles & Pecorari, 2016). Target students for support included non-native speaking students who had problems with grammar, spelling, or basic essay structuring (see Zamel, 1995), as well as non-traditional domestic students who had been away from academic study for years and were thus not familiar with academic language (Lea & Street, 1998). In contrast, other more traditional students were assumed to be equipped with writing skills already and not need any support, while in fact they could struggle with academic demands as well. Such an approach dealt with surface literacy skills that are generic to all disciplines and viewed non-native speaking or non-traditional students' difficulties as deficits to fix (Wingate & Tribble, 2012).

The study skills approach to supporting literacy has been widely criticised. First and most importantly, it treated study skills as separate to knowledge learning itself, suggesting that students could bypass the necessary engagement with subject knowledge and achieve academic success with a mere command of study skills

(Hathaway, 2015; Wingate, 2006). It also falls short of addressing the different approaches to knowledge construction in different disciplines (see Section 2.2.1 above), as study skills are general to all disciplines and all task types. In terms of language use in academic writing, it assumes a homogeneous academic style, and the mission for pedagogic support is only to transmit such knowledge directly to students (Lillis, 2006). This brings us to the second criticism of the study skills approach in written instruction, that it focuses on declarative understanding of study skills (i.e. what it is) and overlooks the experiential process for mastery of the skills in disciplinary learning (Wingate, 2006). In other words, static information about skills does not lead to procedural knowledge (i.e. how to do it) about how to use the skills in academic writing (see Anderson, 1996). This is because real mastery of writing skills requires rounds of writing practice and feedback from tutors, and efforts in working on targets for improvement. As a result, students who receive only study skills support struggle with disciplinary writing and understanding subject lecturers' expectations (Lea & Street, 1998).

Fulfilling many of the shortcomings of the study skills approach, an academic socialisation approach encultures novice students into the academic discourse to become more experienced writers. By default, in the past decades when academic literacy teaching and support were not widely available, new university students needed to expose themselves to academic texts and acquire disciplinary language use in order to become academically literate in the discipline (Lillis, 2006). Today, more support is available to help students observe discourse features and become associated with the discourse. Features of academic socialisation are widely observed in most of the current English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programmes running in UK universities. The majority of EAP programmes adopt a communicative understanding of language and writing (as discussed in Section 2.1) and develop materials from substantial research in the academic discourse (Wingate & Tribble, 2012). Students are made aware of academic discourse features (e.g. hedging, use of personal pronouns, citations, stance devices) and learn how an authorial voice can be constructed through the use of language. Although there seems to be a focus on texts, social interaction is also important in EAP provision (Charles & Pecorari, 2016). Within an EAP programme, learners often have opportunities to practice literacy skills

in a series of tasks, from completing lower-stakes classroom activities (e.g. a paraphrasing exercise) to writing longer EAP essays. These practice tasks try to mimic the actual discourse on real degree programmes but are often defined and contrived within the EAP context. Overall, an academic socialisation approach is regarded as more helpful than the study skills approach, as learning materials are set in concrete texts and contexts of academic writing, instead of surface or abstract skills for studying. It also provides more opportunities for learners to practice language components in activities, as opposed to the direct transmission of skills as in a study skills approach.

An existing dilemma about EAP tuition is the degree of specificity needed. EAP can be general or discipline-specific, following the positioning of disciplines discussed above (Section 2.2.1). General EAP is often termed English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP), and discipline-specific EAP is termed English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). There have been arguments supporting a general EAP approach, as it is more cost efficient for institutions and can help learners with basic language needs (see Hyland, 2002b). This strand, however, to some extent, goes back to the generic nature of the study skills approach in that it only inducts students into a general academic discourse but fails to address their specific disciplinary needs. Accordingly, a discipline-specific approach to EAP or subject programme embedded EAP is widely called for (Hyland, 2002b; Wingate, 2012b), and there have been recent attempts at such embedded programmes (Harris & Ashton, 2011; Kennelly, Maldoni, & Davies, 2010). Subject-specific EAP would help students realise how knowledge is constructed in their own disciplines through the use of language (Hathaway, 2015), which may further facilitate students' epistemological development instead of merely linguistic advancement. However, specificity in ESAP is also problematic. As there is great variation among genres in the same discipline, support more specific to a particular context may become less relevant once students encounter tasks or texts beyond this context (de Chazal, 2012). Support may need to go down to programme and even module level to fully explore specificity, as genres depend on modules and the tutors who teach them. ESAP also exerts challenges in current institutional settings, such as the difficulties for language-teaching staff to collaborate with subject specialists in the designing of language materials. Current

EAP tuition in UK institutions is situated between the two ends of the general VS discipline-specific continuum. General EAP courses are still common, but tutors of these courses are advised to be cautious about the generalisability of the academic discourse features they teach (Morley, 2008).

Although there are many advantages to EAP programmes adopting an academic socialisation approach, problems have also been reported. There is divergence between EAP instruction and the genuine academic writing tasks students encounter in degree courses (Leki, 2007; Leki & Carson, 1997). In terms of source use, Hirvela and Du (2013) reported how one student was able to cope with paraphrasing exercises in an EAP course but struggled with the contextual demand of writing research papers in his degree course. This could have been because of the generic nature of that EAP tuition in that it was not grounded in disciplinary writing. Another difficulty that is harder to address, is that any type of EAP instruction, EGAP or ESAP, if separate from degree programmes, can hardly predict students' real learning needs, because genre expectations come from several levels (national, institutional, departmental and subject lecturers' individual expectations, in Section 2.1.1) and can change over time. On the other hand, apart from EAP tuition, knowledge of source use skills needs internalisation on the student side in order to be effective. As Shaw and Pecorari (2013) put it, "training may facilitate learning, but nothing can guarantee it" (p. A1). Students can learn declarative knowledge of source use rules, and EAP teachers can use activities to help learners convert that declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge in classrooms, but eventually the learners need more practice outside the classroom for full internalisation of source use knowledge.

A further approach to academic literacy support that receives much attention is the Academic Literacies approach, which is also termed critical EAP. This resonates with much of the important grounds of a traditional EAP/academic socialisation approach – an aim to facilitate novice students to acquire academic language, attention to multiplicity of literacy in HE contexts, and a focus on learners' construction of their authorial image in writing (Hathaway, 2015). However, the core of Academic Literacies is its emancipative power, that of enabling students to challenge the dominant discourse norms (Lea & Street, 2006; Lillis, 2006). To be

fully aligned with the Academic Literacies approach, support courses would need to extend beyond language use or disciplinary knowledge construction to questioning social-political power relations in the real world, which is less relevant to this study on students' source use. Although this mission of empowering students has good intent, few international students might want to question the current conventions and may be more interested in doing what is necessary in the system to get their qualifications. For example, Wingate (2012b), in her online academic writing course, included case studies of differing literacy expectations in order to raise students' critical awareness of literacies, but found that far fewer students perceived the critical component useful than students who found model texts useful. As Morgan (2009) argued, transformation in EAP would be better as an option instead of obligation. Another criticism is that critical EAP or Academic Literacies so far have offered limited pedagogy designs, unlike the research-based EAP approach to supporting students (Wingate & Tribble, 2012). The critical EAP approach is thus deemed to be less relevant to the present research context.

2.4 An overview of source use research

Regarding the coverage of topics in source use research, there has been a shift of research focus from plagiarism, to language-related issues, and further to the construction of stance in source use. Earlier literature mainly focused on the issue of L2 students committing plagiarism in Anglophone universities. Plagiarism is a broad term for various types of academic misconduct, most typically including direct copying of source texts' words without acknowledging quotations, not acknowledging sources of specific ideas, and unsuccessful paraphrases that contain strings of the original words (Hu & Lei, 2012; Pecorari, 2008a). Early views regarded plagiarism as a moral transgression, defining plagiarism as essentially negative (e.g. Mallon, 1989) and institutions highlighted severe consequences for such acts of cheating. More recent views have pointed out that the term plagiarism is too broad and vague, and was limited in its pedagogical value to help students improve their source use practices (Mott-Smith et al., 2017; Pecorari & Petrić, 2014; Sutherland-Smith, 2005). In addition, more recent literature acknowledges that students coming from a different cultural and educational background may not be aware of the Anglophone academic conventions (Carroll, 2007). For example, the notion of plagiarism itself is argued to

be embedded in western culture, and other cultures may have alternative views to it (Ouellette, 2008). This line of literature explores L2 students' literacy experience in their home countries and proposes ways to help students understand the difference between their home literacy and Anglophone literacy.

The more recent literature has thus put more focus on L2 students' language difficulties in reporting content from other sources and how they deal with discursive functions of citations in writing. These topics have been the focus of research in a special issue of *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* in 2013, entirely dedicated to source use, showing the importance of source use as a research field in recent decades. At the same time, the role of pedagogy is increasingly important in raising students' awareness of source use conventions and preparing them for effective use. For example, a recently published book (Mott-Smith et al., 2017) entitled *Teaching effective source use: Classroom approaches that work* summarises theories and research in a wide range of source use topics, and provides lesson ideas on these topics. Such a dedicated focus on source use, to my knowledge, has not appeared in the past, when source use was subsumed under other areas of academic writing. All these arguments, findings and approaches will be explored in the sections that follow.

Regarding the contexts of source-use research, numerous studies have been carried out in contexts of limited-time integrated reading and writing tasks. As suggested by some evidence, such tasks might mirror the reading-to-write process students need to go through in naturalistic contexts (Plakans & Gebriel, 2013), even though in essence they differ drastically from real coursework assignments in HE (McCulloch, 2013). Conclusions from such studies nonetheless lend valuable insights to difficulties L2 students face in source use.

The following sub-sections will each address a topic of source use. Each sub-section will begin with a definition of the topic, and then draw on empirical research into this topic. To begin, source use conventions differ across disciplinary convention as revealed in expert genres, and there are also differences among student genres and within genres (Section 2.4.1). The complex nature of *attribution* and its empirical evidence will be discussed in Section 2.4.2. Following this, the aspect of language re-use in source use, including issues of patchwriting and paraphrasing, will be discussed

in Section 2.4.3. This will be followed by the aspect of stance and voice construction through source use (Section 2.4.4), which will be further expanded into four sub-sections due to the salience of this topic.

2.4.1 Discipline and task difference in source use

Source use tendencies depend on discipline conventions, as confirmed by a number of studies on expert genres of academic writing (Charles, 2006; Harwood, 2009; Thompson, 2001). Perhaps most notably and as mentioned before, Hyland's (1999) cross-disciplinary investigation of citation use in 80 published articles in eight disciplines found that soft disciplines used more citations, more integral forms and more reporting structures than hard disciplines, suggesting that soft disciplines adopt a more critical and personal stance towards cited sources. Moreover, even within the same broad subject, sub-subjects could also employ different conventions. Thompson (2001) explored citation patterns in eight PhD theses in Agricultural Botany and eight theses in Agricultural and Food Economics. Botany theses mainly used citations for reporting facts, whereas Economics theses engaged more personally with the cited sources. This shows that specific subjects can be influenced by higher level discipline positioning – in Thompson's (2001) study, Agricultural Botany is classified more as a science subject and Agricultural and Food Economics classifies more as a social science. Further, Thompson (2005) found that within eight PhD theses in Agricultural Botany, writers' citation patterns differed according to their individual purposes. It can be concluded that for expert-level writing, disciplines and sub-disciplines' approaches to knowledge construction have an impact on what are considered appropriate source use practices. Such disciplinary conventions are imposed on both expert writing and student writing.

At the most basic level, students may misunderstand or poorly grasp general requirements of academic writing at the university level. It has been found that some L2 novice students perceive academic tasks as opinion-based rather than source-based, and lack awareness of the need for credible evidence. For example, one Japanese student in Spack's (1997) longitudinal study regarded opinion-based writing as superior to synthesis of source texts, even though her tutors in fact preferred otherwise. This was only one case study, but a more recent study by Plakans (2010)

provides further evidence to this. She assigned independent writing tasks and source-based tasks to ten L2 undergraduate students in a US university, six of whom completed the two tasks in similar fashion, by generating ideas mainly from their personal experience. These studies showed how students can have less accurate understanding of general academic writing requirements, which would further influence whether they use sources and how many sources they use.

In specific contexts of students writing for subject courses, some studies found discrepancies of source use expectation from tutors and students alike in different disciplines and within the same discipline. For example, Shi (2012) presented four source-based passages to 48 students and 27 tutors in various disciplines to explore their perception of appropriate source use. It was found that students and instructors in science subjects tended to tolerate re-use of technical phrases more than those in social sciences or arts and humanities subjects. Similarly, in two survey studies conducted in China and Japan, respectively, it has been found that social sciences and arts and humanities students were more aware of acknowledging sources and avoiding plagiarism than science students (Hu & Lei, 2012; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 2005).

Apart from disciplinary differences, perceptions of appropriate source use can also differ within the same discipline. For example, Roig (2001) found that lecturers in the same psychology department had different judgements on the acceptability of sample texts with language borrowed from source texts, showing ambiguity over acceptable source use even within expert members of the same discipline. In Lea and Street's (2000) interviews in two universities in England, academic tutors' expectations of students' source use practices were found to be influenced by individual tutors' disciplinary experience, which became even more complicated as academic genres changed and disciplines became interrelated in the modular teaching system. It is clear that different disciplines have different expectations of acceptable source use, and expectations within the same discipline are also not stable due to the changing nature of disciplines and subjects in higher education, as well as possible individual differences in subject tutors' literacy experiences.

Even within the same degree programme or within the same task, different source use patterns often occur. For example, it has been shown that students need to

use sources for different purposes when writing for different sub-genres of an empirical dissertation. Petrić (2007) found that students tended to make more links between sources in the introduction section of a Master's dissertation than in the conclusion section. Thompson's (2005) study of PhD theses also showed citations for different purposes in different chapters.

It is necessary for students to acknowledge this diversity between and within disciplines in their learning of source use. Taking this line, Harwood (2010) questioned the problematic belief in a fixed notion of appropriate source use and suggested the need for pedagogy to respond accordingly by making students aware of disciplinary and task differences. Some studies also found students' awareness of this concept during their literacy development, as a step in their socialisation process into the disciplinary community. For example, Nearer the end of Thompson, Morton and Storch's (2013) two-semester study, more students reported strategies to adapt source selection according to task type and assignment questions. Such awareness of disciplinary differences takes time and engagement with the discipline discourse to develop.

2.4.2 Attributing sources

Attribution here refers to the basic act of giving reference to a source in texts, which serves a fundamental interactive function of citations (as discussed in Section 2.1.3). Academic genres require mandatory attribution of source materials, although this is sometimes not the case for other written genres (Groom, 2000b). Not acknowledging a source from which ideas have been retrieved can result in students appearing to claim ownership of others' ideas and leave them open to accusations of plagiarism (Howard, 1995). Use of source materials without acknowledgement has been termed *unattributed voice* by Groom (2000a), which should be avoided. Chinese students have been reported to be largely unaware of this convention, a point argued to relate to home literacy expectations (Shi & Dong, 2018). For example, Shi (2004) assigned summary tasks in English without time constraints to 42 third-year students in a Chinese university, with the result that the majority of them used sources without acknowledgement. Hu and Lei's (2012) survey study of 270 undergraduate students in two Chinese universities found that only 12% of the students perceived

unacknowledged source use as problematic. More broadly, the lack of awareness of the need to acknowledge sources has been found in novice L2 students coming from a range of cultural backgrounds (Chanock, 2008). Such lack of awareness could cause difficulties when students study abroad and experience a different literacy culture that requires mandatory acknowledgement of sources.

During this discussion of unacknowledged source use, it is important to note that notions of authorship, ownership of ideas, originality, and common knowledge are controversial terms that deserve further attention. Some authors have argued that the nature of academic writing involves recycling of content knowledge in the discourse community, hence re-production of content is inevitable (e.g. Howard, 1999; Pennycook, 1996). This perspective is in some ways more forgiving of students' omission of citations and opposes the earlier approach that treated plagiarism indiscriminately as cheating. Along this line, Thompson (2005) has argued against a single and universal definition of textual ownership as fixed rules for students to follow. Research has also indicated that the necessity of attribution is sometimes judged by the specific writing contexts. For example, one of the graduate supervisors in Pecorari's (2008a) interviews only criticised his/her student's lack of attribution when the arguments became contradictory by using unacknowledged content. With a lack of a specific definition on what content needs attribution, students are often confused about whether and when to attribute sources. Some students regard texts discussed in subject courses as not requiring referencing, due to their belief that the course instructor must know these sources (Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004; Shi, 2011). Other students provided references to even the widely used terminologies to avoid confusion for the reader, following advice from their lecturers (Wette, 2017). Comparing student and tutor perception of uncited content in writing samples, Shi (2011) found that students' assumptions about unnecessary citations often did not match their instructors' expectations. Knowing when to make a reference to sources appears to depend on the writer's knowledge of the reader's assumptions, which can be difficult for newcomers to the discipline (East, 2005).

A related problem is students failing to signal ideas from sources clearly to the reader. Some studies have reported L2 students' problem with having unclear

boundaries between their own ideas and other sources' content, which makes it difficult for tutors to judge the quality of students' contributions (Mcculloch, 2012; Thompson et al., 2013; Wette, 2017). Part of the difficulty is because of the occluded nature of citations. Attribution to sources encodes several layers of information about the relationship between source text and the writer's text, and then the reader needs to decode the attributions to tell exactly which part of the content comes from the cited source (Pecorari, 2008b, 2013). Not having sufficient knowledge of the reader, students might assume that, for example, tutor markers can interpret which content belongs to the author and which to the student (Mcculloch, 2012). Another difficulty is students' unfamiliarity with the syntactic management of attributions within sentences; they might not know about the range of ways to merge citations with their own texts.

On the other hand, too much acknowledgement of other texts could equally be problematic. Schmitt (2005) in a book chapter put forward the terms *over-citation* or *over-referencing* which she claims can occur during learning periods when students move beyond the initial unawareness of acknowledging sources, but become overly intent on referencing, even where it is not necessary. The phenomenon can be interpreted differently. From one perspective, it reflects students' cautious awareness of legitimate source use, which has been found in high-achieving students and does not suggest over-referencing in the negative sense (Davis, 2013; Harwood & Petrić, 2012). From another perspective, using too many citations without authorial judgement could replace students' own voice, as their essays become inundated with others' voices (Starfield, 2002; Thompson, 2005). This latter point of authorial voice will be discussed in detail in Section 2.4.4.

Further, from the perspective of assessing student work, students may use a large number of citations merely for the sake of showing the amount of reading they have done, while the real extent of their efforts is difficult to tell (Mcculloch 2012; Wette 2017). It has been shown that some students regard a large number of citations as a prerequisite for higher marks (Oppenheim & Smith, 2001), and therefore might attempt to reference more sources than those they actually read. One student in Harwood and Petrić's (2012) interviews, for example, admitted an intention to use

many references to perform as a diligent student for the marker. In fact, the amount of citations does not correlate with marks, as found in Schembri's (2013) study of 60 undergraduate dissertations. Such a misconceived association between the number of sources and the quality of work might be common among students, which may drive them to aim for the quantity and overlook the quality of their source use.

Students could also create a false impression of the amount of reading they have done by passing on citations from secondary sources and not acknowledging them as secondary citations. For example, in Pecorari's (2006) study of 17 student writing samples from a range of subjects, only a very small proportion of secondary referencing was marked, and many instances suggested secondary referencing without acknowledgement as such. Pecorari further regarded secondary citations as an occluded feature of referencing, as the reader often cannot interpret the relationship between the writer's texts, the authors' texts, and any other sources cited by the authors. Parkinson (2013) also found above 10% of reported citations to be unacknowledged secondary citations in her corpus of 150 student reports, a phenomenon she regarded as a feature of beginning novice writers (also in Wette, 2017). It can be speculated that passing on secondary knowledge is prevalent in novice students' writing and it may boost the real amount of references, which may go unnoticed by tutors in assessments.

2.4.3 Language re-use of sources

The broad aspect of language in source use has received wide attention, including issues of textual borrowing, patchwriting, paraphrasing, summarising, and quotations. Textual borrowing refers to language re-use from source text, which can be legitimate or illegitimate (Shi, 2004). Legitimate textual borrowing can be direct quotations with appropriate acknowledgement and punctuation (Petrić, 2012). Even though using quotations is legitimate, students are often advised to use quotations sparingly to show their understanding of sources (e.g. Gillet, Hammond, & Martala, 2009). Illegitimate textual borrowing can be in the form of copying chunks of texts without the correct quotation formats, or merely changing a few phrases from the original texts while maintaining very similar sentence structure. The latter is termed patchwriting, which is often regarded as students' language difficulty without an intention to cheat

(Howard, 1995; Mott-Smith et al., 2017). It is also considered a necessary developmental stage for students to explore and practice source use skills, before they can fully express their own voice (Howard, 1995; Pecorari, 2003).

To avoid excessive direct quotations and patchwriting, and to use sources while retaining a writer's own voice, paraphrasing and summarising are seen as important source use skills for students to manage (Bailey, 2011; Keck, 2006; Shi, 2012). Paraphrasing can be defined as "restating a passage from a source in fresh language, though sometimes with keywords retained from that passage. Paraphrase does not involve a significant reduction in the length of the passage" (Howard, Serviss, & Rodrigue, 2010, p.181). Paraphrasing traditionally focuses on language alteration, but recent views and studies also incorporate the stance and the content aspects of paraphrasing (to be discussed in the following section). In parallel to paraphrasing is the summarising skill, defined as "restating and compressing the main points of a paragraph or more of text in fresh language" (Howard et al., 2010, p.181). Summarising focuses on presenting key messages or a global understanding of a longer chunk of text. It has also been argued elsewhere that paraphrasing forms an integral part of summarising, in that summarising main messages can involve paraphrasing information from several parts of a text (Jordan, 1997). Both paraphrasing and summarising skills require students to use their own language to restate the sources' meaning. These are salient skills in students' source-based writing, but they are also difficult for L2 students to master.

For L2 students, limited language proficiency is found to be a prominent barrier to producing plagiarism-free paraphrases or summaries in their writing, as well as to reading and comprehending source texts. It is a fair assumption that many L2 students have a limited range of vocabulary and grammatical structures to rephrase ideas from sources in their own words (McGowan, 2005; Schmitt, 2005). A number of studies found that L2 students tend to rely more on source texts' language than L1 students in controlled integrated reading or writing tasks (Keck, 2006; Shi, 2004; Wu, 2013). For example, Keck (2006) assigned summary tasks to 79 L1 students and 74 L2 students. Whereas both groups used similar numbers of paraphrases per summary, the L2 group copied original texts significantly more often than the L1 group, while the L1 students

made far more instances of moderate or substantial revisions than the L2 students. This suggests that the extent of copying was influenced by language ability. In particular, reading comprehension ability seems important in language re-use. For example, ten Vietnamese English-major students in Chi and Nguyen's (2017) study produced paraphrases with vocabulary change but failed to alter sentence structures. Further interviews with the students revealed an underlying problem to be an inability to understand source text due to limited language proficiency, which also meant limited vocabulary available to carry out summary tasks. Paraphrases or summaries that heavily rely on source texts' original words can easily result in patchwritten passages, or "'choppy' texts that switch back and forth between a less sophisticated writer voice and more sophisticated writer voice" (Mott-Smith et al., 2017, p.39), which is problematic.

On the other hand, successful source use is not judged simply on the way language is transformed from an original text, but students also need to show an in-depth understanding of source texts. In fact, even if a paraphrase is linguistically different from the original text and exempt from accusations of plagiarism, it does not necessarily guarantee understanding from the student (Oda & Yamamoto, 2007). Emphasis on changing original words in source texts into one's own words could lead to students paying more attention to sentence level language change and distract from actually using their understanding of the text in a meaningful summary. For example, Howard et al. (2010) investigated 18 US second-year students' researched writing papers (source-based essays) and found that all of the papers contained instances of paraphrasing or patchwriting from single sentences in source texts, but none of the papers summarised ideas from longer stretches of source texts. Jamieson and Howard (2013) further expanded the inquiry to a larger sample of 174 papers and found a similar tendency of students predominantly citing content from single sentences located at the beginning parts of source texts. Only 41% of all papers showed at least one attempt to comprehend the source texts' meanings by summarising any content, even when including cases of summaries of several consecutive sentences from a source or one-sentence overviews of entire sources. It is questionable whether these students grasped any substantive content from the source texts, since they did not show an ability to process the information or to manipulate the length of the output

texts based on their own comprehension. This phenomenon has been found in L1 and L2 students alike, which can result from a lack of efforts in reading or difficulty in grasping the overall meanings of sources.

Further to the above, familiarity with cited content can influence the extent of textual borrowing. Howard et al.'s (2010) study discussed above suggested that students' patchwriting tendency was a direct result of their dealing with topics they had not studied before. Similarly, Wiemeyer (2017) analysed the use of paraphrases in nine reports in a Corpus of Academic Learner English and found that some of the close paraphrases were about methods and data. She surmised that the students could have had difficulties representing such information in their own reports due to a lack of relevant knowledge. Further, in a paraphrasing task directed at 33 psychology lecturers, Roig (2001) found 30% to have borrowed five-word phrases from a source text, and 24% to involve distortion of the source's meaning. Roig attributed this to the fact that the source text was of an unfamiliar topic to the lecturers and contained many technical phrases. All this evidence suggests that students' problems with paraphrasing and summarising cannot simply be understood as language deficiency, but also a lack of familiarity with content knowledge.

In contrast to the problems with too much textual borrowing discussed earlier, studies found that less textual borrowing is in fact not always ideal. In Wu's (2013) controlled reading-writing integrated tests, ten high-rated L2 students borrowed more language from sources than ten low-rated L2 students, suggesting that the high-rated students at least attempted to use more content from source texts. Petrić (2012) found in her eight high-rated master's theses triple the frequency of direct quotations as in the low-rated theses. The high-scorers mostly used short quotes to fit into their own writing, whereas the low-scorers used clause-length quotes with little re-organisation. These findings confirm that appropriate textual borrowing is not only about the frequencies or percentages of language re-use, but rather, whether the sources are tactically used and integrated into the writer's own words (McCulloch, 2012).

While using one's own words is highlighted by the requirement of paraphrasing and summarising, academic writing by its nature needs to re-use common academic phrases and formulaic language to conform to existing conventions (Pecorari, 2015).

Original language is hard to achieve for L2 writers new to a discipline, because they firstly need to learn the disciplinary language, including content language and metadiscourse resources, to be able to rephrase content in their own words (McGowan, 2005; Schmitt, 2005). In this sense, patchwriting is sometimes regarded as necessary preliminary step in novice writers' learning of source use (Howard, 1995; Mott-Smith et al., 2017). Students have been found to use patchwriting strategies as a springboard to acquire disciplinary language, which is aimed at successful integration of sources into their own texts (Pecorari, 2008a). It is important to view patchwriting instances not as moral transgression, but in fact a sign for the need for the teaching of disciplinary language that forms into students' source use repertoire. Further supporting this point, Flowerdew and Li (2007b) pointed out that the use of online text-matching software to detect instances of poor textual borrowing is in essence not different from the use of corpora to teach commonly circulated academic language. Students need to acquire such content words in order to succeed. Overall, while students are often advised to write in their own language, perhaps the focus on original words is sometimes overstated and does not always reflect the disciplinary norms. Defining acceptable and unacceptable language re-use is also problematic, partly as seen earlier in disciplinary and contextual differences on treating these issues.

Overall, textual borrowing and paraphrasing deal with the linguistic mechanisms in source use, which are an important component of academic writing. However, too much attention to sentence level language re-use in research and pedagogy could in fact be dangerous, because it can decontextualize source use into isolated language rephrasing activities and might provide little help to learners in real contexts of writing academic work (Hirvela & Du, 2013), where summaries are commonly used to demonstrate global understanding of sources. The over-emphasis on changing sources' original language into students' own words could also be problematic, as it overlooks the nature of academic writing characterised by the re-use of content words and formulaic language, and in this way perhaps it overstates the need for original language in student writing. Undue attention to plagiarism and textual borrowing may unintentionally distract students from the purposes and functions of source use. The

latter is essential as they contribute to the quality of work and to achieving criticality, which will be discussed in the following sections.

2.4.4 Constructing authorial voice through source use

Perhaps as important as the aspect of language re-use is integration of sources into students' own arguments. This is an abstract concept and has been regarded as identical to having an authorial voice (see Section 2.1.3). This aspect of source use deals with the interactional function of citations (see Section 2.1.3). It is expected that students not only differentiate author voice and their own voice clearly as in appropriate attribution to sources, but also make their own voice more manifest than the source voice. For example, Groom (2000b) stated, "...a successful argumentative text is one which always positions the writer as its *dominant* voice: other voices must be allowed to speak, but they must ultimately be subordinated by...the textual subjectivity of the writer herself or himself" (p.19). In other words, successful writers are expected to both use sources and give their personal comments on the sources' ideas, while making the latter more prominent. Similarly, students need to be alerted to the danger for source texts to "govern rather than support the writer's content" (Jordan, 1997, p.171). Further, research has confirmed that experienced academic writers display more evaluation of sources than novice writers (Hyland & Tse, 2005). Studies on student writing have also found a relationship between student writers' demonstration of academic evaluation and their received marks, from both qualitative and quantitative perspectives (Brooke, 2014; Petrić, 2007). A full review of Petrić (2007) will be given in Section 2.6, as it closely looks at construction of stance and voice through citations and is central to this thesis.

L2 Students are widely found to have difficulties in meeting this requirement of authorial voice, as they often overly rely on sources and lack their own views (Abasi et al., 2006; Borg, 2000; Pecorari, 2003). Lack of authorial voice has also been argued to be a fundamental cause, instead of the consequence, of many source use problems such as patchwriting and unacknowledged copying (Abasi et al., 2006; McCulloch, 2012). Accordingly, too much emphasis on avoiding plagiarism might distract students from finding their authorial voice (Abasi & Graves, 2008). There are complicated reasons for a lack of authorial voice. First, student writers may identify

themselves as peripheral participants with no role in the cycle of reproducing academic knowledge (Thompson et al., 2013). They may regard sources as expert voices that are impossible to challenge (Abasi et al., 2006; Chanock, 2008). Second, students might refrain from making their own comments due to a lack of domain knowledge, which could be a result of their reading deficiencies or unfamiliarity with the subject in general (Hirvela & Du, 2013; Penrose & Geisler, 1994). All these issues could result in a predominantly knowledge telling mode of source use, instead of a knowledge transforming mode (see Section 2.2.2). On the other hand, the requirement of authorial voice itself is also contested. Wette (2017) argued that even from a marker's perspective, it could be difficult to tell whether writer or author voice is more dominant. It is also often reported that although subject tutors are able to identify the lack of (the writer's) authorial voice in student writing, and they regard it as a pressing problem, they struggle to explain this requirement clearly to students (Lea & Street, 1998; Thompson, 2005).

Further supporting the salience of authorial voice, some argue that it is one criterion of successful paraphrasing. The previous section established that paraphrase research and instruction traditionally focus on language change, but it has recently been pointed out that paraphrases should also display the writer's fuller understanding of and, therefore their stance towards, cited content (Hirvela & Du, 2013; Shi et al., 2018). In other words, proponents of this view hold that paraphrasing should include knowledge transforming instead of merely knowledge telling. For example, inferential thinking, i.e. writers adding additional information into paraphrases based on their own interpretation of the source content instead of completely relying on the sources' manifest meanings, becomes perceived as a component of successful paraphrase in addition to language change (Yamada, 2003). In this regard, there is little difference between paraphrasing and summarising, as an understanding of the gist of the whole source is needed for inferential thinking, which is unlikely to derive from reading one sentence from the source text alone.

Following this line, Shi (2012) interviewed 48 students and 27 instructors for their views towards sample paraphrases, and found that several respondents from social sciences and the arts regarded inferred paraphrases as stronger

demonstrations of the writer's understanding than merely linguistic rephrasing of the source text. Such incorporation of the writer's interpretation into paraphrases is further identified as a feature of advanced student use of sources in Shi et al. (2018), based on 18 experienced graduate students' papers and their self-reported paraphrasing strategies through text-based interviews. Another advanced paraphrasing feature in Shi et al.'s study was reporting only the relevant bits of information from source text to fit the writing purpose. In contrast, it is problematic that two students in Hirvela and Du's (2013) study regarded paraphrasing merely as linguistic change with little further purpose and sought to replace paraphrases with direct quotations when faced with challenging tasks in using source in research papers. Similarly, Dudley-Evans (2002) suggested that task types requiring mostly knowledge telling would create extra difficulties for students' paraphrasing, as students are not encouraged to incorporate their own perspectives. It seems that in order to integrate paraphrases well into students' own writing, it may be necessary to include personal interpretation and inferential thinking based on wider knowledge of the field, beyond the immediate content of one particular source text.

The following sub-sections will discuss several areas in which authorial voice can be achieved through the use of citations. This is an attempt to break down citation use for rhetorical purposes into key components, but the components contribute holistically to the overall aim of establishing authorial voice.

2.4.4.1 Integral and non-integral citations

The positioning of cited authors in a sentence can impact strongly on the writer's authorial voice. Swales (1990) defined citations with author names used as subjects for the sentence as integral citations, and author names which are not subjects of the sentence but in brackets at the end of sentences as non-integral citations. It is generally agreed that integral citations give stronger voice to the authors, and writer voice becomes subordinate; non-integral citations put the writer's voice at the centre, and author voice occupies a less dominant position (Groom, 2000b; Mott-Smith et al., 2017; Peng, 2019). Moreover, the use of non-integral citations suggests content information commonly accepted in the field, whereas for integral citations, the writer somehow needs the author's identity to confirm the value of the statement (Pecorari,

2008a). In other words, non-integral citations tend to imply knowledge that is agreed upon, while integral citations tend to imply disputable statements (Kwan, 2006). Skilled academic writers are expected to use integral and non-integral citations according to their intended rhetorical purposes.

However, there is little consistency in relevant reviews and studies about what should be regarded as ideal citation form use, as there is a significant difference in the expectations among various disciplines, levels of academic work (undergraduate, postgraduate, or published articles), and genres of writing (essays or empirical reports and their sections as part-genres). Generally commenting on the rhetorical effects of citation forms, Charles and Pecorari (2016) regarded very frequent use of integral citations as an indication of a less assured writer who needs to rely on the authority of other authors. In contrast, Swales (2014) suggested that too frequent use of non-integral citations could construct an image of the writer in total agreement with other authors' voices without any conversation with other sources. It may be concluded that over preference of either integral citations or non-integral citations is problematic.

Suggestions from empirical research also arrive at various conclusions on what should be regarded as effective citation use. For example, some literature suggests that novice writers might be more prone to using integral citations because it is likely to be the first type of citations students learn (Ädel & Garretson, 2006; Swales, 2014). A number of studies also found that non-integral dominant citation tendencies were more commonly used in student writers with some experience in source-based writing rather than complete novices (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Samraj, 2008; Swales, 2014; Wette, 2017). In line with this, several studies on source use in the field of education (that is closest to the context of this study) indicate that a predominantly non-integral citation pattern aligns more with an expert writing style (Hyland, 2002b; Jalilifar, 2012; Tamano & Guimba, 2016). In contrast, also in the field of education, some research into students' citation patterns suggest that students need to use more integral citations to allow authorial engagement with the sources (Borg, 2000; Kwan, 2006). Overall, it can be seen that appropriate choices of integral and non-integral citations involve considerations of many issues and are not simple decisions (Charles, 2006). On the other hand, appropriate placing of the authors is only one aspect of

writer voice. Many other aspects complicate the matter, and some of these will be discussed below.

2.4.4.2 Reporting structures

The topic of reporting structures was introduced in Section 1.3. Reporting structures are a key feature of any type of source-based writing (Kwon, Staples, & Partridge, 2018). When using an integral citation, writers can use a reporting verb or phrase to introduce the cited content, such as the verb *state* in *Author states that...* Reporting structures are generally conceptualised by two dimensions – their semantic meaning and their rhetorical or attitudinal meaning (Hyland, 1999; Kwon et al., 2018; Thompson & Ye, 1991). The semantic meaning refers to what the author does, including e.g. research acts (*Author finds that...*) and cognition acts (*Author believes that...*). The rhetorical or attitudinal meaning refers to the writer's evaluative stance, whether the writer uses the reporting structure to show agreement, a neutral stance, or disagreement with the author. However, I would argue that the semantic dimension can also be rhetorical in student writing, since the choice of research acts verbs or cognition acts verbs reflect students' judgement of whether the propositional content classifies as fact or opinion. At the same time, reporting structures do not always neatly fall into the above-mentioned categories, as their rhetorical meanings can change according to the context (e.g. Hunston, 1995; Sawaki, 2014).

Students' difficulties with managing reporting structures are manifest. The use of reporting verbs and phrases firstly involves management of the syntactic structures, some of which need to be followed by noun clauses (Bloch, 2010; Hinkel, 2013), and that would require advanced syntactic knowledge of the English language. Secondly, the extended number of reporting verbs and phrases has a diverse range of rhetorical and semantic meanings, which adds to the barriers to appropriate usage (Pecorari, 2008a). Pecorari (2008a, to be fully reviewed in Section 2.6) conducted in-depth analysis of 17 graduate students' texts and collected their text-based commentaries, showing that some of them used reporting verbs randomly without differentiating between their rhetorical meanings. Another commonly reported problem is students using a small quantity and/or a limited variety of reporting verbs, limiting their potential to engage with sources and discourse knowledge (Friginal, 2013; Kwon et

al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Parkinson, 2013; Thompson & Ye, 1991). For example, Kwon et al. (2018) found in their corpus of 157 first-year L2 undergraduate students' synthesis writing frequent use of informal reporting verbs such as *talk* and *say*, which fails to comply with the academic register of formality (also found in Parkinson, 2013). Further, both Kwon et al. (2018) and Friginal (2013) found predominant use of *find* and *show* and far less use of other reporting verbs, while *find* and *show* featured much less frequently in expert writing in similar genres from the same discipline. In sum, difficulties in using reporting verbs and phrases include managing syntactic structure, purposeful use according to their rhetorical meanings, and using a range of reporting verbs.

In particular, regarding the affective aspect of reporting structures, firstly it needs to be recognised that students' use of verbs or phrases might not correspond with their actual rhetorical stance, as misuse often occurs (Pecorari, 2008a). Bearing this in mind, research has found that L2 student writers tend to overuse neutral reporting phrases. For example, Tamano and Guimba (2016) found in their corpus of 37 undergraduate theses in Education an overuse of the reporting phrase *according to*, which made no evaluation of the content of sources. Wette (2017) analysed 27 assignment scripts written by third year undergraduate students and found that the reporting phrase *according to* accounted for one-third of all reporting phrases. She interpreted that all these instances seemed to indicate agreement with the sources. Even when student writers more explicitly show agreement with sources, it has been suggested that they tend to adopt a limited choice of verbs (Lee et al., 2018). It seems that neutral reporting phrases are the most frequent in student writing, followed by reporting verbs that explicitly or implicitly show a supportive stance. Critical stance is rare in student writing, indicating that most students tend not to critique sources, which could limit their potential to show authorial voice (Tamano & Guimba, 2016; Xie, 2016). On the other hand, it has been argued that maintaining a distant and remote stance is a feature of the academic discourse convention; being overly critical or overly agreeable could jeopardize the writer's credible academic identity (Coffin, 2009; Woodward-Kron, 2002a). Overall, student writers clearly need to begin by establishing evaluative insights about sources, before they can then employ a range of reporting structures to convey their intended stance.

2.4.4.3 Other stance resources

Reporting structures are only one commonly used resource for showing writer stance, and a diverse range of other devices are employable. Evaluative nouns and adjectives can both show the writer's evaluative stance (Swales & Feak, 2012). A number of studies have examined various devices in published articles and advanced student writing. For example, Brezina (2012) demonstrated in his corpus study that the combination of reporting verbs with adverbs can add to or modify the writer's positive or negative stance, which was found to be common in Applied Linguistics articles. Charles' series of work examined evaluative devices in eight MPhil theses in politics and eight doctoral theses in material sciences written by Native English Speakers. Charles (2003) showed how nouns following 'this' can be used to further clarify or evaluate an author's proposition in the subsequent sentence, as in *Author X stated that...this claim seems to have little evidence*. Further, Swales (2014) analysed high-scoring biology student papers, and found that mentioning the author's first name, using direct quotations, and naming of integral citations (as in *Smith's theory*) are all potentially evaluative when used in a tactical way. The naming type of integral citations is worth particular attention, as it can be combined with an evaluative noun, such as the noun *assumption* in *Author Y's assumption finds little empirical evidence*. Aside from these devices, there are also other ways of constructing stance in citations, which would help construct the writer's authorial voice.

While many studies to date looked at evaluation of sources from analysing single linguistic devices for achieving stance, a few studies have investigated evaluation as an overall citation function in student writing. Such studies give more comprehensive insights on student evaluation without being limited to any particular type of device. Along this line, Petrić (2007) researched evaluation of sources in eight high- and eight low-rated masters theses in a Central European university and found that the high-rated theses evaluated sources far more often (5.51% of all citations) than the low-rated theses (0.63%). A further qualitative analysis found that some high-rated theses evaluated the product instead of the author, whereas it was the other way around for some low-rated theses. Also incorporating a range of stance devices, Lee et al.'s (2018) analysis of 100 student essays in a First Year Writing course in a US university found a tendency for students to distance themselves or to remain neutral to sources.

Similarly, Cumming et al.'s (2018) study of 33 undergraduate students' course papers in Year 1 and Year 2 in Chinese universities found almost no instances of agreement or disagreement in either year, and most citations were used to merely acknowledge sources. When considering all types of evaluative devices, it appears that inexperienced writers tend to remain neutral and avoid evaluation, which might be because they lack awareness of the importance of evaluation in arguments, or insufficient grasp of domain knowledge and therefore lack of confidence to make any critical comments.

2.4.4.4 Discourse synthesis of sources

While the discussion so far can apply to using one source text, the writer's stance needs to be positioned among the ideas of several sources. Being able to connect sources according to the required rhetorical structure of texts shows the writer's discourse organisation skills, which extends to source use beyond the sentence level. Relatively few studies have looked at combining sources as a separate topic in L2 academic writing, but some have covered it in citation research. Studies on citations in student genres found a tendency for novice writers to use stand-alone citations with no connection to other sources and infrequent cases of synthesising ideas from a number of sources (McCulloch, 2012; Wette, 2017). Moreover, Petrić (2007) found in her study that high-rated Master's theses made more links between sources than low-rated theses. Similarly, comparing graduate students' and experts' scientific research articles in a Malaysian university, Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) found that the graduate student writers established fewer links between sources than expert writers. These results are unsurprising, since novice writers and low-scoring students may be less aware of the discourse convention of creating networks of others' ideas, but at the same time, they presumably have far less domain knowledge than experts and are less able to identify the relationships between sources. This goes back to the same reason why inexperienced writers make less evaluation of sources than experienced writers, as discussed above.

Meanwhile, some evidence also suggests that the ability to synthesise can be trained and improved. Segev-Miller (2004) assigned source-based writing tasks to 24 pre-service teacher students before and after a year-long degree-embedded reading

and writing course. The course first demonstrated a list of synthesis writing strategies (e.g. identifying relationships between sources, categorising sources according to content), followed by weekly essays that required usage of the strategies. As a result, the students reported significant gains in their self-assessment of their written products and in their understanding of task requirement. It should be noted that the course lasted for one year, and that the improvements were mainly reported from the participants' perspectives – little improvement was reported from teacher or marker perspectives. Further, Zhang's (2013) intervention study took place over an intensive semester-long English course in a US university. Each week, 15 ESL students were given additional reading texts and a reading guide to facilitate comprehension and connecting sources. As a result, they received significantly higher marks for their synthesis writing after instruction than before instruction, as rated by two teachers. In particular, they used more relevant information to address the task, connected ideas between different sources better, and used a range of citation devices to introduce sources. This study showed that sustained practice of reading academic texts under teacher's guidance can help students to improve their synthesis writing ability, particularly in terms of source use. This is further evidence that more is needed at the level of reading rather than simply writing production, which will be further discussed in the following section.

2.4.5 The reading stage prior to writing

There is a relationship between the reading stage and the final product of source-based writing, as found in several studies. Although these studies are mostly based on short synthesis tasks, they also resemble the process of student writing in natural settings. To begin with, reading proficiency is widely reported to be correlated with students' source-based writing outcomes, such that students with better reading ability score higher than low-proficient ones (Grabe & Zhang, 2013; Plakans & Gebril, 2012). One part of the writing quality is the amount and the appropriacy of language re-use (Cumming et al., 2005; Gebril & Plakans, 2009), which links back to the relationship between reading proficiency and language re-use discussed in Section 2.4.3. This seems intuitively reasonable, that students who are less able to comprehend source texts make less meaning from them and have limited potential to organise sources in discourse-appropriate ways.

Apart from reading proficiency, the process of reading also plays a role in the quality of writing. For example, Plakans (2009) used think-aloud protocols and interviews to investigate 12 L2 students' process of completing an integrated reading-writing task. She found that better-performing students reflected on their progress according to the overall aim and read sources purposively, looking for ideas to use in their own writing, which was in contrast to the low-scorers. This finding points to high-scorers' knowledge-transforming approach to composing. The salience of goal-setting and goal-maintaining strategies is also highlighted in source use studies in naturalistic contexts (summarised in Shaw & Pecorari, 2013). Similarly, Solé, Miras, Castells, Espino, and Minguela's (2013) study of L1 Spanish students suggested that those who re-read source texts several times were more successful than the students who merely read source texts once and directly imported ideas into their own writing. In Zhao and Hirvela's (2015) case study of two undergraduate Chinese students writing synthesis tasks, the stronger student assimilated rhetorical devices from source texts for his own use, whereas the weaker student only focused on the content and generic structure of source texts. These studies all suggest the importance of purposive reading strategies, reflection, and language resource borrowing in successful source-based writing. This point is important for writing without time-constraints, as is the case for students in this study, since they potentially have more time to engage more fully during the reading stage than students involved in short summary and synthesis tasks.

2.5 Source use pedagogy

2.5.1 Pedagogic implications from research

Several implications for teaching or facilitating source use skills have been put forward as outcomes of empirical research. An important area is consciousness raising of task requirements and source use strategies. Some studies have advocated more explicit explanation of task requirements to students, as well as an epistemological focus for students to see writing as knowledge transforming instead of merely knowledge telling (Chanock, 2008; McCulloch, 2012). More specifically, many studies have called for instruction that facilitates students' knowledge of how stance is achieved through the use of citations, by showing authentic examples of discursive

arguments accompanied by tutor commentaries (McCulloch, 2012; Wingate, 2012a). Apart from implicit form noticing of citations, explicit teaching of citation functions with clear taxonomies is also highly suggested (Samraj, 2013; Wette, 2017). Alongside instruction, constant practice of source-based writing is also recommended to contribute to students' transfer of source use knowledge from the classroom to their own writing tasks (Liu, Lin, Kou, & Wang, 2016).

Further, some practical training materials have been generated based on research of academic discourse. Bloch (2010), for example, attempted to provide contextualised examples of reporting verbs in sentences as a pedagogic tool. He identified the 27 most used reporting verbs and extracted 540 sample sentences of their use in corpora of a leading scientific journal, which he then used as teaching materials for students. This represents an innovative attempt at contextualised source use, although it was limited to the science discipline. The large size of the concordances could also overload students with too much information about only one area of source use, if the examples were provided without careful scaffolding from instructors.

Apart from explicit teaching, another part of learning comes from some forms of apprenticeship (see Section 2.1.2), as students engage with the feedback they receive from EAP tutors or subject experts. For example, in Dong's (1996) study of three Chinese doctoral students' development of citation use in a US university, their supervisors were found to have played an essential role in helping them accommodate to the citation conventions of the discipline. However, it has been found that feedback in reality sometimes fails to facilitate students' learning of source use as expected. For example, Hyland (2001) reported two EAP teachers' indirect approach to pointing out plagiarism issues in their written feedback to L2 students, on account of their concern that plagiarism is an idea embedded in western values. Such indirect indication of plagiarism was not understood by the students. In a similar vein but for different reasons, Pecorari (2008a) found that some postgraduate students were not pointed to patchwriting instances in their writing, as their subject lecturers were not aware of the relationship between student texts and source texts. These studies suggest that feedback from subject tutors in course-related writing can be a major source for

learners to be inducted into the discourse practices of source use, but it could also fail to fulfil its supposed aim due to practical constraints in institutions.

2.5.2 Source use coverage in EAP textbooks

So far, what learners need to achieve in source use has been established, and pedagogic implications have been drawn based on research evidence. It is now useful to review how source use is actually addressed in currently used teaching materials. While it is difficult to access materials used at different institutions, a review of commonly circulated EAP textbooks can indicate current pedagogic foci on source use topics. In the past, there was criticism that source use did not receive much attention in EAP textbooks (e.g. Thompson & Tribble, 2001), and when it has now received, the focus has been more on the mechanics rather than the rhetorical functions of source use (Harwood, 2010). This is understandable if we consider source use as simply one amongst many aspects of academic writing, but this chapter has identified mounting evidence of the challenges source use presents for L2 novice writers. It is therefore interesting to look at source use coverage in textbooks currently used.

In this section, ten commercial textbooks of academic writing/EAP/study skills, all published in the 21st century, are discussed. There were three criteria for the selection of the textbooks. First, they are mainly intended for L2 students with post-intermediate to advanced language proficiency, as is the case for the students in this study. Second, they cover a wide range of textbook styles – some more research-focused (Swales & Feak, 2012) and some more focused on referencing skills (Neville, 2007) – but they all dedicate substantial coverage to source use in general. Third, they have been widely recommended for use by top-ranked UK university websites (e.g. University of Glasgow, n.d.; University of Warwick Open House, n.d.). These are the textbooks that international students of advanced language level are likely to access in their EAP courses or self-study, if such support is available. It was further confirmed by one EAP programme leader in the Northern University that three textbooks in this inquiry (Bailey, 2011; de Chazal & Moore, 2013; Hewings & Thaine, 2012) are indeed continuously used by teachers and students on pre- and in-sessional programmes.

For the analysis, I adopted Hyland's (1994) framework for analysing coverage of hedging devices in EAP textbooks, using *no coverage*, *minimal coverage* (limited explanation, few examples, and under three exercises provided) and *fair to extensive coverage* (extended explanation, more thorough examples, and more than three exercises provided). These categories clearly divide the amount of coverage by the number of exercise units involved, and appear appropriate for this analysis of source use coverage. A unit of exercise is defined as one task with an overall learning aim. For example, a prompt asking students to consider two questions: 1) Why do we need to use sources? and 2) what kind of information needs to be supported by sources? is considered one exercise, since they both aim at raising awareness of source use. Salient aspects of source use have been identified in the earlier review of the literature; their coverage in the textbooks is summarised in Table 2-1 as follows.

Table 2-1 Coverage of source use aspects in selected EAP/study skills textbooks

Note. X = no coverage √ = minimal coverage √√ = fair to extensive coverage Row headings represent areas of source use, column headings represent the textbooks											
Topic	Sub-topic	Oshima & Hogue 2005	Neville 2007	Crene & Lea 2008	Gillet et al. 2009	Bailey 2011 (3rd ed.)	Craswell & Poore, 2012	Hewings & Thaine, 2012 (Advanced)	Murray 2012	Swales & Feak 2012 (3rd ed.)	De Chazal & Moore, 2013 (Advanced)
Basics of source use	Why and when to reference (including common knowledge)	√	√√	√	X	√	√	√	X	√	√
	Avoiding plagiarism	√	√√	√	√	√√	√	X	√	√	√
	Referencing style	X	√√	√√	√√	√	√	√	√√	X	√
Language re-use of sources	Paraphrasing	√√	√	X	√√	√√	√	√	√√	√	√
	Summarising/Writing summaries	√√	√	X	√√	√√	√	√√	√	√√	√√
	Quotations	√√	X	X	√√	√	√	√	√√	√	√
Evaluative citation use	Integral and non-integral citations	X	X	X	√	X	X	X	X	X	√
	Reporting structures	√	X	√	√	√√	X	X	X	√√	√
	Other evaluative language	X	X	X	√	X	X	√	X	√√	√
Combining sources	-	X	√	√	√	√√	X	√	X	√√	√√
Reading skills for writing	-	X	√	√√	√√	√√	√	√	√	√	√√

Overall, it can be seen that almost all the textbooks mention referencing formats in text (how to cite correctly) and at the end of text (compiling the reference list). Plagiarism is also addressed in all of the textbooks, although some gave more attention to it than others. Meanwhile, the purposes of source use and occasions where citations can be omitted (Row 1) are only minimally covered in most of the textbooks, with only one *fair* attempt. Language-related source use skills, including paraphrasing, summarising, and quotation, are present in most textbooks, some of which gave substantial attention to the skills. Other most densely introduced topics are reading skills for writing purposes, such as note taking skills, skimming and scanning. Noticeably, forms of citation and their functions, rhetorical connotations of reporting structures, as well as other linguistic resources for showing authorial stance when using others' voices, are minimally addressed in most textbooks. The following analysis will look at each aspect more closely. Matching excerpts from textbooks containing these aspects are presented in Appendix 1 under separate headings.

The notion of plagiarism is at least mentioned in all textbooks reviewed, while some also noted the reasons and occasions to cite sources. Neville's (2007) *The Complete Guide to Referencing and Avoiding Plagiarism* gives extensive coverage of the reasons and the situations in which citations are needed. It also lists instances requiring no citations, such as student summaries of their own arguments, and gives specific examples of commonly held knowledge. Taking a more cautious approach, Creme and Lea (2008) advise students to cite whenever unsure in order to be safe, "...in some ways, the idea of ownership of academic knowledge and ideas is very difficult to define...It is best to start by erring on the safe side and referencing whenever you feel unsure, rather than omitting a citation" (p.116). They further show students examples of citations and illustrate how the content referenced from sources can be ambiguous, thus advising students to be as clear as possible in signposting citations. Taking this further, Craswell and Poore, (2012) show how adding a few words could clearly signpost to the reader the exact content belonging to a source text (see Appendix 1). In contrast, some of the EAP textbooks make no explicit mention of common knowledge and whether attribution can be omitted in certain situations (Gillet et al., 2009; Murray, 2012), perhaps due to the fuzzy nature of this issue and the way that this depends on context and reader knowledge (Polio & Shi, 2012).

Six of the textbooks give substantial attention to language-related aspects of source use, i.e. paraphrasing and summarising. For summarising, typically, students are asked to make notes in the margins of the source text excerpts, and then choose one summary out of several examples that represent the appropriate amount of detail (Gillet et al., 2009; Hewings & Thaine, 2012; Swales & Feak, 2012, see Appendix 1). Among all textbooks examined, Swales and Feak (2012) give most attention to summarising and propose paraphrasing as a technique to deal with issues of overlong summaries, patchwriting, and limited understanding of source text. Interestingly, the textbook warns students of the dangers of over reliance on paraphrasing, "...if you do this sentence by sentence, you run the risk of not demonstrating your full understanding of the passage. You might miss an opportunity to highlight key points" (p.158). This point is clearly very important advice, but it does not appear in any other textbook reviewed. A number of textbooks give examples of paraphrasing and summarising in use from authentic articles (Gillet et al., 2009; Swales & Feak, 2012), and most provide exercises for students to practice these skills (Hewings & Thaine, 2012; Oshima & Hogue, 2005). Several textbooks also elicit students' understanding of the choice between a direct quotation and paraphrase, where students are invited to think about the situations where a direct quotation might be more appropriate, or where paraphrase might be more appropriate (Hewings & Thaine, 2012).

Most of the textbooks give rather limited coverage on evaluation of sources and evaluative language available for showing evaluation (Craswell & Poore, 2012; Murray, 2012; Neville, 2007). Some contain notions of evaluation but lack examples of usable devices for students (Craswell & Poore, 2012; Murray, 2012); some others include example passages containing evaluative phrases but do not raise students' awareness on this aspect (Creme & Lea, 2008; Oshima & Hogue, 2005). For example, Creme and Lea (2008) provide several passages of student writing, which contain some evaluative language, reporting verbs, and paraphrased or summarised content, but the book does not address these three areas directly (see Appendix 1). In contrast, Gillet et al. (2009) explicitly suggests that students evaluate or comment on the statements they make. They then provide tables of evaluative language with limited examples. These refer generally to evaluating statements, but the phrases can be used for evaluating sources as well (see Appendix 1). Further, and perhaps containing the

most coverage of evaluation among the books, Swales and Feak (2012) firstly raise students' awareness of evaluation by asking students to pose several critical questions in reading an extract of a research article, and give sample questions. They then provide a range of comparative and evaluative phrases (nouns and adjectives) for students to write comparative summaries and critiques, the former also accompanied by sample sentences in which the devices are used (see Appendix 1). Functions of citations were addressed in various parts of the book, e.g. together with the rhetorical moves of a literature review.

In particular, reporting structures as a commonly used citation device are introduced and listed in six out of the ten textbooks reviewed, but the majority of them focus on the grammatical mechanism of integrating citations into texts instead of communicative meanings (e.g. Bailey, 2011; Oshima & Hogue, 2005). For example, Oshima and Hogue (2005) simply gives some examples of reporting verbs, and introduce some grammatical rules of their positioning in clauses and matching collocations (see Appendix 1). This approach suggests that reporting verbs were merely devices that need to be correctly used when referencing sources, which is rather technical treatment of source use. The different stances that reporting verbs carry are inadequately covered in most textbooks. For example, Gillet et al. (2009) introduce the concept of *strength of claims* in making arguments, which also applies to reporting verbs. However, the book went into no further depth on this – it listed a few reporting phrases and simply stated “try changing the phrase and see what effect it has” (p.210, see Appendix 1). de Chazal and Moore (2013) contain an activity of matching reporting phrases with the clause to follow, which involves consideration of the grammatical structure and semantic meaning. However, the text was too short to provide a clear context, and thus rhetorical meaning was not a part of the consideration in this activity (see Appendix 1). Overall, the range of meanings available that are conveyed by the large number of reporting verbs and phrases (see Section 2.4.4.2) are overlooked and receive little or no coverage.

Similarly, only two textbooks (de Chazal & Moore, 2013; Gillet et al., 2009) highlight the form of integral and non-integral citations. Only de Chazal and Moore (2013) further highlight their rhetorical effects in terms of foregrounding the author or

foregrounding the content (see Appendix 1). In contrast, the other textbooks give virtually no mention of this.

Several textbooks devote some space to combining sources in discourse, mainly as an extension activity to paraphrasing and summarising. For example, Hewings and Thaine (2012) ask the student to practice writing short syntheses based on four extracts of different sources. Students need to make notes of the key information of each extract and organise them coherently into a paragraph (see Appendix 1). Focusing on a different area, Swales and Feak (2012) highlight the importance of generating similarities and differences between sources in the construction of writer's argument, by showing the ineffective use of listing content of sources separately (see Appendix 1). Similarly, Bailey (2011) shows how a sample synthesis contrasts different ideas from two sources and invites students to include a third source in this synthesis. Combining sources after learning paraphrasing and summarising should be an important step, because writing in the real world of academia involves reading and reporting a range of sources. However, this is not sufficiently addressed in the textbooks – only three give fair coverage of it.

In sum, the above analysis reveals that textbooks tend to give more coverage on what constitutes plagiarism, paraphrasing, and summarising skills to avoid plagiarism, than they do to other important aspects of source use. By contrast, rhetorical devices that can be used to achieve authorial voice and discursal functions of source use are relatively under addressed. A few textbooks take a rather technical approach to source use, focusing on mechanical referencing conventions in texts and compiling reference lists, treating source use as a study skill that needs to be covered before writing any coursework (e.g. Neville, 2007). By contrast, textbooks such as that by Swales and Feak (2012) give substantial examples of source use devices in authentic use, providing means for students to adapt these devices in their academic discourse. The overall misplaced pedagogic focus on plagiarism and language change is evident in many textbooks, which is in line with the theoretical and research focus on plagiarism issues (see the beginning of Section 2.4). However, also as discussed earlier (see Section 2.4.4), this ignores recent research advocating for the development of authorial voice in source use (Abasi & Graves, 2008; Harwood, 2004; Yamada, 2003).

2.6 Review of key studies

A survey of relevant literature shows that much attention has been given to issues of plagiarism, such as general debates on the definition of plagiarism, or research on student and tutor perceptions of what constitutes plagiarism. It has also been established that a sole focus on plagiarism as misconduct offers little to students wishing to develop their writing, and the more salient issue is pedagogic support on effective source use that conforms to relevant discourse conventions. Paraphrasing skills are important for students to master in order to avoid patchwriting, to have their own voice, and to show understanding of source content, which features fairly strongly in current EAP materials. However, too much focus on sentence-level paraphrasing can overlook the power of summarising that shows global level understanding of source texts, as well as the need to present similar or different positions from a number of sources. Therefore, language change from source text is not the only central issue in source use. The ability to manage citation forms for a range of rhetorical purposes would help construct students' authorial voice, which is crucial for success in assessed coursework. Currently, although a number of studies have looked at the area of citations and rhetorical functions in expert writing (e.g. Harwood, 2009; Hyland, 1999), relatively few studies have been conducted in student genres. An interrelated topic of interest is how students transfer knowledge of source use from EAP classrooms into their own writing.

Regarding the context of source use research, many authors have called for less research on decontextualised student perceptions of acceptable source use, and more research into source use practices in naturalistic contexts of writing in specific discourse communities (Flowerdew & Li, 2007; Pecorari, 2015). Further, more focus needs to be put on the rhetorical aspect of source use, instead of on its purpose for simply avoiding academic misconduct (Pecorari, 2008b) or for demonstrating efforts of reading and gaining marks (Coffin, 2009). This section will review individual studies aimed at this purpose, which would lend theoretical and methodological insights to a similar study.

Among the first who investigated student source use progress Dong (1996), in a US university, followed three Chinese doctoral students' source use development in

writing and revising thesis drafts in a science discipline. She drew on data from discourse-based interviews with the students, their supervisors, and analysis of multiple drafts. She found that the students were at first unfamiliar with citation conventions, but with their supervisors' help in coaching and co-writing, they gradually developed the competence of using sources to formulate new knowledge claims. This study is methodologically inspiring as it drew from multiple sources of data to re-construct the students' source use learning process. However, the enquiry somehow lacked theoretical focus, as the literature on source use at the time was rather limited. There were not clearly developed areas, as there are today, specifically moral, linguistic, and stance aspects of source use. Further, the doctoral supervision experience could be unique to each individual student, and the findings here may not apply to undergraduate or Master's students who may have limited interaction with supervisors.

Pecorari's (2008a) work is based on a study of plagiarism and source use in nine Master's and eight doctoral students' writing in three UK universities studying a range of subjects, and their subject tutors' views on student source use practices. With perspectives from both the students and subject experts, Pecorari concluded that the students in most cases did not have an intention to deceive, even in instances that seemed at first sight to be clear instances of plagiarism; the subject tutors also stressed a need to rely on the specific contexts to judge the extent of plagiarism. This study investigated a fair number of students, both L1 and L2, in different disciplines, and demonstrated the complexity involved in judging plagiarism in real higher education writing contexts. However, the diversity in the student body also suggests little generalisability of the findings, and perhaps a study in one homogeneous context would develop more commonality in findings. Moreover, while Pecorari touched upon the students' overall composition purpose and the impact it made on students' successful or unsuccessful textual borrowing, the study mainly focused on what should and should not be judged as plagiarism. Today it seems that understanding writers' purposes for using sources is a more pertinent issue, as will be shown with the analyses of the following studies.

The years 2012 and 2013 in particular, and afterwards, saw a burgeoning of source use research on student writing in specific authentic contexts. As mentioned before (Section 2.4), a special issue of the *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* was dedicated to several studies in this area. Davis (2013) investigated three Chinese international students' source use development over their pre-masters and Master's programmes in a UK university. Written texts at four stages of the two-year period were analysed and the students were interviewed about their perceptions of source use features at each stage. While considerable word-for-word copying featured in all three students' texts at the start of the study, by the end of the study they showed different levels of competence. Kevin, who had the strongest linguistic proficiency (IELTS 6.5) among the three at the start of the study, showed evidence of being a competent writer who employed diverse source use features and avoided plagiarism successfully. The other two students (with an IELTS score of 5.5) showed some progress in avoiding plagiarism from Stage One to Stage Two but eventually displayed more patchwriting features at later stages. Davis concluded that students can develop differently, depending on a complex range of factors, e.g. linguistic and academic level, the amount of support available, and students' individual experience in learning source use. The study comprehensively covered several areas of source use. Even so, issues in paraphrasing and patchwriting seemed to feature more prominently than other aspects, especially in the two less competent source users, and overall the students used limited citation functions and reporting verbs. This could have been related to the rather limited English proficiency of the two less competent source users, as well as limited disciplinary knowledge (also noted by Shaw & Pecorari, in their 2013 overview). It would be interesting to investigate source use development in a group of students with higher English language proficiency. Information about source use input that students receive would also be interesting to tap into the complex factors behind students' development.

Mcculloch (2012) explored five Japanese students' source use in writing pre-master's dissertations in a Japanese university, gathering data from texts and discourse-based interviews with the students. It was found that although plagiarism did not feature in their texts, their source use was still problematic. The students could not tactically use sources for their own arguments, but instead put central focus on

other sources to replace their own voices. Inappropriate use of quotations and lack of evaluation were prominent. The interviews with students further revealed that they used sources without the specific purpose of contributing to an argument and therefore lacked awareness of authorial voice. The use of discourse-based interviews in this study effectively collected student comments on their own source use practices located in specific discursive contexts of writing. The study also moved beyond the focus on plagiarism in novice students' source use and pointed to a lack of authorial voice as the fundamental issue that needs addressing.

In a later study focusing on the reading process in a UK university, McCulloch (2013) explored the reading-to-write behaviours in two L2 MA students' process of writing their dissertations, using think-aloud methods (45 minutes from each student) to elicit the students' thinking process during their reading stage as preparation for writing. She found that the two students' preparation stage in writing dissertation in naturalistic contexts is in fact much more complex than what is usually assumed in controlled studies, as the students used a wide range of strategies in searching and reading sources. McCulloch suggested that the reading process can have an important effect on students' source use practices later on in writing, but the study itself did not attempt to verify this assumption in the students' final writing products. The reading process before or during writing is clearly important and worth exploring; therefore, when focusing on students' source use in written texts, it may also be worthwhile to trace it back to their reading behaviours, if possible.

From the perspective of discourse analysis, Petrić's series of work on student citation use deserves central attention. Petrić (2007) investigated rhetorical functions of citations in eight high- and eight low-rated Master's theses in gender studies in a central European English-language medium university. Inductively, she found in total seven functions of citations from the students' texts (including attribution, evaluation, establishing links between sources, all of which will be explained in data analysis approaches in Section 3.5). This was among the first dedicated attempts to look at citations in terms of a range of rhetorical functions, although earlier work on integral and non-integral citations and reporting verbs (e.g. Hyland, 2002; Swales, 1990) also contributed to this area. Her citation analysis framework is particularly useful for a

study on the authorial voice aspect of students' source use. However, her analytical approach has some disadvantages. One criticism is that in her framework the functions are assigned from the reader perspective and take no account of the writer perspective, so it is unknown whether the writer intended those functions (Swales, 2014). Another criticism is perhaps the specificity of the framework to the discipline and the task, suggesting that substantial adaptation may be necessary in order to use her framework in another context (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). These issues will be discussed in detail in Section 3.4.1. As for the study's results, Petrić found that although both high- and low-scoring students used citations for knowledge display, the highly-rated theses employed a wider range of rhetorical functions than the low-rated theses. Her recommendation was that students learn to use sources for a range of purposes.

Perhaps mitigating the criticism of focusing only on the reader, Petrić's later work, in collaboration with Harwood, incorporated discourse-based interviews with student writers to explore their rationale for their own citation practices. Harwood and Petrić (2012) investigated two L2 Master's students' citation behaviours in writing business management assignments and found the students used performance strategies to please the marker. The students cited key sources recommended by the module tutor, regardless of their own preference, and made reference to a large number of sources to perform the role of the diligent student. Petrić and Harwood (2013) further looked at the same successful student's use of citations in two different modules, and found both similarities and differences. This showed the student's awareness of adjusting citation strategies according to general discipline conventions as well as specific task requirements. Both studies used discourse-based interviews to understand the students' rationale and concerns behind their citation use, instead of focusing exclusively on the reader or the marker's perspective. This method seems to have generated rich insights about how L2 learners approach source use, which can inform studies with similar aims. These two studies also looked at high-performing students instead of struggling students and provided insights into how L2 students can adapt to and cope with the genre expectations around source use. Moreover, a number of contextual issues in student coursework writing are highlighted in these two

studies, such as students' tendency to perform for their marker and the variation and complexity in coursework requirements.

2.7 Research gaps

To summarise the above, in naturalist contexts of student writing for higher education assessments, most studies have been conducted at one single stage (Pecorari, 2008a; Petrić, 2007), with only a limited number of studies investigating source use over several stages (Davis, 2013; Dong, 1996). This lack of longitudinal studies constitutes an important gap in current source use research, and more such studies have been called for in the literature (Shi, 2010). Further, it is clear that students develop their source use competence due to a range of complex factors including the support they receive (Davis, 2013), but few studies have given any attention to the institutional support that students receive on source use, or have explored its influence on student writing practices. This is also an area worthy of more investigation (Cumming et al., 2018).

Regarding coverage of topics, although many studies have proposed citation for rhetorical purposes as a focus of research, in reality, in relevant studies (Davis, 2013; Mcculloch, 2012) a range of rhetorical functions are often not evident in student texts, as found, probably due to the limited language proficiency of the student group and the limited support they received on source use. What is implied is that novice students typically lack the awareness of citation used for rhetorical purposes. Only a few studies have looked at successful students (Petrić, 2007; Petrić & Harwood, 2013; Shi et al., 2018), but some of these were not complete novices in terms of source-based writing. Hence, there is a research gap on citation functions of novice students with rather advanced language proficiency. Further, studies investigating students' source use from the researchers' perspectives are more common (Cumming et al., 2018; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Petrić, 2007; Samraj, 2013), and studies that investigate students' views on their discourse-based source use instances are still rather limited (Harwood & Petric, 2012; Mcculloch, 2012; Petrić & Harwood, 2013). Studies that combine the researcher's analysis of texts and discourse-based interviews with students (e.g. Davis, 2013) are even more limited. At the same time, even when student and researcher perspectives were present, the perspectives offered by subject

tutors' feedback have rarely been included. This is also a point to be considered in any similar study.

Based on this review of current research gaps, the following research questions are proposed in the given context:

The overall research aim is to investigate taught Master's Chinese students' source use practice in academic writing over the course of a one-year study programme in a UK university (including the dissertation stage).

Main RQ (Research Question) 1: What citation features do students use in their coursework over a one-year taught Master's programme?

RQ1 contains two sub-questions:

- Is there any change in students' use of citations at different stages of a one-year programme?
- Is there any difference between high-scoring and low-scoring students' citation use?

Main RQ 2: What are the reasons for students' use of certain citation features, and neglect of others?

Main RQ3: What formal and informal support do students receive on source use?

RQ3 contains one sub-question:

- How do students perceive the source use support they receive?

The following chapter will consider methodological issues of this study. The chapter will make reference to these RQs at different points, as study design crucially rests on gathering appropriate data to answer them.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter outlines methodological issues and the research design for this project. Firstly, it will justify the constructivist and interpretivist research paradigm adopted for this study. Secondly, after considering possible options it will reach a specific research design, and summarise the type of study chosen, along with the methods for data collection. It will then highlight decisions made to modify the design in the light of a pilot study. This will be followed by a description of the implementation of the main study, with details of the overall research procedure, participants' profiles, their writing assignments and tasks, the interview instruments used, and ethical issues involved. It will then discuss the rationale for the data analysis methods used with students' texts and interviews. Finally, it will explain how trustworthiness of the study was ensured.

3.1 A constructive/interpretive research paradigm

The ontological and epistemological assumptions of the reality and knowledge need to be explained for any particular study before making decisions on the specific methods (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). In this study, conventions of academic writing are understood to be socially constructed by expert members of discourse communities. Students are novice members of these communities who use various opportunities to become socialised into them through peripheral participation (see Section 2.1.2). Given these theoretical aspects underlying the study, a constructivist and interpretivist paradigm appears appropriate, which will be explained below.

In terms of ontology (i.e. how the reality is perceived), constructivism refutes a positivist view of one single objective reality and regards reality as constructed by individuals (Waring, 2012). In the context of this study, no single truth can be established about the exact writing conventions students need to follow, or how students are encultured into their disciplinary discourse communities, even in the same department of the same university. For example, source use requirements in this context are not static, but according to the positioning of specific modules within a discipline continuum (Section 2.2.1) and even particular task prompts. What is

involved is not only a set of socially recognised genre conventions, but also the lecturers' and students' subjective perception of genres. Moreover, students have various learning processes, which depends on their personal attributes and events they experience. For this reason, there cannot be one single pattern of students' development. Thus, the current study fits within a constructivist ontology where multiple versions of source use are constructed by the students, the lecturers, and the parent discourse community constructed by academics in the field. It is these individuals and groups that give meaning to the practice of source use, and no single reality exists outside of their social construction (Robson & McCartan, 2016). In other words, source use only exists as a phenomenon because of the peripheral and expert discourse community members involved in writing or marking academic texts.

In terms of how to come to know the realities referred to above (i.e. epistemology), it thus seems appropriate to explore them through indirect observation of the phenomenon. One way of knowing genre requirements on source use in specific contexts would be to interpret them based on multiple accounts from students, lecturers and artefacts. Similarly, knowledge of students' academic socialisation can be gained by indirectly re-constructing the process and through analysing students' traces of learning writing. In this way, knowledge about the *students' learning of source use* phenomenon is constructed by participants and the researcher's subjective interpretation (Robson & McCartan, 2016). The aim is not to find out the single *true* reality, but to understand the meanings assigned to source use by the participants and the researcher (Hood, 2009).

The researcher is thus part of the knowledge construction, and cannot be objectively separated from it. Having been a Master's student myself in the same department as the participants, I inevitably bring to this investigation personal biases based on my own experience as a student. On the other hand, during the course of the entire research project, I also developed my identity as a member of academic support staff in my work as a postgraduate teaching assistant. I taught academic integrity workshops around the university, research seminars in the department, and pre-sessional EAP courses to students in other departments. Courses of these types were available to the participants in this study, but I did not teach any of my student

participants. I therefore positioned myself both as a former student and a teacher in the wider academic study context. This dual identity granted me the advantages of being an insider researcher – understanding and having access to the local context and speaking the same insider language as the participants (Unluer, 2012), but at the same time I ensured that I would not be influenced by too much insider bias by not being closely involved in the students’ everyday lives. In other words, a balance was carefully kept between *under rapport* and *over rapport* – the connection between the researcher and the participants was neither too remote nor too close (Warren & Karner, 2009).

There are limitations in adopting a purely constructivist paradigm to researching source use in writing. A central issue can be the reliability of human interpretation. Students’ accounts on source use might be limited because of their peripheral status in the academic communities. As will be explained in the research design (Section 3.2), this issue can be mitigated by collecting multiple accounts of the source use phenomenon from students, concrete artefacts and tutor feedback. The phenomenon is therefore jointly constructed by the researcher, the students and the tutors. This can make for a more solid base of knowledge construction.

3.2 Research design

This section introduces the approaches and methods adopted for this study prior to actual implementation. Specific details of how the methods were used, such as which particular framework or instruments were adopted and modification suggested by piloting, will be explained in later sections.

3.2.1 A case study approach

Rooted within a constructivist and interpretivist paradigm, case study as a research strategy (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2014) best captures the needs of the current study. Case study is particularly useful for complex phenomena, where many contextual variables are involved (Yin, 2014). For the project considered here, case study seems an appropriate strategy to integrate analysis of source use features in student texts, with the students’ own self-report rationale behind them, while at the same time providing a clear analysis of various ways institutional support influenced participants’ source use.

A key feature of case study is *boundedness*, which means the individual or entity being studied should be definable with specificity, usually in its naturalistic context (Merriam, 1988; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Richards, 2011). Key terms that can be *bound* include time, space and activity (Baxter & Jack, 2008). For example, *a teacher* does not qualify as a case for its lack of specificity, but *a teacher's use of teaching strategies for a particular subject within a particular school* could be defined as a case (Stake, 1995). For the present study, a suitable, concise definition of the case can be *Chinese MA students' source use practice during the one-year degree in the Education department in a UK university*. The time is bound in this definition, which is the one-year degree, from enrolment onto the MA programme to the completion of the programme.

The place and activities in the case can be further bound according to the scope of the research interests. The current study is interested in as many potential contextual influences on students' source use learning as possible. Some of the source use input may be in the academic modules that students are enrolled in and the in-session EAP support courses. These settings involve staff, e.g. academic course leaders, supervisors and EAP tutors, classmates in the same courses, as well as learning materials. Students can also be influenced by their peers outside of the courses or university-level academic support units that might not seem immediately influential. Therefore, the immediate boundary being defined in this case is the Education Department, primarily its subject modules and EAP support courses (organised within the department, to be explained in the next sub-section). The wider entity that could also be relevant but not primarily the focus of the study is the whole university. Overall, the case has to be studied within the context that it is bound to; otherwise, the case would be meaningless. Studying the students within the same research site would provide rich data for the case.

In line with the bounded system defined above, this case study design matches with Yin's (2014) definition of a single-case embedded design with multiple units of analysis (see Figure 1). In this diagram, the overall *case* in the proposed study can be defined as the phenomenon of MA students learning source use in the education department in the Northern University. It is embedded in the context, which includes

potential influences from staff, peers and materials in the department as well as wider influences from the university and beyond. Within the overall case, each student forms a unit of analysis. These students in the same department share the context of a Master’s cohort, and contribute together to the overall case.

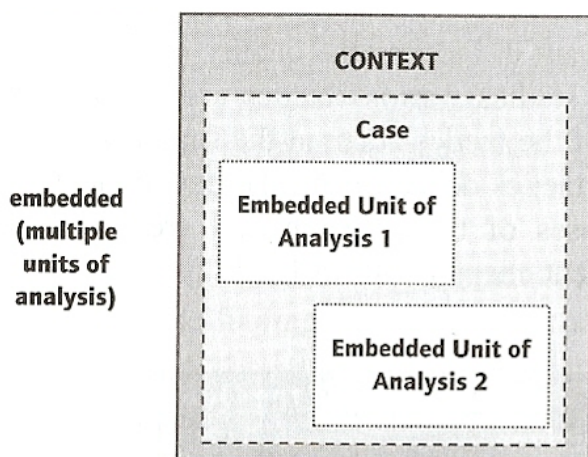


Figure 3-1 Types of case study design, from Yin (2014, p.40)

Case study types also vary according to the intended research purpose (Hood, 2009). Through studying the particular case of Chinese Education Masters students in a UK university, the purpose of the present study is firstly to describe the nature of students’ source use (RQ1), their conscious intentions and reasons for choice of source use features (RQ2) and input they receive (RQ3), and then move forward to interpret the extent of source use development in the student group, and the reasons for such development. Implications can be drawn for teaching and supporting source use to this particular group, which may also apply to other cases with similar situations, such as social sciences departments in Anglophone universities with large numbers of international students. This purpose thus fits Stake’s (1995) definition of an *instrumental* case study, since the purpose goes beyond mere description of the case and extends to interpretation of causal relationship, with an ultimate focus on teaching.

3.2.2 The research site

This section will lay out the context of the research site, i.e. the education department of the Northern University, which is important for designing the research procedure later. It will explain the programmes and modular system, marking and feedback

arrangements in the department. In the academic year 2016-2017 when this study took place, the education department of the Northern University had around 200 students enrolled in MA programmes. The MA in TESOL programme contained the greatest number of students, far surpassing other programmes such as MA in Applied Linguistics and MA in Education. The majority of students in all these programmes were mainland Chinese nationals.

The academic year included three terms, each with ten weeks, plus the summer vacation period for writing up dissertations. In Term One, MA TESOL students were required to attend two core modules and one optional module. While one core module was assessed by exam, the other core module (TESOL methods) and the optional module were assessed by writing 4,000 to 5,000-word assignments. The majority of summative assignments in the department fitted the definition of *documented essays* in higher education (Section 2.2.2) – these require demonstration of understanding and ability of informed reasoning, based on researching previous sources. In Term Two, MA TESOL students were required to attend one core module and one optional module. The optional module summative assessment was also an essay. Therefore, a TESOL student typically needed to write two assignments in Term One and one assignment in Term Two. They could choose their optional modules from a total of sixteen language-based modules in the two terms. These were taught by academics who specialised in the subject fields. The titles for assignments were usually only available after Week 8 or 9 in term time, and students tended to write up their assignments during the vacation period (four weeks) of that term. The deadlines for submitting assignments were after the vacation period and at the beginning of the following term.

Each assignment was marked by the module lecturer(s) according to a set of criteria, referred to as grade descriptors in the student handbook (see Appendix 2 for the full descriptors). Performance within six score bands were described: Distinguished (80-100), Distinguished (70-79), Merit (60-69), Satisfactory (50-59), Marginal Fail (40-49), Fail (0-39). For each band, seven aspects of performance were outlined. Three out of the seven aspects were clearly about source use. In addition, the aspect on criticality and level of analysis in arguments could also sometimes refer to

critical use of sources, as source use is central in providing evidence and building arguments (Section 1.4.1). For example, the descriptor of Merit band score stated:

- selection from a wide and relevant range of perspectives and sources that draws upon contemporary academic debate;
- sources well-integrated into the overall argument;
- references clear and accurate using appropriate APA conventions;
- critical distance and sound analysis of the question

In contrast, the descriptor for the Marginal Fail band score stated:

- relevant but not wide selection of resources;
- sources sometimes not properly integrated into the argument;
- references adequate but clearer and/or more references needed;
- some successful analysis but has a tendency to accept the source material at surface value

The handbook also stated that some aspects outweigh others in the marking decision (see Appendix 2). For example, a sound grasp of the subject knowledge would probably lead to a good score despite a few stylistic errors. This indicates alignment with a *holistic* marking system that assigns an overall mark, instead of an *analytical* marking system that adds up the total score from several components (Sadler, 2009). Arguably, an analytical marking system might enable markers to provide more detailed and more directed feedback on specific areas such as source use, but the holistic marking system used in the department could be limited in this regard.

Markers also needed to complete a feedback report together with the mark, which could be accessed by students electronically seven weeks after assignment submission. A standard feedback form with five specific headings was used in the department: searching sources, analysing data and ideas, written communication, other comments on the assignment, and targets for improvement. The section “searching sources” is likely to contain comments about source use, but “data analysis” and “targets for improvement” could also contain comments related to

source use (as discussed above). Attention needs to be paid to this when interpreting feedback reports.

Following the first two terms was one “independent study” module – the dissertation. Its final product is a report of a research project (see Section 2.2.2) that students carried out. The length of the dissertation is 12,000 words with 10% leeway above or below the word count as required by the department. The dissertation stage began early in Term 2, as students drafted ideas and then proposals for research, and continued till the end of the academic year and beyond into the summer vacation. Students were required to submit a research proposal for their dissertation study at the end of Term 2, which needed to be approved by their personally assigned supervisor. In Term 3, they began initial literature survey and data collection. The period after Term 3, from June to September, was when students usually wrote up their dissertations. When students completed a first draft of any dissertation chapter, supervisors tended to give marginal feedback on their texts. According to the departmental policy, supervisors were required to give feedback on only one draft of the whole dissertation, and no further feedback on any revised drafts.

Students needed to submit their final dissertations at the beginning of September. Dissertations would be marked by one lecturer aligned to the degree programme other than the student’s supervisor. The supervisors only second-marked their students’ dissertations. Like assignments, dissertations were also marked according to a grade descriptor (see Appendix 2). Five aspects were involved: understanding of existing research relevant to the study, clear and meaningful research questions relating to the student’s programme study, planning and carrying out a research study, analysing data collected and discussing findings appropriately, and structure and formats of presentation.

It is evident that the first area “understanding existing research” focused quite specifically on source use. The criteria of this section were stated in the following way, for example:

- (85-70 band): An excellent grasp of relevant literature, issues and debates is demonstrated. This is explicitly linked to the rationale for conducting the study. Relevant concepts are explained well and details about relevant

previous research are discussed critically. Literature support is fully integrated into the overall argument and critical distance is maintained throughout.

- (69-60 band) A good grasp of relevant literature is demonstrated and the literature reviewed is occasionally linked to the rationale for the research conducted, though the relevance of some sections may be unclear. Relevant concepts are explained and some details about relevant previous research are discussed. Literature support is integrated into the overall argument to an extent. A good level of criticality is demonstrated, although there may be occasional lapses.
- (49-40 band) Some relevant literature is discussed superficially and/ or descriptively. The links between the literature review and the research conducted are not clear. There may be significant misinterpretations or misunderstandings of the literature.

Several areas of source use were involved in these band descriptors: understanding of the literature, relevance of the literature to the student's own study, critical discussion of the literature which involves explanation of some details of the research studies reviewed. These requirements on source use in dissertations are somewhat similar to those in assignments (as shown above); this may therefore provide rationale for investigating changes in students' citation features (one sub-question of RQ1) in different task types over the year. These requirements are also important for interpreting students' source use in dissertations and their supervisors' comments on their drafts later (Section 6.3.4.2).

Further, the section "discussing findings appropriately" also involved reference to previous literature, and source use could be a focus there. However, the functions of source use in discussing findings are very different from those in assignments, or in showing understanding of existing research in dissertations. Discussion of findings mostly involves linking one's own findings with the findings of previous research (Petrić, 2007), which is not applicable to assignments or literature review chapters. Therefore, it may not be appropriate to include this section in a longitudinal study of students' source use practice, where one focus is to look at the students' development of source use. There is also concern about the manageability of the data size – too much data with different foci may limit the depth of analysis. In addition to this, the

other areas of the dissertation grade descriptor focused more on research abilities than on source use, which are less relevant to the focus of this study.

Matching with these criteria, the dissertation feedback report also used a standard form containing five headings. The dissertation mark and the feedback report were only available after the students completed their study and usually returned back to their home countries.

During the year, students had access to a range of support on academic writing, which sometimes included source use. The most continuous type of support was the Departmental English Language Courses (hereafter the DEL courses), which were delivered by the Northern University's English Language Teaching Centre but organised within the department of education. These courses ran throughout the three terms. In contrast, most other types of support courses were one-off, such as the study skills courses within the department, and the workshop on plagiarism-checking software organised by the university's academic support office. These courses and workshops will be explained in more detail when addressing RQ3 in Chapter 6. Artefacts related to such support, such as course outlines and materials used, will be presented to provide more contextual information about the nature of such inputs.

3.2.3 Data collection methods

The richness of a case study is built on multiple sources of data, which need to be reasonable and manageable as well (Duff, 2008; Yin, 2014). Case studies have a wide range of method choices that do not have to be rigidly assigned to a particular methodological camp (Richards, 2011). For the research purposes of this study, I used text analysis of students' writing for RQ1, interviews with students for RQ 2 and RQ3. Artefacts such as tutor feedback reports on coursework and EAP course materials were also collected to address RQ3.

3.2.3.1 Text analysis

For RQ 1, in order to investigate students' source use in written texts under naturalistic conditions, discourse analysis seems an appropriate method. Assignments and dissertations can be regarded as discourse, commonly defined as "socially-situated language use in any channel or medium" (Cameron, 2001, p.8). It is

appropriate here because of my focus on students' source use in interaction with their audience, which involves citation forms and their communicative meanings (Lazaraton, 2009). The aim of text analysis in this study is to provide a numerical, mainly quantitative account of students' source use features in texts (RQ1), which then complements qualitative accounts about source use reasons generated from the students (RQ2). It does not attempt to generalise source use tendencies among a large group of target students, but only attempts to measure individual student's source use patterns at a number of stages over the year and to compare the use and patterns among students on a small scale.

Further, source use in this study is investigated both within sentences and further to relations between sentences. Although source use is typically analysed within sentence level, characterised by the use of integral/non-integral citations or reporting verbs (K. Hyland, 1999; Swales, 2014), source use also extends beyond sentence level towards several sentences or a whole paragraph and it is therefore a feature at the discourse level (Petrić, 2007). Flexibility of shifting between sentence level and discourse level is a key characteristic of the text analysis method in this study.

It is then important to consider which portions of assignments and dissertations should be analysed. For documented essays/assignments, analysing full texts seems to be the typical practice in studies that investigate patterns of citation use (Cumming et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Wette, 2017). This workload of analysis might be heavy, depending on the number of participants recruited. Considering that students' source use features could be similar in two assignments written in the same term, i.e. textual data reaching *saturation* (Bowen, 2008), I decided to keep only one assignment per term for analysis. I asked the participants to send me only one assignment that they would prefer to comment on in interviews. This might generate richer data in interviews due to participants' relatively more interest in commenting on their chosen assignment.

The dissertation, unlike assignments, requires students to conduct their own empirical research based on knowledge of the existing literature. Clearly, the assignment and the dissertation are two different genres with different word length requirement, so to some extent it would be difficult to observe changes in students'

source use patterns over the two genres and attribute it to students' development of source use. However, the dissertation stage is still crucial for maintaining three stages of data collection and the rigour of the longitudinal design of this study. It therefore seemed reasonable to select a sub-genre of the dissertation that is the most similar to assignments in terms of overall functions, citation functions and length.

The literature review (hereafter LR) chapter seems appropriate for this purpose. In terms of social purposes, the LR chapter serves similar functions as assignments – to demonstrate knowledge of the existing literature and to make informed arguments. As shown earlier (Section 3.2.2), the effectiveness of source use in the dissertation is mainly assessed by students' understanding of existing literature, which is likely to be the most evident in the LR chapter. It has also been shown that the LR chapter usually contains the highest frequency of citations among all chapters, at Master's or doctoral level (Thompson, 2005; Xu, 2012). This chapter may therefore be the most informative for investigating source use - an approach also taken in Davis' (2013) study. Regarding the length of the text, the LR chapter of an MA dissertation usually required around 3,000 words, as suggested by the departmental handbook. This is shorter than the assignment length, but not tremendously.

Considering that the dissertation could involve more than one draft, I decided to use participants' first drafts of the LR chapter for text analysis. This is because first drafts were written without supervisor's marginal comments on students' texts, whereas second drafts may involve revisions according to supervisors' comments. First drafts were therefore a more accurate representation of participants' source use ability at that stage. Moreover, first drafts of the LR chapter align better with the assignment writing products—it is assumed that assignments should not be the result of any detailed feedback on drafts, as this is not really allowed or the practice within the department.

3.2.3.2 Semi-structured and discourse-based interviews

Semi-structured interviews were used to gather students' biographical information at the beginning of the study and their progress in leaning source use over the year. The interview method is well-established in case studies in applied linguistics and beyond (Duff, 2008; Merriam, 1988). The semi-structured interview enables the researcher to

prepare questions beforehand, and to ask follow-up questions according to participants' responses (Kvale, 2007). This allows more flexibility than structured interviews, and salient points may emerge through further probing. It also enables responses to become structured in some way, instead of depending entirely on the respondents' intuition (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013). In this study, the semi-structured components of interviews are particularly important for understanding student participants' perceptions of the source use input they receive (RQ3). This would help to understand how they react to institutional support and further draw inference on the effectiveness of a range of support. To triangulate with student data, I further interviewed an EAP programme leader (referred to as Tutor A hereafter) to gain perspectives from EAP support staff regarding source use teaching. The interview questions for this were outlined after analysing student participants data, so that the focus of tutor interview at that stage is clearer. The interview protocol with tutor A can be found in Appendix 5.

In order to gain in-depth understanding of participants' reasons for using certain source use features but not others (RQ2), a discourse-based interview was conducted for each analysed text. The *discourse-based interview* (Odell, Goswami, & Herrington, 1983) is a method to "tap into participants' practical consciousness by querying them about their writing choices and judgements" (Lancaster, 2016, p.120). Other studies on source use (Harwood & Petrić, 2012; Petrić & Harwood, 2013) using this method generated rich accounts of students' rationale behind citation behaviours. In this study, these "writing choices" of citations can be selected from text analysis before the interview, thus enabling a structure for participants' answers. Selected textual extracts also act as stimuli for recalling source use intentions, which may minimise the effect of memory in interview responses. This method also helps to engage participants with the research project by explicitly relating it to their own contexts, thus generating more detailed data (Hurworth, 2012). Such discourse-based data from students can therefore complement the researcher's perspective in text analysis. In addition, feedback comments that the participants received are evidently one form of potential input, and discourse-based interviews on these comments can access participants' reactions and responses at the time they received the feedback. I

therefore also used discourse-based interviews for understanding students' reactions to the feedback comments they received (part of RQ3).

The relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee deserves particular attention, as interviews are joint productions by both (Fontana & Frey, 2003). Differences in social status, language background and age etc. between the researcher and the participant can have much influence on the data generated (Talmy, 2010). Duff (2008) concluded that an interviewer with the same gender, same L1 and similar age as the interviewee is more likely to make the participant feel at ease and freely contribute to questions. In this sense, I was at an advantageous position when conducting the interviews with the students. At the beginning of the first interview, I encouraged the participants to use the language they preferred, i.e. the participants' and my own L1 - Chinese Mandarin, or English. All participants opted for the Chinese language during the interviews. This may have enabled the participants to articulate their ideas better and reduce the cognitive demands on retrospective recall (Dörnyei, 2007) of source use intentions. At the same time, the English language was still sometimes useful in these interviews, especially when referring to students' source use instances in texts. On the other hand, conducting interviews in a different language from what is used in the research report might cause issues at the analysis and reporting stage, which will be discussed further in Section 3.5.5 interview data analysis.

3.2.3.3 Use of artefacts

For understanding input on source use (RQ3), besides listening to students' comments on the support they received, collecting physical artefacts of source use support was seen as a way to gain a fuller picture of the support system and complement the subjectivity of students' words alone. Using artefacts conforms to the standard practice of employing multiple data sources in case study research (Yin, 2014). It has been shown in the Literature Review that tutor feedback, EAP support courses and other one-off courses, and university/departmental handbooks may play a role in students' source use acquisition (Section 2.3; Section 2.5.1), and artefacts related to such support can be collected. In order to understand the content coverage of the EAP programme that target students attended, I obtained a copy of in-sessional EAP course

outline and materials used in class that were related to source use. I also downloaded the MA programme handbook from the department intranet, and a guidebook on referencing from the university website.

Feedback reports for assignments were collected from the student participants. The reports have a standard form with five specific headings (see Section 3.2.2 above), making it easier to locate comments on “searching sources”. As discussed earlier (Section 3.2.2), comments in these sections may overlap. It is therefore necessary to examine the whole report to identify all comments related to source use. The standard nature of such reports, i.e. available for all students and collectable electronically, makes it possible to analyse them. The length of reports was usually one-page long, limiting the workload for analysis.

At the same time, it is acknowledged that some types of feedback cannot be investigated through artefacts. For example, verbal feedback would be difficult to record if it occurred during student conversation with tutors. Written feedback for formative assignment may be available in some modules, but it could take various forms in the department and did not have a standard format. Some tutors might also make annotations or comments on students’ formative or summative assignments scripts, but again it was not standard—the handwriting may not be legible, and students might not collect their written scripts after assessments. Instead of collecting relevant artefacts, these types of feedback may be referred to in students’ interviews.

Dissertation feedback took place on a number of occasions, but supervisors’ marginal feedback on first drafts of the LR chapters seems the most useful for the study. Such feedback took only one iteration, and therefore all feedback comments on the first draft should be present in one document. Such documents could be collected from the participants as a source of information of tutors’ influences on students’ source use in LR drafting. In addition, end summative feedback reports of the dissertations were also likely to contain comments on source use, which was the focus of one out of six sections (Section 3.2.2). However, summative feedback at this very end stage of study could hardly count as a type of source use input, as students had already completed their study by that point. Feedback reports of dissertations were therefore only seen as an indication of participants’ source use ability at the final

stage, and a confirmation of markers' requirements of source use in LR chapters, but not core data for investigating leaning input on source use.

I did not use other possible methods in similar studies on source use, such as keeping diaries or learning logs, or conducting classroom observation. Diary writing was avoided mainly because of ethical concerns. The students already had a rather heavy workload during the year – they had subject courses to attend during term time, and coursework tasks at the end of each term. They also needed to cope with challenges in daily life of living in a foreign country. Writing regular additional diary entries on source use learning or the process of reading during writing coursework could have been a burden for the students. Similarly, classroom observation on how source use was taught to students was not practical in this study. Source use instruction was not provided in a particular session in one particular type of support, but dispersed across different EAP course sessions and subject courses. It would have been impossible to observe all the potential sessions in which participants took part. Further, observing the participants in small classes (e.g. the in-sessional EAP sessions usually contained around 14 students per class) could also have interrupted their learning routines and impacted negatively on the outcomes of learning.

3.2.3.4 Summary of the research methods

It is now useful to give a summary of the methods to be used, and the corresponding research questions that they intend to address (Table 3-1):

Table 3-1 Summary of research methods and research questions

Method	Corresponding RQ
Text analysis of assignments and LR chapters	RQ1 – What citation features do students use? (sub-RQs: Is there any change in their use of citation features at different stages of the study? Is there any difference between high and mid/low-scorers’ use of citations?)
Discourse-based interviews with students	RQ2 –What are the reasons for students’ use of certain citation features, and neglect of others?
Collection of materials used in the EAP programme, interview with an EAP programme leader, collection of feedback reports and student handbooks	RQ3 – What support do students receive on source use?
Semi-structured interviews with students Discourse-based interviews with students (on feedback comments they received)	RQ3 sub-RQ: how do students perceive the support they receive on source use?

Text analysis of participants’ assignments and the LR chapters of their dissertation first drafts will contribute to RQ1 (use of citation features in texts). Discourse-based interviews will mainly address RQ2 – students’ reasons for using certain citation features and neglecting others. Collection and analysis of artefacts, such as course materials and feedback reports, will help to answer RQ3 – the support students receive on source use. Semi-structured interviews with student participants, and the discourse-based interviews on students’ reactions to the feedback comments they received, will further contribute to the sub-question of RQ3 – how students perceive the support they receive on source use.

3.2.4 Sampling strategies of student participants

The sampling strategies of student participants followed more a *convenience sampling* approach and to a lesser extent a *purposive sampling* approach. I conducted the research in one particular department in an institution that I was familiar with, which was beneficial for gaining access to the research site and interpretation of the participants’ experiences (Ritchie, Lewis, & Elam, 2003). The next step included some selection according to the research objectives, i.e. features of purposive sampling (Palys, 2012). Regarding the nationality of participants, I excluded students of other nationalities in my sampling because the research site had predominantly Chinese students in its student population. Across UK institutions, Chinese students

also constitute the largest international student population (see the introduction chapter Section 1.1). In this way, I selected the most representative nationality group in the research site. It also provided a stronger basis for comparing source use in writing and learning source use among participants within one homogenous nationality group (as discussed in Section 2.6). Having the sample from the same nationality as myself also enabled beneficial power dynamics between the researcher and the participants (see Section 3.2.3.2), which could enhance the richness and trustworthiness of data.

Having decided the research site and the nationality of participants, further sampling strategy followed the approach of convenience sampling. Any Chinese students in the department interested in taking part in a study on source use were recruited as *volunteer sample* (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). To some extent, students who answered to the invitation to participate could arguably be considered as more motivated learners, those who were willing to learn about source use or to experience the research process. Such features might impact positively on participants' willingness to provide genuine and informative answers in interviews, but at the same time this could also be a limitation in the sampling strategy. Moreover, it was considered unnecessary and impossible to control participants' variation in their programmes of study, the specific tasks they undertook, age, and previous experience or other characteristics that could be explanatory of their individual source use experiences during the one-year programmes. For example, the types of academic tasks they wrote at each stage were difficult to control at the recruitment stage, because individual students' module options were unpredictable. Instead, such variables in the participant group may contribute to the richness of this in-depth case study.

Given the qualitative and in-depth nature of the study, the sample size should be kept to a small number to allow manageable workload. Ritchie, Lewis and Elam (2003) suggested *under 50* participants for a qualitative one-off (i.e. not longitudinal) interview study. This study involves multiple methods and multiple data collection points, so a manageable size should be much lower than 50. Similar studies on longitudinal development of source use have had sample sizes between three (Dong,

1996) and eight (Davis, 2014, the doctoral thesis). A similar sample size seems ideal, but it further depends on potential participants' responses to the recruitment, which will be explained in Section 3.5.

3.3 Existing frameworks of citation analysis

A number of frameworks for analysing citations have been identified in the Literature Review chapter. They are explained in more detail here, in order to inform the text analysis framework in this study. Within the discourse analysis tradition, the most prominent areas are citation forms, reporting structures and (rhetorical) functions of citations. Although two of the frameworks were aligned to *form* or *function*, the three areas are all about the relationship between the forms and functions of citations.

3.3.1 Swales' citation forms

The categorisation of integral and non-integral citation forms was first proposed by Swales (1990). In the APA convention, an integral citation is where the author's name and year are merged into the sentence, e.g. *Smith (2000) identified a number of citation categories*. A non-integral citation is where the author name and year are put in a bracket at the end of a sentence, e.g. *A number of citation categories have been identified (Smith, 2000)*. The two citation forms also indicate different rhetorical stances. It is widely accepted that integral citations put emphasis on the author, while non-integral citations highlight the propositional content (Hyland, 1999; Swales, 1990). For example, in the sample sentence above with integral citation, the writer wants to emphasise that *Smith (2000)* is the author/publication responsible for the creation of citation categories, and pays particular tribute to the author. In the above sentence with non-integral citation, the focus is on the fact that some categories have been identified, whereas the person/publication responsible for the content is of secondary importance. The writer simply mentions the source without putting the author/publication at a prominent place.

The citation form framework was an initial attempt at categorising citations from an applied linguistics perspective (Thompson & Tribble, 2001), and was widely used in following studies on citations (e.g. Hyland, 1999; Lee et al., 2018; Samraj, 2013). It has the virtue of being objective, without the need of human interpretation. It is also countable automatically with the aid of computers. However, its simplicity is also a

disadvantage. The binary categorisation can hardly address the variation in citation, or suggest the ideal form for the particular context (Thompson & Tribble, 2001). Later, Swales (2014) associated citation form more explicitly with its role in the context. With some qualitative examples from student essays, he claimed that too frequent use of non-integral citations implies the writer's tendency to present the propositional content as unquestioned fact, while integral citations allow more engagement with the sources. This, however, cannot be generalised in all situations. In fact, instead of indicating unquestioned fact, non-integral citations are often strategically used in research articles to show authorial agency. It seems that the citation form framework needs to be combined with other measures to be able to tell the rhetorical functions.

3.3.2 Thompson's citation typology

Based on Swales' (1990) binary categorisation, Thompson (2001) further proposed sub-categories based on 16 doctoral theses in agriculture. He divided integral citations into verb controlling type, e.g. "Smith (2000) proposed a theory...", and naming type, e.g. "Smith's (2000) theory". Non-integral citations were divided into four functions: source, identification, reference and origin. The explanations are as follow:

- Source: simply attribute the content to an author
- Identification: specify particular publications that the sentence has mentioned
- Reference: direct the reader to further information, typically with the use of *see*
- Origin: specify the originator of a theory or product

In this typology, two types of integral citations were divided according to the grammatical form of the citation, whereas the four categories of non-integral citations were the researcher's interpretation of citation roles in the text. The overall framework mixed grammatical form and potential functions performed, and it was an initial attempt at naming explicitly the functions citations can achieve. Its disadvantage is that the categories overlap. Integral citations can also perform some of the functions of non-integral citations listed here. For example, an integral citation can perform the function of *source*, that is simply attributing the content to a publication. Further, the framework did not indicate which forms or functions were more desirable or

appropriate in specific contexts. It appeared more to be simply a typology of citations. Further frameworks were needed for its use in pedagogic contexts.

3.3.3 Reporting structures

One particular type of integral citations, the *verb-controlling* type, reveals rich information about writer and author stance. The reporting structure has raised much attention, and its research include a number of overlapping approaches, e.g. Martin and White (2005) from the appraisal system, Thompson and Ye (1991) on the evaluative effects of reporting verbs, Thomas and Hawes (1994) with an addition of tenses and phrases in the reporting structure. A common area of interest among them is the writer's evaluative stance of the source, with the use of a reporting structure. Regarding the affective aspect, three types of writer stance towards the source content can be summarised: writer agreement, no clear signal/neutral, and writer disagreement (also see Hyland, 1999). Writer agreement phrases include e.g. *point out*, *demonstrate*, *establish*, writer neutral phrases include e.g. *according to*, *suggest*, *comment*, and writer disagreement phrases include e.g. *overlook*, *ignore*. For example, the following three sentences show writer agreement, writer neutral stance and writer disagreement, respectively:

1. Smith (2000) points out that citation is crucial for academic writing.
2. According to Smith (2000), citation is crucial for academic writing.
3. Smith (2000) overlooked the importance of citation in academic writing.

The reporting structures framework has the advantage of being objective, since each reporting structure indicates a stance among the three. However, it has been pointed out that the words alone cannot be decisive of the stance. Co-texts around the citation also need to be considered when analysing the writer's stance on the citation in a particular sentence (Brezina, 2012; Thomas & Hawes, 1994; Thompson & Ye, 1991). For example, the phrase "*as Smith (2000) usefully argues*" shows clear writer agreement, although the verb *argue* itself seems to have a neutral stance. Such co-texts preceding or following reporting verbs are also arguably part of the reporting structure.

Another limitation of the framework is that it only applies to the verb-controlling type of integral citation, but in fact, other types of citations can also achieve such rhetorical stance. As shown earlier (Section 2.4.4.3), devices such as adverbs in conjunction with reporting verbs and referring verbs such as *this* can all carry evaluative meaning. These devices can be used in both integral and non-integral citations. It appears that the evaluative categories of citations can have stronger analytical power if they are not limited to the use of reporting verbs.

3.3.4 Petrić's rhetorical functions

Petrić's (2007) framework of rhetorical functions of citations was developed based on P. Thompson's citation typology, and it has been widely used in studies in social sciences disciplines. Petrić (2007) proposed a total of nine rhetorical functions regardless of citation forms, based on a corpus of 16 Master's dissertations in gender studies. The functions were identified according to linguistic cues surrounding citations. These functions are:

- Attribution – the writer simply acknowledges the source, without any other function;
- Exemplification – use sources to give a particular example of a general statement, typically signposted by *for example* or *e.g.*;
- Further reference – guide the reader to more information in the original source;
- Statement of use – explain what theories will be used/have been used to what ends in the thesis, usually in introduction or conclusion;
- Comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources;
- Evaluation - reflect on another author's work using evaluative language, showing positive or negative evaluation;
- Establishing links between sources - can either differentiate sources by comparing them or point out similarities between sources by listing several sources together;
- Application - associate the referenced theories with the writer's own research or work
- Other

From Petrić (2007)

It can be seen that some categories clearly derive from earlier frameworks, but Petrić clarified the categories further and made them applicable to wider usages. For example, *attribution* is similar to the function *source* in Thompson's framework, but Petrić specified that this category excludes any other function. This prevents overlaps in analysis. The category *evaluation* includes cases of using evaluative reporting verbs, but it also includes cases of using other evaluative language devices.

This framework provides clear distinctions between categories and applies to both integral and non-integral citations. Compared with Thompson's citation typology and the reporting verbs frameworks above, Petrić's framework is more relevant to the context of this study because it is based on student writing in a social science subject. More importantly, it has strong implications in the pedagogic context. The categories suggest different levels of citation use abilities – the function *attribution* is the most basic, and other categories suggest more advanced rhetorical functions. As Petrić confirmed in her study, more frequent use of simple *attribution* was a feature of low-scoring students. This framework overall appears to be a useful starting point for the text analysis in this study.

3.4 The Pilot study

With a design of the main study envisaged, a pilot study was conducted to test the practicality of the design and to make necessary adjustments. The pilot study took place three months before the main study, from June to August 2016, when current MA students had finished all three terms of subject study and were writing up their dissertations. Participants were recruited through personal contact and department centralised emails. Four students (Alice, Betty, Cara and Dorothy) took part. I collected all of their assignments in Term 1 and 2 (three from each student) and their dissertations to pilot the practicality of the text analysis framework. This corpus size seemed large enough to identify problems in the framework design. I also piloted the practicality of the interview plans and practiced my interviewing techniques (Dörnyei, 2007). I conducted one discourse-based interview on assignment and one on dissertation chapters with Alice, Cara and Dorothy, but Betty was not willing to take part in the interviews. Because the pilot study was much shorter than the main study, not all interviews at all stages could be piloted. I was also aware that the corpus size

was smaller than that of the main study, and more issues could emerge in the main study. This section only reports key adjustments that informed the implementation of the main study. A full report of the pilot study is included in Appendix 7.

3.4.1 Adapting text analysis frameworks

Among the four frameworks discussed earlier, Petrić's framework of rhetorical functions of citations was primarily adopted for my analysis. Swales' citation forms framework was also used because it investigated a slightly different aspect of writer stance from Petrić's typology. In contrast, Thompson's (2001) citation function framework was excluded because it was further developed by Petrić (2007). The reporting verbs framework can be considered a sub-component of the function *evaluation* in Petrić's framework, and therefore was not used as a separate measurement.

I began to apply the two frameworks to the pilot corpus. As expected, Swales' framework did not provide interpretation issues, as the two categories were easily distinguished from the surface linguistic forms. Assigning affirmative/neutral/negative reporting phrases was sometimes difficult in students' texts. For example, the verb *claim* did not always indicate writer disagreement, as in the following excerpt from student assignment:

As Villamil and de Guerrero (2006) claim, it is essential for teachers to take students' cultural backgrounds and learning experiences into consideration when conducting peer feedback. (Betty, Term 1 optional module, hereafter T1 OM)

The surrounding texts clearly showed Betty's agreement with what the source proposed. This further supports the point that reporting phrases need to be considered together with the surrounding co-texts (Thomas & Hawes, 1994; Thompson & Ye, 1991). It is even more so with novice students' texts, since students are not always aware of the rhetorical stance that each reporting phrase carries. Therefore, *evaluation* cannot be coded by the use of reporting phrases alone. The meaning of the surrounding text is more important than the category the word belongs to. This decision was taken forward to my analysis of the main corpus.

Applying Petrić's (2007) rhetorical functions framework to the pilot corpus also encountered some difficulties. Only a few functions seemed to apply to the

participants' coursework. One main reason was that Petrić focused on whole dissertations, but this study focused on essays and one selected chapter from the dissertation. Some of the functions in Petrić's framework were only applicable to the dissertation, and could not be used in the assignment genre. For this study, in order to observe changes in source use features over the three stages (one sub-question of RQ1) and to ease the analysis process, a framework applicable to both assignment and the LR chapter appears more ideal. I therefore excluded the functions specific to dissertation writing, i.e. *comparison of one's own findings with other sources* and *application* from the overall text analysis, because they were both built on the premises of a student's own empirical research, which was not required in assignment writing.

Second, the *statement of use* function, i.e. specifying theories/frameworks to be used in the text, was difficult to assign. If judging by the feature of appearing in introduction and conclusion as an indication of what concept the writer adopts (Petrić, 2007), it had very low occurrences in my corpus data. Similar occasions, though, appeared at other parts of texts. For example:

According to Thornbury (2005), speech production contains 4 processes, namely, conceptualization, formulation, articulation and self-monitoring. Conceptualisation involves...At the formulation stage...Then articulation relates... The final stage is self-monitoring... The whole process of speech happen very fast...Therefore, automaticity is necessary for fluent speaking... (Alice, T2 OM)

This sentence appeared in the first paragraph of a two-paragraph section in the body part of the text. The student then explained the *four processes* of the concept *speech production* in the following sentences. The next paragraph was about automaticity in speaking, which was based on the previous concept of *speech production*. However, the whole discussion was too short to be evident of the function *statement of use*. In other instances, a concept could be implicitly mentioned again several sections after it was introduced, and such weak links made the function less evident. After all, novice writers are not always aware of this function or would not always signpost it clearly. I thus eliminated this function from my analysis framework due to the difficulties in assigning it and its rare occurrence in the pilot corpus.

The *establishing links between sources* function had the second highest occurrence (36 out of 301 citations in total) following *attribution* in the pilot corpus, and seemed a large category containing sub-categories. I then divided *links between sources* into *group citations* and *compare/contrast* (Xu, 2012), which were coded as one category in Petrić's (2007) framework. *Group citations* is putting several sources together in a bracket at the end of a sentence, which has been used for analysis in Hyland (1999) and Wette (2017). *Compare/contrast*, on the other hand, usually explicitly point out what the similarity or difference is between two or more sources. These two functions suggest students' different source use abilities, so the distinction was deemed necessary. Further, I merged *exemplification* and *further reference* into the overall function *establishing links between sources*, because these functions also indicate the link between the single exemplified source and the wider body of literature. These two functions both had low occurrences in the pilot corpus.

A further issue emerged regarding what should be classified as links between sources. In the pilot corpus, some citations were not directly and rhetorically linked to each other, but semantic links between the citations' propositional content could still be found. Very often, students referred to two aspects of the same concept and used two separate citations. A typical example is the structure: *One disadvantage of product A is ... (Author X). Another disadvantage of product A is ... (Author Y)*. The two citations are not directly linked to each other through compare and contrast, but the two sentences are connected. Another example in the pilot corpus is:

The concept of metacognitive strategies is derived from the theory of metacognition, a term firstly invented by **Flavell (1979)** to describe the mental process of realizing and controlling cognitive processes engaged in learning. According to **Vandergrift (1997b)**, metacognitive strategies involve the planning, monitoring, evaluation and problem identification of listening. (Cara LR)

The two citations here are indirectly linked to each other by commenting on the same concept, but this relationship is not present in any other sub-categories of *links between sources*. At the pilot stage, I created an additional category *semantic links* to account for such instances. However, when I discussed some of these examples with a PhD colleague, we often could not reach an agreement on whether an example should be coded as *semantic links*. Arguably, each sentence is expected to link coherently to

its surrounding sentences, with or without citations. This is therefore not a feature specific to citations. I thus eliminated this sub-category in my main analysis.

The *evaluation* category contains reporting phrases showing clear writer agreement/disagreement, and other evaluative language such as "...is an ingenious way" (Petrić, 2007, p.245). I further divided *evaluation* into *positive evaluation* and *negative evaluation*, because the balance between positive and negative stance is an interesting topic in novice students' source use (see Section 2.4.4.2 and 2.4.4.3). *Positive evaluation* is agreeing and taking the position, but *negative evaluation* suggests criticism or objection to the position. Reporting structures showing no clear signal or neutral stance were categorised as simple *attribution* in Petrić's (2007) term.

3.4.2 Additional citation features

Apart from citations forms and rhetorical functions, it appeared interesting to investigate features that are reported to be typical among novice academic writers. Instances of *no citation* and *extensive citations* were found to be prominent in the pilot corpus data. It appeared worthwhile to analyse such instances.

No citation (Shi, 2010) is defined as the writer omitting the source when referencing is expected by the reader. Arguably, identifying whether a citation should be used is problematic and may depend on the writer and audience's knowledge (Section 2.4.2). However, some clear instances of *no citation* were found in the pilot corpus, and I regarded it as important and useful to count such instances in order to understand how often students acknowledge sources. For example:

Chinese learners who translate modal verbs to their first language, will finally find the fact that there is not enough corresponding Chinese specific words to help them distinguish one from another. (Cara T1 OM)

In this excerpt, since the comment on Chinese learners' translation process contains specific information, the audience would expect some evidence to support the claim. However, no citation is provided. It is likely that Cara made this assumption based on her personal experience.

Another example is:

From mid-nineteenth century, a growing number of opportunities for communication for Europeans asks for oral proficiency in foreign languages thus the key point of teaching turns to communicative skills... From the 1950s to the 1960s, the Audio-Lingual Method and the Situational Method emerged, then were both replaced by Communicative Approach. (Dorothy T1 CM)

Here, specific terminologies were referred to, such as the Audio-Lingual Method, the Situational Method and the Communicative Approach, and the sentence gave specific information on when they became prominent. However, the content was not attributed to any source. It was unknown where the content came from – yet it was clearly not the student's original ideas.

On the other hand, students often need to introduce or summarise ideas of other authors without referring to them in the introduction or conclusion part of their essays. Such instances should not be considered as *no citation*, but simply introduction or conclusion. Similarly, the topic sentence of a paragraph can also be an introductory sentence of the content to follow. If the following content is referenced, the topic sentence should not be considered as *no citation*. Therefore, it is important to closely analyse the surrounding sentences in identifying these instances.

The other novice writer's feature was extensive citations. *Extensive citations* (Swales, 1990) refers to the writer employing long stretches of texts on one single source. I defined an *extensive citation* as one single source occupying four or more consecutive sentences. An example is the student excerpt in the above discussion on *statement of use* function, where the student explained the four processes in detail according to the same source. Instances of *extensive citations* can be purely descriptive, where the lengthy citation has no specific role in the text; or they can be purposeful, where the text requires detailed description of a source as a basis for links to other sources or evaluation later on. However, telling whether an extensive citation is purely descriptive or purposeful is difficult in text analysis alone, as this would need to come from an in-depth understanding of the whole text and the task requirement. Attempting to make such judgements in the text analysis would greatly increase the workload, which might further jeopardise the main focus on understanding students' citation features and patterns in RQ1. Instead, interpretations of this can be achieved by asking the students in discourse-based interviews, as they may be more familiar with their whole texts and their writing tasks than the

researcher. Here, not being able to distinguish extensive citations that were purely descriptive from those that were purposive in the text analysis could be a limitation of this study, but it was due to practical concerns about the workload.

3.4.3 Finalised text analysis frameworks

This section sums up the final decisions on the text analysis framework used in this study. Regarding rhetorical functions of citations, I kept the categories *attribution*, *links between sources* and *evaluation* in Petrić's (2007) framework. I categorised links between sources further into three sub-categories: *group citations*, *compare/contrast*, and *exemplification/further reference*. I categorised evaluation further into *positive evaluation* and *negative evaluation*. The overall framework of rhetorical functions of citations in this study is summarised in Table 3-2 below.

Table 3-2 Adapted framework of rhetorical functions of citations

Citation Category	Sub-category	Explanation	Example from the pilot corpus
Attribution	-	No other citation functions such as links between sources or evaluation can be recognised. The writer simply acknowledges the source	English native speakers often use lexicosemantic, syntactic and acoustic-phonetic information to help them segment speech in daily life (Sanders and Neville, 2000). (Cara T2A2)
Links between sources	Group citations	Several sources are put together in a bracket at the end of a sentence	Due to the uncertain components of the FLCAS, research has been conducted to seek its underlying factors using factor analysis (Aida, 1994; Liu and Jackson, 2008; Mak, 2011; Park, 2014). (Alice LR)
	Compare/ Contrast	Pointing out specifically the similarity or differences between sources	MacIntyre (1999) defined FLA in general as “the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language” (p.27). Young (1992) expressed FLA as... Both of their definitions regard FLA as a distinct kind of anxiety specific to foreign language learning, which is in line with the view of Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) that FLA ... is not “simply the combination of these fears...” (p. 128). (Alice LR)
	Exemplification/ further reference	Using one source as an example of a larger body of literature	There are conflicting results indicating that FLA could play a positive role in Second Language Anxiety. For example, Park and French’s (2013) study showed that...(Alice LR)
Evaluation	Positive evaluation	Using positive evaluative expressions, e.g. demonstrate, point out, usefully, reasonable	Reppen (2010) pointed out that the corpus allowed language learners to master the knowledge deeper and longer as they manipulate language when using the corpus. (Alice T1A1)
	Negative evaluation	Using negative evaluative expressions, e.g. neglected, biased	None in the pilot corpus

It should be noted that one citation can have two or more functions, following Petrić's (2007) definition of rhetorical functions. The *attribution* category stands alone and would not co-occur with any other function, because by definition the function implies that no further function is employed. In contrast, all other categories or sub-categories of functions may be applicable to the same citation. For example, the format “(e.g. *Author X 2000; Author Y, 2001*)” uses both the *group citations* function and the *exemplification/further reference* function. Similarly, a citation can have both

positive and *negative evaluation* on the source’s propositional content. Therefore, the percentages of each citation function in a text might not add up to 100%.

The additional framework of novice writers’ citation features consists of two categories: *no citation* and *extensive citations*. These are summarised in table 3-3 below.

Table 3-3 Framework of novices’ citation features

Citation Category	Explanation	Example from the pilot corpus
No citation	No citation is acknowledged when it is expected: e.g. specific content not supported by references	...learners, especially Chinese learners who translate modal verbs to their first language, will finally find the fact that there is not enough corresponding Chinese specific words to help them distinguish one from another. (Cara T1A1)
	e.g. specific terminologies are mentioned without reference to any source	From the 1950s to the 1960s, the Audio-Lingual Method and the Situational Method emerged, then were both replaced by Communicative Approach. (Dorothy T1A1)
	e.g. specific studies are mentioned without reference to any source	Another similar study conducted among 252 Japanese EFL learners (75males and 177 females) came to the same conclusion that no significant gender effect on FLA was found. (Alice LR)
Extensive citations	Four or more consecutive sentences are about the same single source	Hunston (2002) classified corpora into eight types, namely, general corpus, specialised corpus, comparable corpora, parallel corpora, learner corpus, pedagogic corpus, historical corpus and monitor corpus. A general corpus is a collection of a variety of texts in a given language. A specialized corpus is a corpus of texts from a particular area... Comparable corpora means... Parallel corpora is... A learner corpus is ... A pedagogic corpus includes... A historical corpus... (nine sentences consecutively, 340 words in total) (Alice T1A1)

3.4.4 Piloting interviews

As a result of piloting the discourse-based interviews, some adjustments appeared to be necessary. The main difficulty emerged in selecting source use items from student texts for the discourse-based interviews. Due to ethical concerns, I tried to keep each interview within one hour in order to limit the burden on students. However, in this limited time I could not ask participants about their reasoning behind every single citation in their texts. In addition, asking repetitive questions on each citation could

lead to participants' boredom and a lack of motivation to continue in the interviews (Cohen et al., 2013). I therefore needed to select some citations from the whole text to question students. At the pilot stage, I selected features identified to be important in Chapter 2 Section 2.4, such as integral/ non-integral citations, reporting structures, evaluative devices on sources, synthesising devices of sources. It turned out that questions about most of these features generated informative answers from the participants about their source use rationales. In contrast, citations without any recognisable rhetorical functions other than attributing the content to an author (simple *attribution* in the text analysis) were less likely to generate informative answers, because they indicated the writer's lack of conscious awareness regarding their citation choices. For example, Cara repeatedly gave this type of answer: "Because it coincides with what I want to express" when asked about the reasons for her citations. It was thus clear that it would be more appropriate to focus questions mainly on citations with functions other than simple *attribution* in the discourse-based interviews.

Further, there were some issues with the questioning technique in the pilot study. Sometimes when I asked, "What's the purpose of this citation here?", the participant gave long explanation of the content of that source. Such answers contributed little to knowing their understanding of the rhetorical functions of citations. It seems important to instruct participants to comment on the ways they used citations, and to avoid commenting on the subject content. Further, some of my questions in the interviews contained the rhetorical functions I interpreted from students' texts. The participants then only confirmed my interpretation. This was likely to be a result of my leading questions, and may not have led to the participant's real intentions. A solution to this was to consistently use neutral, non-leading vocabulary in the question prompt.

I also piloted the semi-structured interview, where participants were invited to comment on their progress in learning source use and the input they received. I identified a few irrelevant or less informative questions and excluded them in my interview protocol. For example, questions about participants' satisfaction with the marks they received led to answers on overall performance instead of on source use in

particular. I therefore either eliminated such questions or made them more specific. Another improvement I made was to prepare more probing questions according to participants' answers. For example, some participants tended to give short answers about institutional input, but at the pilot stage I was not familiar enough with the range of input to ask probing questions. I therefore identified several types of input relevant to my research objectives, and built into the interview protocol probing questions ready for cases where participants reported on such input. This was done in order to obtain detailed data that could best inform answers to RQ3.

Another adjustment was about how biographical information about the participants could be best gathered. Originally, I planned to gather information about students' previous experience in academic writing and source use during the first semi-structured interview. After piloting, I realised that this was too much for one interview. A separate baseline interview appeared necessary at the beginning of the study, which is also a type of semi-structured interview. This should be scheduled not long after students' enrolment onto the programme. Considering logistic issues of students settling into the department and time for participant recruitment, this was then scheduled to take place no later than the end of Term 1. Since participants had already begun their programme learning, this baseline interview also queried participants about the source use input they had already received by that time.

3.5 Implementation of the main study

3.5.1 Time frame of data collection

The recruitment of the main study participants began in October 2016, at the beginning of their MA study. Department centralised emails were sent to all the MA students with the recruitment information and my contact details. The total number of students enrolled on a MA TESOL programme in the academic year of 2016-2017 was 113. To have the opportunity of face-to-face contacts with potential participants, I also made a few visits to the DEL courses with permission from the tutors. I spent 2 minutes before the beginning of classes to briefly talk about my research project and encouraged the students to take part. Finally, ten students agreed to take part in this study. An overall summary of the research timeline is in Table 3-4 below.

Table 3-4 A summary of the research time frame

Stage of the study	Time (MM/YYYY)	Activities
The pilot study	06 – 08/ 2016	-Analyse four pilot participants’ texts to refine the text analysis framework -Interview three pilot participants about one assignment and the LR chapter to polish interview skills
Recruitment and baseline interviews	10 – 12/ 2016 (end of Term 1)	-Recruit main study participants -Conduct a baseline (semi-structured) interview with each participant
Stage 1	02 – 03/2016 (end of Term 2)	-Interview participants about the source use input they received at that stage, and their source use in one of their Term 1 assignment (produced in 11 – 12/2016) and the corresponding mark and feedback (available only after term 2 week 7)
Stage 2	05 – 06/2016 (end of Term 3)	- Interview participants about the source use input they received at that stage, and their source use in Term 2 assignment (produced in 03 – 04/2016) and the corresponding mark and feedback (available only after term 3 week 7)
Stage 3	08 – 09/2016 (The dissertation writing-up stage)	-Interview participants about their near submission/ submitted LR chapters (with supervisors’ feedback comments on the first draft)
Collecting supplementary data	Throughout the year	-Interview one EAP programme leader to understand EAP tutors’ perspective of the source use input they provide -Organise artefacts

As shown in the table, the baseline interviews took place at the end of Term 1, when I gathered the participants’ biographical information and their perceptions of the input they received at that stage. During Term 1 vacation, each student wrote two assignments. I asked the students to select one out of the two assignments for the discourse-based interview, which was scheduled near the end of Term 2. This was because marks and feedback for Term 1 assignments were only available in Week 7 of Term 2. In this way, students’ views of the feedback comments on source use can be incorporated in the interviews, which form an important part of RQ3. Another consideration for the timing was to avoid potential anxiety caused by discussing the work while the students were still anticipating the mark. These benefits of waiting for the assessment outcomes outweighed the disadvantage of students’ memory attrition after the period of 7 weeks. These steps were repeated for stage 2. During Term 2

vacation, each student wrote one assignment, which formed the material for the discourse-based interview later on near the end of Term 3.

Interviews about the LR chapters were conducted when students were about to submit their completed work (or immediately after submission) but before the students left the UK. Similar to previous stages, I questioned the participants about their source use in the LR chapter. At this stage, I also collected from the participants their supervisors' marginal comments on their first drafts (available electronically) and asked about the participants' perceptions on these in the discourse-based interviews.

3.5.2 Participants' profile

Table 3-5 below summarises the participants' biographical information, including age, undergraduate degree and current MA programme, university ranking of undergraduate institutions, and IELTS score. This information will be useful for interpreting the results later.

All of the ten participants were female, mainland Chinese students, and completed a bachelor's degree in English-related subjects in China before coming to the UK. Their ages ranged from 22 to 27. Eight of the participants progressed straight from undergraduate degree to postgraduate study without full-time working experience, but most had undertaken part-time roles related to English language teaching or translation. Two participants, Elsa and Fiona, had worked as full-time teachers in training institutions. In terms of the degree programme, nine participants were studying MA in TESOL during this research study, and one (Fiona) was studying the Applied Linguistics programme. Seven participants had taken more than one attempt at the IELTS test. Their IELTS scores in all attempts ranged from 5.5 (Kim) to 7.5 (Isabel) for overall, and 5.5 (Lucy and Kim) to 7 (Fiona) for writing. Most of them had lower scores in writing than the overall score. Most participants had reached the departmental MA TESOL programme entrance requirement (IELTS 7 overall with a minimum of 6.0 in Writing and no less than 6.0 in all other components) by the time of this study (October 2016). Three participants (Isabel, Kim and Lucy) had attended pre-sessional EAP courses.

Table 3-5 Participants' biographical information

Pseudonym	Age	Type of UG institution in China ³	UG Major	MA Major	IELTS score	Pre-session (Y/N)
Elsa	25	Tier 2	English Language	TESOL	Overall 7, writing 6, taken 12/2015 (MM/YYYY)	N
Fiona	27	Tier 2	English Language	Applied Linguistics	Overall 7, writing 7, taken 05/2015	N
Helena	23	Tier 1	English Language	TESOL	Highest overall 7, writing 6, taken 08/2015 Lowest overall 6.5, writing 6, taken 12/2015	N
Isabel	22	Tier 1	English Language	TESOL	Highest overall 7.5, writing 6, taken 08/2015 Lowest overall 7, writing 5.5, taken in 2014	Y
Jennifer	22	Tier 1	Advanced Translation	TESOL	Highest overall 7, writing 6.5, taken 08/2015 Lowest overall 7, writing 6, taken 01/2016	N
Kim	24	Vocational School, transferred to bachelor's	Business English/management	TESOL	Highest overall 6.5, writing 6, taken 03/2016 Lowest overall 5.5, writing 5.5, taken 07/2015	Y
Lucy	22	Tier 3	English Language	TESOL	Highest overall 7, writing 6, taken 01/2015 Lowest overall 7, writing 5.5, taken 09/2015	Y
Mina	22	Tier 2	English Language	TESOL	Highest overall 7, writing 6.5, taken 08/2014 Lowest overall 7, writing 6, taken 08/2015	N
Naomi	23	985/211 (higher Tier1)	English Language and Literature	TESOL	Highest overall 7, writing 6.5, taken 08/2015 Lowest overall 6.5, writing 6, taken 01/2015	N
Olivia	23	Tier 2	English for Education	TESOL	Overall 7, writing 6, taken 10/2015	N

³ This is categorised according to the university's set entrance mark for CEE (College Entrance Exam) when recruiting students. Top tiers (e.g. Tier 1) indicate higher entrance mark, which also indicate higher quality of the institution.

The baseline interviews also indicated that overall the participants had few experiences of academic writing before coming to the UK. Their undergraduate degree programmes in English-related majors in China usually required substantial writing in English language, but it was rarely in academic genres. The participants rarely wrote source-based essays in their subject learning, not even in Chinese language. This confirms the overall documentation of Chinese learners' educational background in previous literature (Section 1.4.3). Their assessments were mainly carried out in the format of written exams. The only exceptional occasion that all participants reported was writing the thesis (typically 4,000 to 6,000 words) for which undergraduate degree was awarded. For most participants, this was the only piece of academic writing task that involved source use during their undergraduate study (except for Lucy and Olivia). The thesis genre required source use, but the exact requirements were not clearly known to the participants. Only Lucy, Isabel and Mina reported that their undergraduate institutions or their tutors had basic requirements on referencing formats, avoiding plagiarism, and source searching. Participants' self-reported understanding of source use during undergraduate study rarely went beyond these aspects. Overall, the participants regarded their undergraduate thesis task in China as having far less rigorous requirements than academic writing tasks in the UK. As previous research shows (e.g. Abasi, Akbari, & Graves, 2006), such previous experience in academic writing would have impact on L2 students' source use in Anglophone universities.

The participants' coursework marks awarded by subject tutors were considered to be indicators of perceived quality of their academic writing, and these were used to explore the relationships between marks and source use (one sub-question of RQ1). As shown earlier (Section 3.2.2), the department gives the following description of mark ranges: Distinction (above 70), merit (60-69), pass (50-59), marginal fail (40-49), clear fail (below 40). Participants' average marks during the year are listed here in Table 3-6. These were calculated by each participants' three assignments (except for four for Fiona who was on an Applied Linguistics programme) and the dissertation mark.

Table 3-6 Participants' average marks

High-scorers (65-70)	Olivia 70.6	Naomi 70.5	Fiona 67.4	Elsa 65.8	Jennifer 65.3
Mid- scorers (60-62)	Helena 61.3	Lucy 60.0			
Low-scorers (45-55)	Mina 53.0	Isabel 48.3	Kim 46.7		

The participants can be categorised into three groups: High-scorers (average mark 65-70, Olivia, Naomi, Fiona, Elsa, Jennifer); mid-scorers (60-62, Helena and Lucy), and low-scorers (45-55, Mina, Isabel and Kim). The two mid-scorers in this study were only four or five points below the lowest high-scorers, and their marks are still considered to be *merit* scores. With this way of grouping, comparisons of citation features were therefore possible between the five high-scoring students and the five mid/low-scoring students, and each group would then have an equal number of students with a similar number of texts for comparison. Since the two mid-scorers in this study were still relatively highly performing students, any difference in citation features found between the high- and mid-/low-scorer groups could further strengthen the evidence of group difference.

Most participants' marks at the three stages varied to some extent and were not always stable. Some participants gained increasing marks across the year. Mina and Kim who had a clear fail mark in Term 1 (hereafter T1) both received a pass mark in T2, and Mina further achieved a merit for dissertation. Naomi scored about 20 points higher in T2 (high distinction) than T1 (merit) and achieved a distinction mark as well in dissertation. Elsa had relatively stable merit marks in the first two terms and achieved distinction in dissertation. In contrast, some participants were not able to maintain a high mark throughout. Fiona and Jennifer's marks dropped from distinction marks in T1 to only pass marks in T2, and their dissertation marks remained at the merit level. Helena and Lucy also showed inconsistency. They had about 10 points' difference in their two assignments in T1 (one merit and one pass). Their T2 marks remained within a similar range to the T1 assignment, and Helena later raised her score to a distinction mark for her dissertation.

3.5.3 Textual data

In total, ten assignments in Term 1 (five from optional modules and five from compulsory modules), nine assignments in Term 2 (eight optional and one compulsory), and nine LR chapters of the dissertation were collected from ten participants. The missing two texts were due to the fact that Kim failed three modules and did not reach the minimum requirements for progressing into the dissertation stage; Olivia took the optional module (hereafter OM) Quantitative and Qualitative Data Analysis in Term 2, the assessment of which was not in the documented essay format, and thus Olivia did not produce any assignment in Term 2. Information about the texts collected is summarised in Table 3-7 below.

As mentioned earlier (Section 3.2.2), the majority of subject modules in the department used the documented essay genre for summative assessment, which assessed “informed and independent reasoning” (Nesi & Gardner, 2012, p.36). The prompts for such tasks varied in length and the amount of detail. They usually contained several component parts, with instruction words that required description (e.g. present, describe) and discussion (e.g. critical examine, discuss), or application of theories into practice of teaching (e.g. how...can be used in the classroom). Some prompts also specified the desired type of materials to be discussed. Several examples are given here:

- How does an understanding of the theories behind the product approach, process approach and genre approach help a writing teacher to be most effective in the classroom? (Elsa and Naomi, T1 CM)
- Describe several methods of modern psycholinguistics (two or three) and discuss how they have enhanced our understanding of language and / or language learning. (Isabel, T2 OM)
- Discuss the application of a piece of software, a website, a game or an app in an educational context. Your assignment should a) focus on a specific educational context, b) discuss the potential affordances and drawbacks of the piece of software, the website, the game or the app in that context with reference to relevant educational theory and research, and c) reflect on some relevant case studies in which this technology has been used. (Olivia, T1 CM)

Two of the assignments collected were slightly different from the other tasks. The optional module *Practice of English Language Teaching*, which Lucy and Mina took in Term 2, asked students to write a commentary on a lesson that they designed

and delivered. They needed to use academic sources to support and explain the rationale for their design and implementation of the lesson. This was a reflective account, not a typical argument-based essay. The length required was 2,500 words, shorter than common assignments in other modules. I still decided to keep such types of assignments in my text analysis in order to retain the longitudinal cases of Lucy and Mina. This situation also reflects the diverse academic task types that students encounter in a naturalistic higher education context, which is important to document, and which can impact on the nature of source use requirements.

Table 3-7 Profile of the corpus

Participant	Term 1 assignment for analysis	Term 2 assignment	LR chapter of the Dissertation
Elsa	4,583 words CM TESOL Methods (chosen topic: writing)	4,520 words OM Teaching and Assessing Speaking Skills	LR: 2,619 words Topic: Academic writing Problems and feedback
Fiona	3,741 words OM Teaching and Assessing Writing Skills	4,320 words CM Teaching and Learning Language	LR: 2,841 words Topic: Vocabulary consolidation strategies by Chinese university students
Helena	4,693 words CM TESOL Methods (vocabulary)	4,889 words OM Psychology of Language and Language Learning	LR: 3,572 words Topic: MA students' lexical diversity in speaking
Isabel	4,097 words OM Bilingualism	4,339 words OM Psychology of Language and Language Learning	LR: 4,098 words Topic: Using Educational Technology in the University EFL Classroom
Jennifer	5,144 words OM Teaching World Englishes	5,187 words OM Pragmatics: Language, Meaning and Communication	LR: 3,060 words Topic: Chinese EFL students' vocabulary learning strategies
Kim	3,676 words CM TESOL Methods (culture)	4,890 words OM Testing and Assessment in English Language Teaching	N/A *Kim failed three modules and was not allowed to continue with the dissertation task.
Lucy	3,834 words OM Teaching World English	2,277 words OM The Practice of English Language Teaching	LR: 2,208 words Topic: Offline and Online Reading Strategies
Mina	4,521 words OM Bilingualism	2,552 words OM The Practice of English Language Teaching	LR: 2,485 words Topic: Incidental Vocabulary Learning – a partial replication study
Naomi	4,570 words CM TESOL Methods (writing)	4,893 words OM Psychology of Language and Language Learning	LR: 2,472 words Topic: Logical Connectors in Academic Writing using corpus analysis
Olivia	4,052 words CM TESOL Methods (technology)	*N/A No assignment produced in Term 2	LR: 2,024 words Topic: the effect of task complexity on L2 postgraduate students' oral production

The modules here covered a diverse range of topics in language learning-related subjects. As discussed earlier, these modules may have slightly different disciplinary positioning (Section 2.2.1). For example, in the departmental module handbook, one module aim of the OM *Psychology of Language and Language Learning* was to “draw implications from research findings for how language comprehension...can be facilitated in educational contexts”. In contrast, OM Teaching World English required students to “engage critically with the current debates regarding questions of standard and variety in English and how they relate to the construction of national and individual identities”. The former focuses on “research findings”, whereas the latter focuses on critical engagement with “debates”. Using the hard-soft disciplinary dimensions, the former OM might be regarded as *harder* than the latter OM. This sub-disciplinary difference will be relevant in interpreting students’ source use in their various and different modules later.

Regarding artefact data of the feedback students received on their coursework, all feedback reports for the assignments investigated were collected. An analysis of these reports will be presented in Section 6.3.4. For dissertations, eight Word Document files containing supervisors’ marginal feedback on participants’ first draft LR chapters were collected (except for Kim who did not write the dissertation; Isabel who could not locate the feedback file). These will be used to elicit participants’ reactions to such types of feedback as a source of input (Section 6.3.4.2). A further six participants (Elsa, Fiona, Helena, Jennifer, Mina, Naomi) sent me their summative feedback reports of dissertations two months after they submitted their dissertations; the other participants could not be contacted at this time or were not able to find their reports. Since these reports were not a complete set, it seemed sensible to only use them for triangulation with other findings - this will mainly come up in Section 5.2.3 for triangulation with participants’ intentions of using extensive citations in the LR chapter. Dissertation feedback reports are also an indicator of participants’ source use abilities at the very end of the study, which will feature in participants’ individual case reports in Appendix 10.

3.5.4 Interview instruments

Some practicalities of the interview method have been mentioned before (Section 3.2.3.2 and Section 3.4.4), and this section summarises the specific instruments used in the main study interviews. For the baseline interview at the end of Term 1, questions were asked about students' previous experience in writing, academic writing and current progress in the programme study. These revealed issues such as their motivation of study, level of academic achievement at the time of the interview, and initial experience of academic enculturation in the UK institution. These issues may be related to their later performance in source use. After piloting, consulting with my supervisor and modifying the protocol several times, I reached a final version for the main study baseline interview (Appendix 3). A baseline interview took 20 minutes on average.

The later interviews near the end of Term 2, the end of Term 3, and during the dissertation stage (DS) after Term 3 all involved a semi-structured part and a discourse-based part. Each interview took about one hour in total. For the semi-structured part, questions were asked about source use input and how they produced the text in that term. For source use input, I asked the overall question "During this term, what have you learned about source use?" I also probed about the form of input by asking e.g. "Can you explain more about this experience? How did it help you in writing the assignment?". This question generated more answers in earlier interviews than later interviews, since most of the substantial learning of source use took place in Term 1 and Term 2. The question on the writing process helped to understand the context of writing. It may also elicit issues at the reading stage that may help explain source use. To sum up, the questions on source use input contributed to RQ 3 (input about source use), while the question on writing process may contribute to RQ2 (reasons for using source use features).

Questions for the discourse-based interviews came from the results of text analysis. Before the interviews, I highlighted interesting citation features in participants' texts. At least one instance of citation from each text analysis category was selected to query the participants, if such a citation was present. More focus was given to citations that seemed to perform more functions than simple *attribution*,

because these were more likely to generate information on participants' understanding of more complex rhetorical functions (one outcome of the pilot interviews in Section 3.4.4). I also highlighted instances of *no citation* and *extensive citations* and asked the participants' reasons for using these features. Further, at least one instance of integral and one instance of non-integral citation were questioned in each interview because of their importance in the literature. Questions about all these features had proven effectiveness in the pilot study (Section 3.4.4). Typical questions to query students' citation choice were "Why did you use this citation in this way?" "What is the role of this citation here?" (similar to those used in Petrić & Harwood, 2013), in order to keep the questions open-ended. However, if the student seemed at a loss with such general question, I then prompted with some features of the citation use, for example "The author name is at the end of the sentence in brackets – was there any reason for putting it in this way?", or "Why did you use 'claim' here when reporting what the author said?". I also highlighted the feedback comments related to source use and asked the students to comment on them, e.g. "What do you think of this feedback comment? What do you understand about it? How can it be useful to you?" The full interview protocol I used is included in Appendix 4.

3.5.5 Ethics

The study obtained ethical approval from my institution before recruiting the participants. A detailed ethics audit form of the study and informed consent sheets aimed at student and tutor participants were submitted. The researcher's supervisor, the researcher's Thesis Advisory Panel member, and a member of the department's Ethics Committee had all viewed the proposed ethics documents and gave suggestions for amendment before approving them. All the student and tutor participants signed the informed consent sheets before their first interview.

Efforts were made to avoid harm to students taking part in the study, and to ensure that they gained some benefits for the time they devoted to the project, following general ethical guidelines in educational research (Cohen et al., 2013). For example, interruption of the students' learning routine was kept to a minimum. The baseline interview took 20 minutes, and each interview in the following terms was kept within one hour. Methods that might place extra burden on the students or

interrupt in-class learning were avoided in the design of the study. The interviews around assignments were carried out after the marks were made available, in order to reduce students' anxiety in talking about their work. It was also promised in the informed consent that their work would not be used for any other purposes than writing up my doctoral thesis and further publication.

The students were offered some benefits in return by taking part in the research. The discourse-based interview questions could raise students' awareness of citation use and the potential roles citations achieve in texts. Highlighting feedback entries related to source use and asking students to comment on them also prolonged students' reflection on their work and their consideration of the markers' expectation. Further, because taking part in one baseline interview and three one-hour discourse-based interviews over the year was a lot of commitment, a monetary reward of 10 GBP was given to each participant at the end of the study to appreciate the time they gave. This incentive was also intended to keep participants involved in the study and to reduce drop-out rates during the study.

Sometimes there can be an ethical dilemma. When there were evident problems in students' writing, it was finally decided to not give direct, conclusive comments on those issues. Although addressing these problems could be beneficial to the students, my opinion on the issues might not be identical with the staff in the department, which could cause further confusion for the students. Pointing out such issues might also cause distress to the student. To keep the students motivated about their work, the language used in the main study interviews was kept as positive as possible. After each interview, the students were given chances to ask any questions related to their work or study in general. I pointed to the students the resources available to them and encouraged them to consult them. For instance, Mina showed frustration about not understanding her T1 OM feedback comments and asked for any suggestions I might have. I encouraged her to contact the marker for the possibility of a face-to-face meeting to clarify feedback comments, which she followed later on. As will be shown later, this contact with the marker in part helped Mina to understand the task requirement of that module (Section 6.3.2). This can be considered as an example of fruitful advice, prompted by the participant's own willingness to seek support.

3.6 Data analysis

An earlier section on the pilot study has explained the complex procedures of designing and adapting the text analysis frameworks used in this study (Section 3.4.1 and Section 3.4.2), and these frameworks have been finalised (Section 3.4.3). Hence, Section 3.6.1 here will only report practical steps of the text analysis procedure. This will be followed by approaches to interview data analysis in Section 3.6.2.

3.6.1 Text analysis procedure

In the main study corpus, I firstly counted the number of citations, and integral and non-integral citations. I also counted the number of references in the reference list of each text. I used an online Regular Expression searching tool (<https://regexr.com/3dl04>) to automatically detect integral and non-integral citations. The use of the online tool is because automatic citation detection is currently not available in most of the widely used corpus tools. I used the formula `\(D*d{4}(;D*d{4})*\)` to detect integral or non-integral citation forms (created by Sasha Cuerda, in Graham, 2016); I then used a simplified formula `\(d{4}\)` for 4 digits in a bracket, which lead to expressions like *(1990)* that identify as integral citations.

Figure 3-2 is a screen capture of the integral citation search output. As shown in the blue button on the top right corner of the page, the number is counted automatically. I then manually checked the whole text to identify irregular citation formats such as “(2003a)”, or “(Johns, 2003, p.201)”, and noted down their occurrences to be included in the final number. Non-integral citations were calculated by the total citation number subtracted by integral citation number, followed by another manual check of the text. The results were then exported and saved on the

local drive.

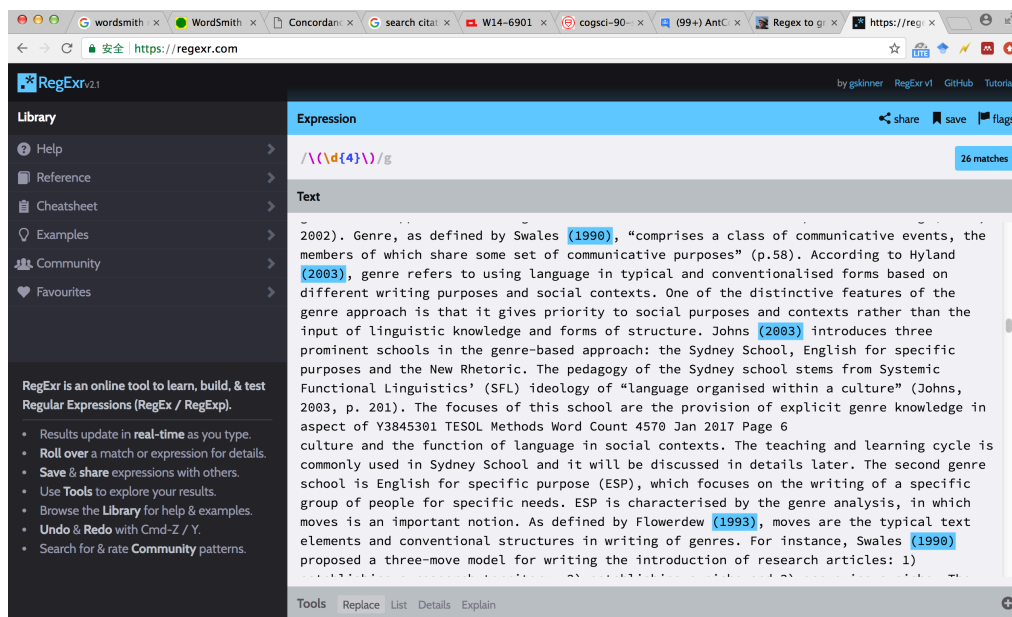


Figure 3-2 Screen capture of automatic integral citation searching

Unlike citation forms, categories in the rhetorical function framework and the novices' feature framework (see Section 3.4.3) could only be coded manually. A tool was necessary for managing the texts and the manual coding progress. I used NVivo 11 (the widely used qualitative data analysis software) to do this, because it supports simple coding and frequency counts of codes.

Nvivo 11 was also used for interview data analysis later. Storing the texts and interview data together in one software saved efforts in programme management. To avoid confusion among text analysis and interview data analysis, I imported the written texts and discourse-based/semi-structured interview transcripts into two separate NVivo projects. The procedures for analysing texts and interviews were therefore separate.

3.6.2 Interview data analysis

All of the interviews were audio recorded in a quiet environment and transcribed in full by the researcher for analysis. As I was only interested in the content of the interviews, I did not include non-verbal discursive features such as tones in my transcripts, following Davis' (2014) focus in her analysis of her interview data. Similarly, the presentation of data in the results chapters later will focus on

participants' responses instead of my interview questions. Where it is useful to show some contextual data, the interviewer will be identified by the initials of my name (QS), and the participants will be identified by their pseudonyms used in the study. Each interview excerpt will be located within the stage when it took place and the part of interview it belonged to. DBI stands for discourse-based interview, whereas SSI stands for semi-structured interview. Term 1, 2, 3 will have acronym of T1, T2 and T3, respectively, showing the time when the interview took place. DS stands for the dissertation stage, which was at end of the study. Where textual data are shown, citations will be highlighted in bold fonts.

Further, I transcribed the interviews with student participants in Chinese language and did not translate them into English at the transcribing stage. This helped to ensure accuracy in transforming what the participants said from audio data into written data, and to prevent meaning loss due to early *domestication* of data into the mainstream English language (Temple & Young, 2004). Reading these transcripts in my L1 also made it easier for me to extract codes and identify relevant quotes that could contribute to the research questions. Only the interview quotes to be included in the final report were translated into English at the end of data analysis. To check the accuracy of my translation, I asked a PhD student with a degree in English language to translate ten interview quotes from Chinese into English without consulting my version. We compared our versions and found that they were very similar – only a few words and sentence structures were different. We discussed the differences and agreed on the more appropriate options between our versions, which are adopted in the final thesis. To further check the accuracy of transcripts and translation, I sent the original transcripts of all four interviews that were collected during the year, together with the selected and translated interview extracts, to each participant. Nine participants responded that the extracts, including my translation, were accurate. They were content with the use of the extracts in my research writing. One participant (Isabel) did not respond to my request; however, since in the consent form she had agreed for her written work to be analysed for study purposes, her data was still included in the study.

The transcripts in Chinese were organised and imported into NVivo 11. For the discourse-based interviews which aimed at eliciting participants' rationale for using citation devices (RQ2), I used the categories in my text analysis framework (*integral/non-integral citation forms, links between sources, evaluation, no citation, extensive citations*) to identify preliminary codes (Dörnyei, 2007). Within each preliminary code, I then used an inductive approach to thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) to identify further codes. For example, when I asked the participants' reasons for using the integral or non-integral citation form in their texts, several codes emerged from their responses: to highlight the content or the author; to distinguish commonly accepted knowledge from particular findings; to aim for variety; consideration of sentence construction (Section 5.3). These preliminary and further codes also form the structure of results presentation in Chapter 5 later.

A similar approach was adopted in analysing the semi-structured interviews, which mainly aimed at understanding participants' views of source use input (RQ3). Preliminary codes were identified according to potential types of input available in the research site, such as EAP courses, one-off study skills courses, and subject modules. Further codes emerged from participants' responses. For example, within the broad category of module teaching and supervisions in department, sub-categories of input included general advice from subject tutors, module-specific requirements on source use, support in specific texts, and written feedback on coursework (Section 6.3). These preliminary and further codes form the structure of results presentation in Chapter 6 later.

Most supplementary data on source use input were not in standard forms, so they were not separately analysed but simply presented to support codes from student interviews. These included artefacts such as quotes from university and departmental handbooks/websites, marginal feedback on dissertation drafts, materials used in EAP courses, and interview quotes with an EAP programme leader. Only feedback reports of assignments were analysed due to their standardised format. These were analysed according to the source use topics they covered - more details of this will be given in Section 6.3.4 when presenting these results.

3.7 Trustworthiness of the study

Criteria for ensuring trustworthiness of qualitative research has been translated from positivist standards into four areas: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). These are useful points to spell out the rigour in qualitative research, but not all techniques recommended for enhancing trustworthiness can be unproblematically adopted in a particular study (Shenton, 2004). This section will discuss how each criterion has been fulfilled in this study.

3.7.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to whether the research findings are in accordance with the actual reality (Merriam, 1998). Many techniques have been listed to enhance credibility of data and their interpretation (Shenton, 2004). To begin with, this involves using appropriate research instruments that have been previously established in similar studies (Yin, 2014). In this study, the text analysis framework used is built on widely used citation frameworks (Swales' citation forms framework and Petrić's rhetorical function framework). Although an additional framework of novices' features was created especially for the purpose of this study, it also derived from previous theories. The use of discourse-based interviews also has had proven effectiveness in previous studies. Secondly, this study was constantly under scrutiny of others and the researcher herself (Shenton, 2004). For example, when developing data analysis approaches, sample data entries were sent to my colleagues. We discussed the categories on several occasions, which informed the current version of frameworks. I also wrote reflective commentaries of my research procedure, such as a reflective report on my interviewing techniques in the pilot study (Appendix 7).

Triangulation is also a widely mentioned technique in qualitative research. It is a "procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study" (Creswell & Miller, 2000, p. 126). Triangulation of data sources and triangulation of methods were used in this study. These aimed at providing a fuller interpretation of the phenomenon through different perspectives of seeing it (Duff, 2008; Stake, 2005), instead of finding out the 'true' reality of students' source use knowledge. For example, when interpreting students' citation use in texts, perspectives were mainly drawn from the researcher's

analysis, but it was further complemented by the participants' own explanation of their source use intentions and subject tutors' feedback comments on source use. These data sources were brought together to construct the participants' source use practice. Similarly, the participants' accounts of what they learned in EAP courses were triangulated with an EAP programme leader's perspective and physical artefacts of materials used in the courses. This helped to construct a fuller picture of how source use was addressed in the courses. Another type of triangulation was manifest in the combination of methods. Combining text analysis, discourse-based interview and artefact analysis allowed comparison between how citation use is depicted in theory and how students actually perceived it.

Prolonged engagement in qualitative case studies refers to the researcher taking part in daily activities with the participants for an extended period of time in order to understand the local context and culture of the respondents, which can enhance the trustworthiness of data generated and the researchers' analytical approaches adopted (Creswell & Miller, 2000; Shenton, 2004). In this study, I did not get involved in the participants' daily life, as being overly close to the participant group could equally generate researcher bias (Warren & Karner, 2009). However, my own experience of being an MA student like the participants two years before the study commenced helped me to understand the research site in depth. Further, this study included four face-to-face interviews with student participants at four stages over the year, giving them more opportunities to think through their experiences and articulate their real perceptions. I also exchanged my personal contact with the participants and encouraged them to consult me about queries on general study issues. For example, Jennifer and Isabel asked me for opinions about their plans of future study. Sharing my own experience with the participants helped to establish rapport and could in part encourage their genuine responses in interviews.

3.7.2 Transferability

Ensuring that similar results can be replicated in similar research contexts is almost impossible to achieve in qualitative case studies, because each context is unique (Erlandson, Harris, Skipper, & Allen, 1993). However, information about the specific research site can be explained as clearly as possible for the audience to relate to their

own contexts. In this study, a description of the programme system in the education department has been given (Section 3.2.2); a profile of the student participants and the texts they wrote were provided (Section 3.5.2 and Section 3.5.3). It is worth highlighting the fact that this was a group of Chinese students who, though having relatively high linguistic proficiency as measured by IELTS, had few experiences of source-based writing in their previous education. Their previous educational background (mainly English language-related majors) and the discipline subject they undertook at the time of the study (TESOL and Applied Linguistics) need to be borne in mind when relating the findings to other contexts. These particularities may suggest the uniqueness of this study. Studies in other contexts, with students studying other social sciences subjects, students with lower language proficiency, may not find similar results as this study. Further, as will be shown later (Section 6.2), the EAP support unit that provided academic writing courses was rather closely connected with the education department, which was not the case for many other academic departments, even within the Northern University.

3.7.3 Dependability and confirmability

Dependability and confirmability refer to similar concepts, and they are addressed together here. Dependability refers to consistency in the analytical process, so that the same findings can be reached if the research process was replicated (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Confirmability refers to neutrality and objectivity, that results are not generated from the researcher's personal perspectives but grounded in the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Both criteria would require a clear record of the data analysis procedure, and some checks on data analysis may be necessary. In this study, to ensure transparency of the data collected, sample interview transcripts are attached in Appendix 6. I further mitigated the subjectivity in my data analysis procedure by checking my analysis after a period of time and consulting other raters, which will be explained in the following paragraphs.

For text analysis, I checked my coding of each text two weeks after initial coding and ironed out some inaccuracies. I further asked a PhD colleague to analyse 10% of the whole corpus (i.e. three texts- two assignments and one LR chapter). I explained the rhetorical functions framework and the *no citation* feature in detail to the external

rater. The agreement rate of rhetorical functions was 87%, which is similar to the agreement rates reported in other studies of discourse analysis of citations (Cumming et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Wette, 2017). Remaining discrepancies were discussed, and the results were adjusted accordingly. For novice writer features, *no citation* has rarely been counted in previous literature, suggesting difficulties in coding it. My colleague and I at first agreed on the prevalence of *no citation* in student writing. In the three sample texts analysed, we identified a similar number of instances of *no citation* (7 by myself; 8 by the second rater), and found that 6 instances were the same. This checking may be limited due to the small number of instances found in the sample texts, but this procedure in part strengthened the construct of counting *no citations*. It is acknowledged that more rater check is desirable, but in this study, such checking was limited by practical constraints. The coding of citation functions needs specific expertise in linguistic analysis and substantive time devoted to familiarising oneself with the particular frameworks. Only one of my colleagues was capable and willing to do this checking. Neither could I hire any professional linguists to do such checking due to financial reasons.

For the check on interview data analysis, I did not strictly follow a *step-wise replication* as some literature proposed (Bitsch, 2014), for example having a colleague to read the same interview transcript and generate a set of inductive codes and then compare with the researcher's. This is because other persons not involved in the project cannot have the same level of familiarity with the dataset as the researcher, and thus are not likely to create similar codes. Instead, I adopted a matching activity of sample interview excerpts with the codes assigned by the researcher (Xu, 2017). I asked a PhD student who is familiar with qualitative data analysis methods to match ten interview quotes with ten codes that I generated. The second rater's matching was completely the same as my own coding, which in part confirmed that my codes were evident in the data.

Chapter 4 Results – citation features and patterns

4.0 Introduction

This chapter will address RQ 1 of this study, specifically, *What citation features do students use in their writing?* It contains two sub-questions: *Are there any changes in students' citation use over time? Are there any differences between high-scoring and mid/low-scoring students' citation use?* The overall trends of all students' citation use at three stages, and comparison between high- and mid/low-scoring participant groups will be addressed. Quantitative analyses include the frequencies of sources and citations (Section 4.1), percentages of integral and non-integral citation forms (Section 4.2), frequencies of novice features of citations (Section 4.3), and percentages of rhetorical functions of citations (Section 4.4). These will be followed by a summary of quantitative findings of text analysis (Section 4.5). Qualitative differences between high- and mid/low-scorers will be shown in Section 4.6.

4.1 Basic frequencies

4.1.1 Number of sources used

A total of 862 references (items in reference list, i.e. number of sources used, regardless of how often they were referred to in text) were found in the corpus. As shown in Table 4-1, the reference frequencies (number of sources per thousand words - ptw) were consistently higher in the high-scoring students' texts than the mid/low-scoring students' texts at all three stages of the study. Throughout the year, the average frequency was 9.49 sources ptw in the high-scorers' texts (number of texts cross case =14, $SD = 4.61$) as opposed to an average frequency of 7.24 sources ptw in the mid- and low-scorers' texts (number of texts cross case =14, $SD = 2.85$).

Table 4-1 Number of sources used ptw

References ptw	T1	T2	DS LR		T1	T2	DS LR
High-scorers (>65)				Mid/Low-scorers (<65)			
Olivia	7.40	N/A	4.88	Helena	4.26	6.34	10.08
Naomi	6.57	9.81	14.97	Lucy	5.48	7.03	11.32
Fiona	16.84	12.73	16.19	Mina	4.42	6.66	11.27
Elsa	4.58	5.53	8.40	Isabel	4.39	5.99	12.67
Jennifer	5.44	5.01	14.56	Kim	5.98	5.52	N/A
Average per stage	8.16	8.27	11.80	Average per stage	4.91	6.31	11.34
Mean for all 14 texts cross case	9.49 (SD = 4.61)			Mean for all 14 texts cross case	7.24 (SD = 2.85)		
Note: T1=Term 1, T2=Term 2, DS LR=Dissertation Stage Literature Review (first draft)							

Besides the numbers in shown Table 4-1, across the three stages, there was an increase in the participants' average reference frequencies (6.54 ptw in T1, 7.18 ptw in T2, and 11.60 in DS LR). More specifically, the mid- and low-scoring participants showed more prominent trends of increase (average 4.91 ptw in T1, 6.31 in T2, 11.34 in DS) than the high-scoring participants (8.16 ptw in T1, 8.27 in T2, 11.80 in DS), even though both groups landed on similar values at DS. This result is as expected, as mid/low-scorers were slower in accommodating the requirements of consulting sufficient literature, while the high-scorers used more references from earlier on in T1.

There were some extreme figures. Fiona, a high-scorer, consistently used a high frequency of sources at all three stages of the study, amounting to 15.25 references ptw on average. Also worth noticing was Isabel's (a low-scorer) 12.69 ptw in LR, while her use in the previous two terms was much lower. The lowest reference frequencies were around 4.4 ptw, shared by several participants from both high-scoring and mid/low-scoring groups. Among these, Elsa and Jennifer, as high-scorers, used low frequencies of references in T1 and T2, but they seemed to have compensated for this by citing each source more often, as will be shown in their frequencies of citations discussed below.

4.1.2 Frequencies of citations

A total of 1,652 citations were found in the corpus. As shown in Table 4-2, citation frequencies (ptw) were consistently higher in the high-scorers' texts than the mid/low-scorers at all three stages of the study. Throughout the year, the average frequency in the high-scorers' texts was 17.67 citations ptw (number of texts cross case =14, SD = 5.65), as opposed to an average frequency of 12.85 citations ptw in the mid- and low-scorers' texts (number of texts cross case =14, SD = 4.95).

Table 4-2 Citation frequencies (ptw)

Citations ptw	T1	T2	DS LR		T1	T2	DS LR
High-scorers (>65)				Mid/Low-scorers (<65)			
Olivia	9.63	N/A	8.05	Helena	6.82	12.27	21.84
Naomi	14.22	20.44	19.01	Lucy	15.65	10.54	16.76
Fiona	20.32	16.90	24.64	Mina	7.96	7.45	16.50
Elsa	13.09	12.39	16.80	Isabel	5.61	9.45	15.37
Jennifer	23.52	21.79	26.60	Kim	15.51	18.20	N/A
Average per stage	16.16	17.88	19.02	Average per stage	10.31	11.58	17.62
Mean for all 14 texts cross case	17.67 (SD = 5.65)			Mean for all 14 texts cross case	12.85 (SD = 4.95)		

Besides the numbers shown in Table 4-2, across the three stages, there was an increase in the participants' average citation frequencies (13.23 ptw in T1, 14.38 in T2, 18.40 in DS LR). The increase is again greater in DS. More specifically, again, high-scorers increased more steadily (16.16 in T1, 17.88 in T2 and 19.02 in DS) than the mid/low-scorers (10.3 in T1, 11.58 in T2 and 17.61 in DS). However, different from the trends of reference frequencies above, the mid/low-scorers suddenly increased their usage of citations in LR, instead of earlier on at T2.

There were also some extreme figures. The highest citation frequencies were found in four texts reaching above 22 citations ptw, all belonging to the high-scoring participants. Among these, Jennifer's (a high-scorer) uses at the three stages were all among the highest, amounting to 23.95 citations ptw on average. The lowest were

found in four texts ranging from 5.61 to 7.96 ptw, all belonging to the mid and low-scoring participants. However, exceptions were also found. A few texts with rather high citation density were awarded low marks (e.g., Kim T2, 18.2 citations ptw, mark 50), confirming that citation density was only one possible way to explain the mark.

4.2 Percentages of integral and non-integral citations

Overall, the high scorers tended to balance the two forms, while the mid/low scorers preferred to use non-integral citations. The ratio of integral versus non-integral citations was on average 48.2% - 51.8% in high-scorers' texts (number of texts cross case=14) and 35.4% - 64.6% in mid/low-scorers' texts (number of texts cross case=14). However, it can be seen in Table 4-3 that this trend was not consistent across the three stages. In T1, high-scorers used more non-integral citations than mid/low-scorers, but this trend was reversed in T2 and DS LR.

Regarding patterns of change during the year, the average percentages of integral versus non-integral citations were 45.2% and 54.8% in T1 (number of texts=10), 29.9% and 70.1% in T2 (number of texts= 9), and 49.9% and 50.1% in DS (number of texts= 9). The ratio particularly tends towards non-integral citations in T2 than the other two stages, which is rather unusual. It may be that the variation is large and therefore individual figures need to be scrutinised. Table 4-3 shows the integral/non-integral percentages of all participants at all three stages of the study. Particularly high integral citations (above one standard deviation from the average of the stage) are highlighted with *, and particularly high non-integral citations are highlighted with **.

Table 4-3 Percentages of integral and non-integral citations in T1, T2 and DS LR

Percentage of integral and non-integral citations	T1		T2		DS LR	
	Integral	Non-integral	Integral	Non-integral	Integral	Non-integral
Olivia	43.59%	56.41%	N/A	N/A	*78.79%	*21.21%
Naomi	44.62%	55.38%	45.00%	55.00%	61.70%	38.30%
Fiona	44.74%	55.26%	38.36%	61.64%	65.71%	34.29%
Elsa	28.33%	71.67%	*50.00%	*50.00%	50.00%	50.00%
Jennifer	36.36%	63.64%	*53.98%	*46.02%	33.68%	66.32%
Average for high-scorers	39.53%	60.47%	46.83%	53.17%	57.98%	42.02%
Helena	*81.25%	*18.75%	**10.00%	**90.00%	32.05%	67.95%
Lucy	**23.33%	**76.67%	16.67%	83.33%	51.35%	48.65%
Mina	*66.67%	*33.33%	**10.53%	**89.47%	65.85%	34.15%
Isabel	39.13%	60.87%	12.20%	87.80%	**9.52%	**90.48%
Kim	43.86%	56.14%	32.58%	67.42%	N/A	N/A
Average for mid/low-scorers	50.85%	49.15%	16.39%	83.61%	39.70%	60.30%

Looking at individual figures, the highest integral citation percentages occurred in Helena T1 (81.25%), Mina T1 (66.67%), Naomi, Fiona, and Olivia’s DS LR (all three around 65%). These were found in two assignments from mid/low-scorers and in three LR chapters from high scorers. The lowest percentages of integral citations occurred in Helena T2 (10.00%), Mina T2 (10.53%) and Isabel DS (10.00%), followed by Isabel T2 (12.20%) and Lucy T2 (16.67%), all of whom were mid/low-scoring participants. Four of these texts with the lowest integral citation percentage

occurred in T2, which lowered the average percentage of the T2 stage. It needs to be noted here that Mina and Lucy in T2 did not write standard argumentative essays as the other participants did, but instead source-based commentaries for their lesson plans (Section 3.5.3). As found in an interview with Mina, their module lecturer required them to use more integral citation for this particular task (see Section 6.3.2). However, even if Mina and Lucy's percentages in T2 were excluded, the average percentage of integral citations by mid/low-scorers was 18.26%. Lucy and Mina's values did not influence the average value significantly.

Regarding patterns of individual participants, most participants did not show consistent growth or decrease in percentages across the three stages, nor did they remain stably towards predominant use of integral citations or non-integral citations. In particular, Helena's (a mid-scorer) use deserves attention. She employed the highest percentage of integral citations in T1 and then the lowest in T2, seesawing back and forth over the three stages, and finally tending towards the higher end. She seemed to be insecure about the use of forms and was almost experimenting with the uses. In contrast, Isabel (a low-scorer) used predominantly non-integral citations at all three stages, particularly in T2 and DS. Most of the other participants accounted for particularly high or low use at only one stage.

4.3 Novice writer features

This section reports the frequencies of *no citation* and extensive citations, features that tend to be found in novice students' writing (Section 3.5.3). Predominant use of *no citation* indicates a lack of awareness of the need to acknowledge sources. Predominant use of *extensive citations* could indicate over-reliance on certain sources, but it may also be purposive if details of a source need to be provided.

In the corpus, an average of 0.31 instances of *no citation* ptw were found in high-scorers' texts (N=14), and 0.70 ptw in mid and low-scorers' texts (N=14). An average of 0.80 extensive citations ptw were found in high-scorers' texts (N=14), and 0.86 extensive citations ptw in mid and low-scorers' texts (N=14). It can be seen that mid/low-scorers omitted references to sources more often than the high-scorers, which might suggest a lower awareness of the importance of acknowledging sources.

Patterns of change in novices' citation features over the year are summarised in Table 4-4 here.

Table 4-4 Average frequencies of novice writer features in T1, T2 and DS LR

Instances ptw	T1	T2	DS LR
No citation	0.77	0.41	0.30
Extensive citations	0.91	0.73	0.84

The average frequency of *no citation* ptw were 0.77 in T1 (N=10), 0.41 in T2 (N=9) and 0.30 in LR (N=9), showing a consistent decrease as the year progressed. This is as expected, as the ten novice students of academic writing learned to avoid omission of sources and to provide necessary sources over the year. In particular, Mina's *no citation* in her T1 OM was the highest at 2.43 instances ptw.

Frequencies of extensive citations were 0.91 in T1, 0.73 in T2 and 0.84 in LR, showing a decrease in T2 but increase again in LR. This could be due to the functions of providing a rationale for one's own research in the LR chapter, where detailed explanation of studies is often needed. This point will be returned to later in the discussion chapter (Section 7.5.3). In particular, the highest frequencies of extensive citations were found in Elsa's T1CM text (1.96 ptw) and Isabel's T1 OM text (1.95 ptw).

4.4 Rhetorical functions of citations

Rhetorical functions refer to the roles of citations in the surrounding texts. The most basic function is *attribution*, where a source is merely acknowledged without further demonstration of stance (see Section 3.3.4). As discussed in the Literature Review, some evidence suggests that novice writers and low-scoring students tend to use more simple *attributions* than expert writers and high-scoring students (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Petrić, 2007). In contrast, expert writers tend to use more links between and evaluation of sources than the more novice writers.

Frequencies of rhetorical functions are hereby presented by their percentages among all citations. Overall, out of the entire corpus, *attribution* accounted for the

highest percentage among all categories of rhetorical functions, amounting to 67.98% of the citations. This was followed by *group citations* (12.95%), *positive evaluation* (9.93%), and *compare/contrast* (7.93%). *Exemplification/further reference* and *negative evaluation* accounted for the lowest percentages, amounting to 3.57% and 2.00%, respectively.

The comparison between high and mid/low-scoring groups in terms of rhetorical functions is summarised in Table 4-5. Values here are average percentages of the 14 texts in each group.

Table 4-5 High and mid/low-scorers' average percentages of rhetorical functions

Percentage of functions in total citations %		High-scorers (14 texts)	Mid/low-scorers (14 texts)
Attribution		62.09%	76.85%
Links between sources	Group citations	12.81%	8.88%
	Compare and Contrast	11.26%	6.19%
	Exemplification/further reference	4.04%	2.98%
Evaluation	Positive	11.47%	7.55%
	Negative	2.04%	2.80%

The high-scorers showed lower percentages of use of simple *attribution* than the mid/low-scorers. They used higher percentages of use of most of the functions other than simple *attribution*, including three types of *links between sources* and *positive evaluation*. The percentages of *negative evaluation* were not very different between the two groups, perhaps because of the rather low percentages in the first place.

To observe change in citation patterns from T1 to DS, average percentages of rhetorical functions at each stage are presented in Table 4.6. Each stage is comprised of nine or ten texts (due to Kim and Olivia's lack of text at one stage).

Table 4-6 Average percentages of rhetorical functions in T1, T2 and LR

Percentage of functions in total citations %		T1 (10 texts)	T2 (9 texts)	DS LR (9 texts)
Attribution		76.97%	81.22%	49.40%
Links between sources	Group citations	5.77%	8.32%	19.00%
	Compare and Contrast	6.00%	2.87%	17.61%
	Exemplification/further reference	4.36%	2.98%	3.08%
Evaluation	Positive	9.45%	9.56%	9.54%
	Negative	3.16%	1.39%	2.64%

The average percentage of *attribution* was 76.97% in T1, then increased to 81.22% in T2, and finally decreased drastically to 49.40% in DS LR chapter. This shows that the students used a far wider range of rhetorical functions in LR chapters. Further, the average percentages of *compare/contrast* and *group citations* were much higher in DS LR (17.61% and 19.00%) than in T1 and T2 (ranging from 2.87% to 8.32%). There was a constant increase in the percentages of *group citations* from T1 to DS. In contrast, less change throughout the year could be observed in the percentages of other functions, i.e. *exemplification/further reference*, *positive* and *negative evaluation*, which remained at similar levels in T1, T2, and DS. Some of the functions decreased slightly in T2 and increased again in DS LR.

Individual students' patterns of change are difficult to summarise, as two students (Olivia and Kim) did not have a full set of three texts for the three stages, and another two students (Lucy and Mina) wrote an essay type different from the conventional argumentative essay in T2 (see Section 3.5.3). Among the remaining six participants, only two high-scorers showed a consistent decrease in their percentages of simple *attribution*. Naomi's percentages of simple *attribution* were 76.92% in T1, 70.00% in T2 and 48.94% in LR; Jennifer's percentages of simple *attribution* were 69.42% in T1, 58.41% in T2, and 44.21% in LR. Also interesting was Isabel's (a low-scorer) sudden decrease of *attribution* percentage in her LR chapter (from 86.96% in T1 and 92.68% in T2 to 53.97% in LR). She used no *compare/contrast* function in her LR chapter but showed use at 46.03% *group citations*, which deserves closer investigation in the qualitative analysis of texts (to be followed up in Section 4.6).

4.5 Summary of quantitative results

There were distinctive patterns between high-scorers' and mid/low-scorers' source use. Firstly, high-scorers used more sources and more citations than mid/low-scorers, and this trend was consistent at all three stages. However, exceptions of texts with high citation density and low marks were also found. Second, regarding the novice features of source use, the frequencies of *no citation* were lower in the high-scorers' texts than the mid/low-scorers. The frequencies of extensive citations were slightly higher in the high-scorers' texts than the mid/low-scorers. Third, regarding the rhetorical functions of citations, high-scorers overall used lower percentages of simple *attribution* than mid/low-scorers. High-scorers used almost every category of other functions more frequently than mid/low-scorers. Fourth, in terms of the use of citation forms, high-scorers overall used more integral citations than mid/low-scorers, but this pattern was not consistent across the three stages.

Some changes in citation features from T1 to DS were found in the whole group. The participants consistently increased their use of sources and citations from T1 to DS. Their use of *no citation* constantly decreased from T1 to DS, while their use of *extensive citations* decreased from T1 to T2 but increased again in DS. Regarding the rhetorical functions of citations, participants' average percentage of simple *attribution* slightly increased from T1 to T2; from T2 to LR it decreased greatly, while percentages of *compare/contrast* and *group citations* increased. Across the three stages, some individual students showed consistent decreases in their use of the *attribution* function and increase in their use of links between sources. Percentages of *positive evaluation* remained at a similar value at all three stages. In terms of the use of citation forms, percentages of *integral citations* decreased from T1 to T2 but increased again in DS.

4.6 Qualitative differences between high and mid/low-scorers' use of rhetorical functions

Apart from quantitative differences between the two groups' source use, some qualitative differences were also found. These will be expanded upon according to citation feature categories.

4.6.1 Attribution

Regarding *attribution* to sources, it appeared that both high-scorers and mid/low-scorers could have difficulties. Some *attributions* by mid/low-scorers were vague—it was difficult to tell exactly which part of the content was from the source. For example:

Isabel T1 OM text: Jerry Fodor and Steven Pinker who stand for the Universalist Approach, believe that there are absolute differences between each language, but they also share so many common features. As Noam Chomsky said, if an alien comes to the earth, he would find all the words sound quite similar and are neighbouring dialects. The core of languages is the same, and the biases are perceptual but not linguistically driven. They insist that the conceptualization patterns are fully language-external. **(Fodor, 1983)** To be more specific, if someone looks at different colours, he would think of colours instead of language.

Here, it was not clear which sentences were from the Fodor (1983) source. The sentence starting with “As Noam Chomsky said...” could be better signalled with a citation to Chomsky’s source, or highlighted with a secondary citation to Fodor (1983). Similarly, some instances suggest an unclear relationship between the statement and the source:

Lucy T1OM: Moreover, some studies have shown that the absence of culture will not interfere with students’ learning process **(Jia, 2015)**.

The audience might not know whether the source Jia (2015) pointed to the existence of “some studies”, or if Jia (2015) was an example of such studies. This relationship between author text and writer text here could be better signalled with the use of *see* in brackets in front of the author, to show that this information was contained in Jia (2015) as a source.

On the other hand, similar instances of vague *attribution* could also be observed in some high-scorers’ texts:

Elsa T1 CM text: Since the classroom activities are quite similar to that of product approaches and they both place emphasis on the textual patterns, some may claim that genre-based approaches are just the extension of product approaches **(Badger & White, 2000)**.

Again, it might be confusing whether Badger and White (2000) made this claim, in which case they were part of “some may claim”, or if they pointed to the existence of such claims made by other authors.

4.6.2 *Group citations*

Some examples of *group citations* in the data suggest different levels of understanding of the sources. In particular, Isabel’s (a low-scorer) use of *group citations* increased drastically in her LR (see Section 4.4 above). However, a closer examination of her texts reveals that many of these instances merely grouped sources with the same topics together:

Isabel LR text: Nowadays, educational technology is widely used in many fields and is consist of various tools, such as teaching and learning management system (Meiloudi, 2015; Ravichandran, 2000; Abdullah, 2014), computers and related multimedia devices (Hofstetter, 2001; Mohamad, 2012), mobile learning devices (Kelly and Minges, 2012; Graham, 2013), instant messengers (Bossa, Stevens and Tawel, 2012), the Internet (Grace & Kenny, 2003; Paramskas, 1993) and interactive whiteboard (Davis, 2007; Brozek & Duckworth, 2013), etc.

On the surface, this paragraph appears to have cited many sources. In fact, these sources were merely grouped superficially by the type of technology they focused on. There is no evidence of Isabel’s understanding of any content of these sources, apart from perhaps a reading of the titles. This instance perhaps contributed to Isabel’s low percentage of *attribution* and could partly explain her low mark for her dissertation.

In contrast, Naomi, as a high-scorer, was able to use her own words to synthesise common points from multiple sources:

Naomi T2 OM text: According to Coltheart (2005), words are read through two routes: lexical route and sublexical route. The sublexical route, from the bottom-up view, allows words to be recognised by converting letters or letter sequences of a word into their corresponding sounds via making use of the rule of grapheme-to-phoneme correspondence (GPC), which refers to the process of segmenting a word into its graphemic components (letters or clusters of letters) and then converting letters into phonemic correspondences (Field, 2003; Joubert & Lecours, 2000).

A group citation was used at the end of the paragraph. The long sentence preceding the group citation appears to be a summary of key ideas from the two sources. A similarity check of this paragraph also found no text matching with existing sources.

This instance suggests Naomi's in-depth understanding of the sources and her ability to paraphrase in her own words.

4.6.3 Establishing arguments

The term argumentation here combines *evaluation of sources* and *links between sources*. It is expected that students present different views and reach a conclusion based on evaluation of different positions. There were some differences between high and low-scorers' argumentation or attempts to make arguments. For example, Mina, a low-scorer, made the following attempts to positively endorse a source:

Mina T1 OM text: **Cummins** reviewed the works of several well-known researchers (*i.e.*, **Porter, Baker and Rossell**) in his article on "doublethink" (**1999**). He was critical, for example, of the fact that Porter, who strongly advocated English-only DLI, endorsed more L1 instruction in DLI programmes at the same time, thus contradicting herself. Short analysis though it was, the article exposed contradictions and questioned the existing theories. Springing from different visions, explanations are like games in mathematical problems and provide motivation for further research.

The paragraph contains different positions, one characterised by Cummins (1999) and the other characterised by authors with opposing views (Porter, Baker & Rossell). Mina indicated that she agreed with Cummins' position by using phrases of praise "the article exposed contradictions and questioned the existing theories" and "provide motivation for further research". However, some phrases such as "explanations are like games in mathematical theories" were not clear. More importantly, the exact reasons for her supporting or opposing the subject topic here (*English-only DLI*) were not explained at all. Mina focused more on how one author criticised another group of authors, instead of the content itself.

In contrast, Elsa's evaluation was less explicit, though was nonetheless clear, as the different pieces of evidence were layered before reaching a conclusion:

As **Burns (1998)** notes, authentic materials in the second and foreign language classrooms are normally hard to find.... She further offers various specific problems. For instance, pre-scripted dialogues appearing on the textbooks tend to be short and grammatically perfect... **McCarthy and O'Keeffe (2004)** also express the same concern over the pre-scripted dialogues... and propose that they may not help to equip learners with essential conversational skills outside of the classroom. In addition, **Burns (2001)** and **Carter (1998)** both point out that some crucial language features may be omitted in the dialogues on textbooks. To illustrate, ... It seems that there is an urgent need to seeking authentic materials

for classroom use. Nevertheless, **Cook (1998)** argues that second and foreign learners may not need to pursue native-like language ... Based on those opposed concerns, it is clear that the problem lies with the degree to which authenticity of the materials should pursue.

Elsa used clear signposting devices such as “also express”, “in addition” to link the sources. Regarding *evaluation*, only one citation involved *positive evaluation* with the use of “point out”, yet the audience can understand that Elsa overall supported the previous stance (“the need to seek authentic materials for classroom use”) with the use of four sources as evidence. She also presented the opposing view that students “might not need to pursue authentic language”, which served to hedge the main argument. Overall, Elsa focused on the specific arguments given by different authors and used these sources to support her own argument in this excerpt. Her use of links between and the evaluation of sources contributed to this overall purpose, unlike with Mina above, who focused on endorsing just one source text.

In sum, this section revealed some qualitative differences in high and mid/low-scorers’ use of *attribution*, *group citations*, and evaluative argumentation. Some high-scorers’ examples appear to be evidence of effective use, while some low-scorers’ examples appear to be demonstrating ineffective use. On the other hand, some exceptions were also found: high-scorers did not always use sources effectively, and vice versa for low-scorers. The contrast between a high and a low-scorer in establishing arguments suggests that citation functions should ideally aim for contributing to the writer’s overall stance, instead of merely linking or evaluating sources for the sake of linking.

Chapter 5 Results – reasons for using citation features

5.0 Introduction

This chapter will address RQ2—*What are the reasons for students’ use of certain citation features, and neglect of others?* Students’ self-reported reasons will be presented according to five categories of citation features identified in the literature—*attribution, extensive citations, use of integral and non-integral citations, and links between sources and evaluation*. This section will also contain reasons for not using these features. In this chapter, and the following chapter, individual participants’ case studies will be referred to. When a group of participants are referred to without specific names or indication of whether they were high-scorers or mid/low-scorers, by default this means that they were a mixture of high and mid/low-scorers. If they clearly tend to be high or mid/low-scorers, this will be specified clearly. For example, “six participants” contain both high and mid/low-scorers, whereas “three high-scorers” specify the group they belonged to.

5.1 Reasons for attribution

Attributing source texts is fundamental to any form of academic writing (Groom, 2000b; Shi, 2010). Every instance of citation has the function of attributing the content to the source text (Petrić, 2007). Complex reasons were found for students acknowledging and to missing acknowledging sources. Reasons for attributing sources included an intention to provide arguments for the writer’s arguments, and to signpost citations clearly to the audience. Reasons for not attributing sources included poor scholarship during reading and making notes, the assumption that the content was common knowledge and needed no reference to sources, and an intention to avoid repeating citations mentioned elsewhere in the text.

5.1.1 Reasons for attributing sources

5.1.1.1 To provide evidence

Nine out of ten participants reported a rationale to use sources for the purpose of supporting their own arguments, except for Kim, a low-scorer. This rationale appeared as early as in the baseline interviews at the end of Term 1. For example, when asked

about the requirements of academic writing, Olivia commented on the purpose of using sources:

The most important is, when you use others' words, after all, it's all for the purpose of forming your own argument. This is a very high requirement and very challenging. (T1 SSI)

Olivia here referred to an evidence-based approach to building arguments, which she also regarded as difficult at the beginning of her programme study. Five participants further reported this rationale in their discourse-based interviews. For example, Fiona reported why she used two sources for a topic sentence in her assignment:

Fiona's text T1 OM	Fiona's comments T2 DBI
(beginning of a section) <u>First, support is available in the process approach that facilitate writing (Krashen, 1984; Keh, 1990).</u> A process approach sees writing as a problem-solving process in which teachers intervene to help learners write rather than just "repair the damage" (Flower & Hayes, 1981) ...	This is an example of what I mean by putting reference after argument, major points. <u>This is my point. But I also added a reference to support it.</u> Now I know that every point/idea I have, they don't come out of vacuum, but they need somebody, need something to support. <u>But in the past, I only referenced what I have read and used.</u>

Figure 5-1 Example of using sources as evidence, Fiona T1 OM

Fiona reported that this topic sentence was her overall summary of the paragraph and claimed ownership of the sentence. At the same time, she looked for sources to support what she argued, which showed her caution in giving due support whenever necessary. She used a large number of sources at all three stages (see Section 4.1.1), which altogether made her arguments appear more solid and evidence-based. This may have contributed to her overall high score. She also reported the following writing habit:

Fiona: After some initial reading for two days...I found my argument and structure. I usually make sure what I'm going to write for each part. After deciding the topic sentence, I then expand on my logical debate surrounding this topic sentence, giving points 1, 2, and 3. I'd find relevant evidence to each point I make. This evidence can be some empirical findings, or what someone proposed, this kind of viewpoints, the conclusions some scholars proposed. (T3 SSI)

Fiona was consciously finding support for the arguments she made. Her arguments did not derive from her subjective opinion; they were built only after Fiona gained some knowledge of the subject field. Here, the role of reading ability in making

arguments is also evident, in that she extracted ideas from sources to formulate her own argument.

5.1.1.2 To signpost clearly

Six participants reported a rationale to signpost content from sources clearly to the audience. For example, Jennifer, an overall high scorer, cited each source in her text about four times on average, making the fullest use of each source among the participants. She explained her reason for frequent citations in the following excerpt:

Jennifer's T2 OM assignment	Jennifer's comments T3 DBI
<p>In terms of the direct level, it includes the most explicit directives such as imperatives and so on (Bellinger & Gleason, 1982; Blum-Kulka & Olshain, 1984; Khalib & Tayeh, 2013). In terms of the conventional indirect level, this kind of directive tends to be conventionalized (Blum-Kulka, 1989; Bellinger & Gleason, 1982; Blum-Kulka & Olshain, 1984) and it is used to realize the act by conventional utterances (Bellinger & Gleason, 1982; Blum-Kulka & Olshain, 1984). According to Blum-Kulka and Olshain (1984),</p>	<p>QS: There are many references here. And some of them look quite similar...What do you think? Jennifer: Oh yes...like in the second sentence, the first point, three sources said it. But the second point, only two of the sources said it, so Blum-Kulka 1989 didn't say the second point.</p>

Figure 5-2 Example of careful signposting Jennifer T2 OM

Jennifer was being very cautious about signalling clearly the source of each bit of information in the sentence, even to the point of signalling both clauses in the sentence with some repeating citations. Her ability to do so seems closely related to her habit of note-taking:

After reading all the sources, I would categorise them again, like this point appeared in this source, that point appeared in that source. And mark again the sources containing certain points - which part it appeared, and the page number. When writing the assignment, I just need to look at the points I marked and then locate the sources. (T2 SSI)

Jennifer's habit to match each point she intended to use with the source text during reading enabled her to signpost each point effectively. Similarly, Elsa, a high-scorer as well, also mentioned the importance of noting down sources: "You need to go over your notes several times when you're writing. You have to mark the person's names clearly. If you forget to do it at first, it'll become very messy later. (T3 SSI)". It seems that careful note-taking of points during the reading stage could benefit accurate attribution of sources in writing.

5.1.2 Reasons for not attributing sources

Failure to acknowledge sources was a common phenomenon among the participants, especially in T1 (see frequencies of *no citation* in Section 4.3). This refers to content deriving from some form of sources (e.g. subject teaching in class, a specific research finding) but is not acknowledged in the texts (Groom, 2000a). In this study, this practice was due to three reasons from the participant perspectives, as will be shown below.

5.1.2.1 Poor scholarship

The first reason is unsurprising, that the student forgot where the content was from and missed necessary attribution. This was reported by six participants. For example, Helena explained, “Sometimes after reading, I didn’t check which source it is, and later I just forgot. Or maybe I cited that person a lot and cannot remember (DS SSI)”. Noting down the source became even more complicated when secondary sources were involved, such as in the following instance with Lucy in this study:

Lucy’s T1 OM assignment	Lucy’s comments T2 DBI
However, some researchers believe that there is little or even no relationship between culture and language. They perceive culture and language as two separate things. Moreover, some studies have shown that the absence of culture will not interfere with students’ learning process (Jia, 2015).	QS: So where do these sentences come from? Lucy: Jia’s article mentioned this a little bit, it said something similar. So, I wrote this. but <u>I forget whether Jia’s article added reference.</u> QS: So, both sentences are from Jia? Lucy: Wait...what’s really from the article should start from the ‘moreover’ sentence, so only the final sentence. I was citing because of this latter point. Only <u>Jia’s study said this</u> , I think. QS: And where does ‘little or no relationship’ in the first sentence come from? Lucy: <u>This was from other people...should be they said something similar to that.</u>

Figure 5-3 Example of forgetting the source to acknowledge, Lucy T1 OM

Although the difficulty in recall could have played a role here, Lucy clearly was not sure where the first sentence came from. Her comments indicate that she read about the point from some sources and could not remember what they were. These sources were also probably from the Jia 2015 source that Lucy cited for the final sentence. The possibility of reading about secondary content in a source seemed to add difficulty to her noting down of the original sources. Such instances indicate an unstructured approach to note-taking during the composing process.

5.1.2.2 Assumption of common knowledge

Five participants omitted attributions due to a belief that the content was common knowledge that needed no evidence. One reason was that the content appeared in many sources that the student read, to the extent that they believed it to be commonly known facts among members of the discourse community. For example, Mina explained why she did not provide reference in the following case:

Mina's text T1 OM	Mina's comments, T2 DBI
<p><u>While additive bilingualism expects that learners will become bilingual and biliterate, subtractive bilingualism requires assimilation;</u> consequently, learners may become monolinguals of the majority language and have a low level of literacy in the minority language.</p>	<p>Because I've read many sources, <u>it's like a common concept, I don't know how to cite it.</u> It's just like, the sun rises from the east. I feel there should be no need to cite. These are two very basic concepts in the field, common sense things...they need no reference. I was thinking this way.</p>

Figure 5-4 Example of not attributing due to belief of common knowledge, Mina T1 OM

Mina here clearly did not regard the features of *additive bilingualism* and *subtractive bilingualism* as associated with any particular source. She believed that the content was common knowledge because it had appeared in many sources, and did not seek to provide evidence for this statement.

Participants' assumption that the content was common knowledge and required no reference to a particular source also occurred when the content had been addressed in the subject module they took. For example:

Lucy's text T1 OM	Lucy's comments, T2 DBI
<p>One language teaching method called grammar translation method requires students to translate from English into their native languages. Through this, students can acquire...only knowing the general structure of language is not enough... The ability of producing grammatically correct sentences is not sufficient...</p>	<p>I was making a sort of introduction/explanation to grammar translation. <u>But grammar translation was taught that time in another course, these bits are all what I myself thought about according to the things taught in class.</u> So, I didn't put a <u>reference.</u> Maybe a better way is to find what others say about this issue and put a reference here.</p>

Figure 5-5 Example of not attributing content in module course, Lucy T1 OM

Lucy learned the concept *grammar translation* from another subject course in that term, and did not use a citation to support what she remembered about the concept.

Another instance seemed controversial, as it included module lecturer’s evaluation of sources:

Isabel’s text T1 OM	Isabel’s comments, T2 DBI
Benjamin Lee Whorf (1897-1941), agreed that ...The linguistic relativity hypothesis (Whorf, 1956) The examples are the native American languages. The original Native American languages that are mostly spoken by indigenous people... (86 words omitted) The way they think and talk is clearly differently from people who speak other languages. <u>However, there is no absolute evidence to support and determine this hypothesis.</u>	<p>QS: This last sentence, where does this comment come from?</p> <p>Isabel: <u>From the lecturer’s slides.</u></p> <p>QS: Is the source Whorf, 1956 also in the slides?</p> <p>Isabel: Yes. <u>This was all covered in the lecture.</u></p>

Figure 5-6 Example of not attributing lecturer’s evaluative comments, Isabel T1 OM

Here, the statement in the text “there is no absolute evidence to support...” appears to be *negative evaluation* of the source Whorf 1956, but Isabel’s interview comments show that the evaluation was actually from the course tutor and not from herself. She passed on the criticism of the source as if it was her own, probably without an intention to fake her real extent of knowledge but simply due to a lack of familiarity with the convention of attribution. On the other hand, in existing student support books it is rarely mentioned how to cite tutor comments on sources appropriately (as reviewed in Section 2.5.2), which perhaps suggests ambiguity of the matter itself.

5.1.2.3 To avoid repeating citations

A further reason for not attributing sources was the belief that the source had been mentioned elsewhere and needed no re-mentioning again. This was reported by seven participants. For example, see the excerpt from Naomi below:

Naomi’s T1 CM assignment	Naomi’s comments, T2 DBI
(Beginning of a paragraph) The product approach was widely applied in L2 classrooms because it seems to help learners grasp the basic language forms effectively. Teachers often use grammatical exercises such as gap-filling and sentence-completing in writing classroom to help L2 beginners who lack the basic language infrastructure to build up a solid foundation on L2 linguistic knowledge, and then provide models for them to imitate. However, ...	<p>QS: There is no reference in this paragraph. What do you think about this?</p> <p>Naomi: Like for the first sentence, when I look at it now, I feel it should have a reference.... Or, <u>maybe it was a viewpoint previously mentioned, and I marked it earlier but didn’t mark it here.</u> So, the whole paragraph wasn’t marked. I just thought this was my own viewpoint. Like I said some exercises and gap filling, <u>these I have mentioned in the introduction, so I didn’t mark the reference here.</u></p>

Figure 5-7 Example of intention to avoid repetition of citation, Naomi T1 CM

The content she referred to indeed had appeared in the introduction of the assignment with a reference. Naomi thought that ideas supported with references earlier in the text did not need referencing again when referred to later. This indicates her lack of reader awareness at that stage, since she assumed that readers would remember the reference later on in the discourse.

In several cases, the writer was alerted of the drawbacks of not attributing sources, but opted to do so due to her confusion of the convention. For example, Lucy explained her lack of acknowledgement in one sentence:

Lucy's T1 OM assignment	Lucy's comments
<p>...For example, parts of America were once colonized by France, therefore French vocabularies like name for places (Maine, New Orleans) and noun for objects (shanty, pumpkin) were absorbed into English vocabulary, which are still being used now as part of the English language. Apart from French, there are other languages added varieties into English, like Dutch, Spanish, Japanese and even Chinese (Ma & Lu, 2011). These changes in language are caused by the change of culture.</p>	<p>T2 SSI: In a paragraph you might have two ideas, said by the same person in the same article at two places. <u>I don't know if I need to, in the whole paragraph just put one citation, or one citation after one idea finished, and another one after the other idea finished. Neither does my peers know. Till now I still don't know.</u></p> <p>T2 DBI: The first sentence here is also from Ma and Lu source. Both sentences are. This is like what I said, that <u>I don't know where to put the citation.</u></p>

Figure 5-8 Example of uncertainty over where to attribute, Lucy T1 OM

Lucy explained here that she was unsure about where to attribute, and neither could she reach a solution by consulting her friends. This points to a common confusion existing among a group of students, which was also shared by six other participants in the study.

Further to Lucy's instance, Isabel's attributions revealed a more serious problem. Isabel's texts contained many paragraphs from a single source text acknowledged in brackets at the end of the paragraph. Isabel explained: "I just put a citation at the end, to avoid plagiarism, to say that I used this author's points" (DS DBI) and "When I put the citation at the end of the paragraph, I feel I wouldn't need to worry about putting in that name while I'm writing those sentences" (T3 DBI). Isabel was hiding away from the responsibility of acknowledging sources clearly, which reveals her focus on writer convenience and her lack of concern for the audience.

To sum up, seven participants omitted attributions due to a belief that it would repeat citations elsewhere in the text. Yet the three interview comments shown here reveal slightly different underlying reasons: for Naomi, it was occasional neglect of the reader during writing; for Lucy, it was a general status of uncertainty about where to attribute; for Isabel, she seemed to make few efforts in attributing clearly.

5.1.3 Summary

In this section, reasons for students attributing or not attributing sources have been presented. First, most participants were aware of the function of citations to provide support for their own arguments in the very first term. However, they did not consistently apply this principle in their own writing, sometimes due to undesirable note keeping habits that resulted in poor scholarship, or due to an assumption that the content was commonly accepted with no need for reference to any specific sources. These tended to appear at earlier stages of the study. In contrast, systematic note taking and the ability to build arguments from reading sources seem to benefit well-supported arguments.

Second, half of the participants reported an intention behind the use of *attribution* to show the reader clearly which content belonged to which sources. However, more participants omitted attributions due to a belief that citations appearing elsewhere in the text need no further reference. This belief seems to further contain a mixture of unawareness of the citation convention, occasional slips, and a lack of effort in acknowledging sources clearly.

Overall, the majority of the difficulties and confusion over attribution among these participants seem to be caused by a lack of reader awareness. This points to an issue in understanding what the reader knows about the content and what the reader expects about appropriate signposting in discourse.

5.2 Reasons for using extensive citations

Extensive citations (Section 3.4.2) refer to the citations that employ many sentences on one single source. It might be over-reliance on one source, suggesting a descriptive approach to source use; or, according to requirements of certain tasks, long description of a source might be necessary and contribute to task fulfilment. In this

study, a range of reasons were found for using extensive citation: participants' over reliance on sources that suggest committal and practical issues; an intention to explain the content clearly; in the LR chapter, an intention to use detailed description of sources for preparation of one's own study.

5.2.1 Over reliance on certain sources – committal and practical issues?

One reason for using *extensive citations* might be students' lack of commitment in finding sources and in writing. One participant in the pilot study (Alice) admitted her attempt to save efforts as the reason for describing one source extensively. In Alice's T1 OM assignment, she listed exhaustively eight types of *corpora* according to one single source, leading to eight consecutive sentences based on one source. She admitted in the interview:

I just wanted to make up more words. When I wrote it, I felt this was not very related to the topic, but I ran out of time. This is just easy to write. You can find many sources containing this, and it's purely descriptive, you can easily make several hundred of words.

Here, Alice was aware of the disadvantages of such long description, that the content was not all necessary for her topic. Her concern of "running out of time" was worth noticing. Even if she could "find many sources containing this", she chose to stick to one source to save effort in writing.

In the main study, when asked of the reasons for citing extensively, no participant articulated the reason for saving efforts in writing. This is not surprising, as it could be embarrassing to admit such lack of commitment to study in face-to face interviews. The issue of face saving could have played a role here in the participants' responses. However, a lack of commitment can sometimes be inferred from what participants reported as their rationale. Five participants reported an intention to make the most use of important and useful sources. For example, Isabel explained in the following way:

T2 DBI: I just wanted to put on more things (about the source). Because this study appeared in all the other experiments' introduction, so I searched for it.
T3 DBI: This book is all about *thematic priming*...I talked about what it is, one feature and another feature, so I just used this book. Because the book is mainly about this...I think the book's ideas are connected, so I didn't separate them into several places.

Isabel's use of *extensive citations* was the most frequent among the participants in T1 and T2 texts (Section 4.3). Here, her comments seem to be in part about consideration of the sources' reliability and coverage, as she justified her choice of using these sources. Meanwhile, an underlying sense of effort-saving strategies could be implied by "I just want to put more things" and "I just (only) used this book because it is mainly about this (topic)". Moreover, Isabel also followed the source's structure of ideas ("the book's ideas are connected"), instead of attempting to re-arrange the ideas for her own assignment title. These comments suggest that, as soon as Isabel found a high-quality source, she did not make further efforts in searching other sources on the same topic. She was content with relying on one source in describing the topic.

Except for Isabel's case, the reason of using key sources to the fullest was often accompanied by difficulties in finding other sources on the same topic. There were some practical constraints on finding more sources and on avoiding over reliance on one single source in several consecutive sentences. For example, Elsa explained why she used the same source repeatedly throughout her assignment:

Because the lecturer of this module particularly likes this author, so I put many of his ideas. And things about this product approach is really hard to find, so I put only one person. (T2 DBI)

Elsa pointed to the scarcity of sources on the concept she wrote about. On the other hand, Jennifer admitted the issue of time constraints on her literature searching:

So this person said a lot on this aspect. I couldn't find other sources as there was not enough time left. So I thought, this person is famous, and I didn't have time to look for anyone else, so I could only use this source. (T3 DBI)

Jennifer's reason that "not enough time left" is similar to Alice's reported reason at the beginning of this section. Jennifer's response might also suggest poor time management in the writing up of assignments, and therefore might as well indicate a lack of commitment.

To sum up, a lack of commitment to writing and time constraints could be one underlying reason for participants using *extensive citations* without specific purposes, although students usually tended not to admit the former reason explicitly. It is also

difficult to separate the two reasons, as facing practical constraints might also be an indication of a lack of commitment.

5.2.2 Intention of clear explanation

In assignment writing, six participants intended to explain points clearly in their *extensive citations*. For example, Lucy justified why she provided detailed explanations for a concept she introduced:

Lucy's T1 OM text	Lucy's comment, T2 DBI
<p>Moreover, English is now perceived as an international language, which is used globally. Kachru (1992) developed a model to describe the global situation of English, in which different countries are categorized into three circles (the expanding circle, the outer circle and the inner circle). In these circles, English is treated differently. The inner circle corresponds to first language speakers; the outer circle corresponds to English as a second language speakers; and the expanding circle corresponds to speakers of English as a foreign language. Here we mainly focus on the outer and expanding circles.</p>	<p><u>if I just write inner circle outer circle, people might not understand, so I wanted to introduce what these mean.</u></p>

Figure 5-9 Example of intention to explain clearly, Lucy T1 OM

Lucy reported to have considered her audience's expectation of content knowledge, and an intention to explain the concept to prepare her audience for the following arguments. At the same time, as shown earlier (Section 5.1.2.2), Lucy's T1 OM assignment contained an instance of not citing an idea for the assumption that it had been covered in another module course. This suggests that when writing the same assignment, Lucy did not consistently consider her audience's expectations of source use – sometimes she did and sometimes she did not.

In addition, Elsa articulated a sense of dilemma when attempting to balance the extent of clear explanation and descriptiveness in source use:

Elsa's T1 CM text	Elsa's comment, T2 DBI
<p>There are mainly four stages making up the product instruction noted by Badger and White (2000): "familiarization; controlled writing; guided writing and free writing" (P.153). First, in a typical writing class, instructors will provide some model texts... After... Finally... In this sense, writing is considered as ... This traditional approach has both its strengths and weaknesses (Badger & White, 2000). (214 words in total)</p>	<p>I feel it's tricky, because you can't say this in a too simple way, right? For writing here in the UK, you have to explain things very clearly. <u>But when being clear, it becomes too detailed. It's very hard to balance this degree. And maybe my command of language is still not good enough.</u> Like the meaning maybe can be said in a more concise way, but because your language is not good enough, you can only use very <u>tedious</u></p>

	<u>language</u> to explain this thing. So that's this long.
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Figure 5-10 Example of dilemma between clarity and description, Elsa T1 CM

Similar to Lucy above, Elsa here also reported an intention to explain the concept clearly to the audience. She reported to be aware of the Anglophone conventions of clarity in academic writing. However, she was at the same time aware of the potential drawbacks of her approach here, that it “becomes too detailed” and might be against the convention of conciseness. She further attributed this to her limited ability of summarising information in English language. This point is not surprising, and it would be useful to discuss this further in the Discussion chapter.

5.2.3 Extensive citations in LR – to link with own research

In the LR chapter of the dissertation, six participants described some sources extensively. Only Fiona reported an intention to explain content clearly as the main reason for using *extensive citations* in the LR chapter. The other participants mostly intended to link these studies with their own dissertation research. Elsa and Mina reported a rationale for describing studies that were generally similar to their own, in order to shed light on their own research designs. For example, Mina explained why she described one study in detail:

<p>Mina LR: Webb’s experiment tested the influence that context might have on knowledge of form and meaning in IVL. Being assigned randomly into <u>the experimental and comparison group</u>, After that, both groups were given a surprise test ... The result shows that the students who read with more informative contexts scored much higher in acquiring meaning than the comparison group, while the two groups did not show much difference in acquiring form. The experiment was <u>conducted under a laboratory condition, which means he could not explore ...in a more ecologically valid setting</u>, i.e., in their daily learning process out of class. ...</p>
<p>Mina DS DBI: Because this was a replication study, my supervisor suggested me to explain this study. So I wrote this paragraph. QS: So what did you consider when selecting the bits to explain? Mina: First, the general procedure is needed, which I wrote. The second is the experiment’s measure. The third is the results, I have to write that as well. Mainly these three points. And here because <u>my experiment is... this study is under lab condition, while my experiment is under that ecologically valid condition</u>. So I need to point out here saying our conditions are not the same. QS: What about other details, like in what country, how many participants? Mina: <u>It’s up to what you’re doing</u>. Because I’m not studying difference between countries, <u>what I’ve changed is the condition, that’s what I’m discussing</u>. Students coming from different countries is not what I’m researching.</p>

Figure 5-11 Example of purposive description, Mina LR

Mina’s dissertation was a partial replication of an established experiment, which she described here. Although the paragraph was long, Mina regarded it necessary for readers to know how the replicated study was conducted, in order to further understand her own study. For example, the comment in text on *experimental test condition* helped to link to her own study’s *naturalistic condition*. Mina considered the information necessary for this description. She purposefully included the research procedure and the result, while excluding other details such as country, in order to maintain relevancy to her own study.

More specifically, four participants reported a rationale for identifying research instruments to use from current studies. For example, Elsa commented that:

Elsa’s LR text	Elsa’s comment, DS DBI
<p>According to Greasley and Cassidy (2010), lecturers often feel frustrated by the common errors made by students... it could be the incorrect formatting of references or lacking critical analysis...</p> <p>In their research, an email survey was sent out to lecturers... In addition, they were requested later to... In the result, for sources of frustration, they found out that <u>poor language, grammar and expression constituted the largest percentage of all comments</u>...</p> <p>Furthermore, referencing and presentation came closely, ...However, students in this survey were undergraduates, whose basic literacy may be remained at relatively low levels and the ranking may show a different picture to postgraduate students. In addition, <u>it only looked at tutors’ views through an email survey, where tutors did not ask to provide any suggestions</u>. Thus, in this research, it would further explore tutors’ views and suggestions via interviews. (352 words in total)</p>	<p><u>My interview questions were from this study</u>. I used three of them. And to answer my research questions, I need to organise my data into some themes, and <u>these themes are also from this study</u>. Because its conclusions are more concise.</p>

Figure 5-12 Example of extracting research instruments from sources, Elsa LR

Elsa described one study extensively in order to extract usable interview questions for her own study. Elsa also regarded the description necessary for her own data analysis approach. It was also clear that Elsa made use of the length of description here to cast her critical analysis of the methods used in the study reviewed, as in the final sentence “it only looked at...tutors did not ask to provide suggestions”. Her final dissertation feedback report commented that “critical distance is achieved in the discussion of published studies - this is handled very well indeed”.

It appears that *extensive citations* might not be problematic in the literature review chapter, if the student had clear intentions to link studies to their own research

and to create basis for evaluation when reviewing studies in length. Indeed, all of the six dissertation feedback reports collected commented on the relevancy of the studies reviewed to the students' own research, and no report criticised overly long description of single sources. This appears to be different from the case of using *extensive citations* in assignments, as shown earlier.

5.2.4 Summary

Participants used *extensive citations* with or without particular purposes in texts. In assignment writing, they described sources at length with the intention to make the most use of a few high-quality sources. This was often accompanied by practical constraints on finding other sources on the same topic, which could further imply a lack of commitment to studying. Another reason was an intention to explain points clearly to the reader, which suggests their consideration of the audience at some point in the writing process.

Rationale for *extensive citations* in LR writing was found to be very different from that of assignment writing. No participant used *extensive citations* due to a scarcity of literature on the topic, which might suggest participants' increased commitment to their work and increased familiarity with the domain knowledge at the dissertation stage. They used *extensive citations* mainly for the purpose of linking details of studies with particular aspects of their own research. In the data, preparing for methodological design was the most often reported intention.

5.3 Reasons for using integral and non-integral citations

Integral and non-integral citation forms are the most basic components of using citations, because for any single instance of citation, students need to decide on one form from the two. The use of integral or non-integral citations is expected to be a rhetorical choice (Section 2.4.4.1). The following sub-sections will present participants' reasons for using integral and non-integral citations, including an intention to highlight the author or the content, an intention to distinguish widely accepted knowledge and particular findings, and other reasons such as linguistic considerations.

5.3.1 To highlight author or content

Nine out of ten participants (except for Kim, a low-scorer) articulated the rationale of emphasising the author for the use of integral citations, and of emphasising the content for the use of non-integral citations, for at least once in their interview data. Some participants commented on their intention of using integral citations to highlight the author, for example:

Lucy T1 OM	Lucy's comment, T2 DBI
Kachru (1992) developed a model to describe the global situation of English, in which different countries are categorized into three circles...	Here I was introducing this person... <u>this person who proposed</u> inner circle-outer circle concept. I think this is important.

Figure 5-13 Example of using integral citation to highlight author, Lucy T1 OM

Here, Lucy used the integral form to endorse the author Kachru as the proposer of the concept. She regarded it necessary to signal to the reader that it was Kachru who developed the concept, which also involved the use of a reporting verb “develop” here. Her intention to interact rhetorically with the reader was evident here.

Alternatively, non-integral forms were often used to highlight the content, as shown in the following example:

Elsa T2 OM	Elsa's comment, T3 DBI
...the Grammar Translation Method...It mainly put the premium on the instruction of explicit grammatical rules... (Richards & Rodgers, 2001) . The first two methods highlighted instruction on pronunciation... (Howatt & Widdowson, 2004) .	I wanted to talk about <u>this method</u> , so I can't put the person at the front. <u>I said 'it', so the author name has to be at the back</u> . I had to put like this because this was <u>talking about the content</u> .

Figure 5-14 Example of using non-integral citation to highlight content, Elsa T2 OM

Elsa here used the non-integral form to give central attention to the content, while the publications containing these comments featured a less prominent role. At the same time, Elsa's rationale here seems to be intertwined with concerns for the language as well, as she commented that her sentence beginning with 'it' needed to be accompanied with author name in brackets. This point will be developed further in Section 5.3.3.

With the focus on the author or the content, the use of integral and non-integral citations was further found to have the intended purpose of advancing the writer's own voice, as articulated by four participants. For example:

Naomi T2 OM	Naomi's comment, T3 DBI
<p>...Alphabetic languages such as English share the alphabetic principle that written symbols represent phonemes in spoken words (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989). A sound is represented by a single letter or several letters (e.g. sh) and in some cases, the same sound is signified by different letters, such as c in cat and k in koala share the same sound (Phillips et al., 2008) ...</p>	<p>QS: Why did you put the author names in brackets here?</p> <p>Naomi: At first, I usually used 'someone argues'. Then the <u>teacher of DEL said, if you always put author name at the front, you don't have your own voice. You're just listing others' points. If you want to highlight your own points, then put the author in brackets, so that your reader can more easily see what your point is.</u> So I changed a lot of my use like that while I was writing.</p>

Figure 5-15 Example of using citation form for authorial voice, Naomi T2 OM

Naomi, a high-scorer, clearly had the audience in mind when composing this passage. She actively manipulated her use of non-integral citations to highlight her own authorial voice, which was also her response to an advice she received from the English support course. This latter point of input will be further presented in the next chapter.

5.3.2 To distinguish widely accepted knowledge and particular findings

Another rhetorical function of the integral and non-integral forms is to distinguish widely accepted knowledge from findings of particular studies (see Section 2.4.4.1). Only three participants (Naomi, Jennifer and Helena) articulated this distinction in T3 or DS, for example:

Jennifer LR first draft	Jennifer comment, DS DBI
<p>Chinese EFL learners frequently use strategies like repetition, guessing words, and using dictionaries (Lip, 2009; Liu, 2010; Wang & Gao, 2011; Wu, 2005; Zhang, 2011) ...On the contrary, there are still different findings. Fan (2003) argues that Hong Kong EFL learners do not rely more on repetition and studying word lists in the course books, which are connected with rote learning of Chinese students.</p>	<p><u>...citation within bracket means these people all said this, it's a summary. This one I used out of brackets, because what he said did not appear in anyone else...which is different from all these other people's viewpoints.</u></p>

Figure 5-16 Example of distinguishing general knowledge from specific, Jennifer LR

Here, Jennifer first summarised common findings from several studies using the non-integral citation form, and then elaborated on particular findings from one study using the integral form. Her interview comment confirmed her intention to separate general knowledge from the specific.

The remaining seven participants did not articulate this reason as their choice of citation forms. Even so, participants could still be applying such conventions unconsciously. For example, Lucy commented that:

...if it's a single author, I would say according to somebody, or somebody argues. If it's several people, I would use a bracket. I don't know whether this is the correct way. (Lucy DS DBI)

Her comment here infers her intuition about the use of citation forms, which might actually derive from the same principle described above. It is also clear that Lucy could not explain why she had such intuition, and she was not sure whether this was appropriate. In other words, she was not consciously aware of the rhetorical functions of citation forms distinguishing widely accepted knowledge and particular findings.

5.3.3 Other Reasons

The participants also had other reasons for their choices of citation forms. First, a common reason of was to aim for variety, as reported by eight participants (except for Kim and Fiona). Although most participants were somewhat aware of the rhetorical role of citation forms (as presented in the above two sections), they often averted to the default reason of showing variation. For example:

Elsa T3 DBI: I just wanted to vary them a bit. I was also doing this on purpose...so they don't get bored with reading my work.
Lucy T2 DBI: Maybe previously I wrote many citations in brackets, so I just changed a way of expression here. There're no other meanings.

This reason of showing variation in text indicated participants' intention to keep the reader interested. However, instead of achieving this intention through careful consideration of the interpersonal resources, they worked on varying the use of citation forms in terms of merely linguistic expressions, in order to impress the marker in an almost aesthetic sense of avoiding repetitive usage.

Second, consideration of sentence construction was also a representative reason behind the choice of citation forms, which was reported by seven participants (except for Kim, Lucy and Mina). It is typically described as e.g. (I used this form) “to make the sentences more coherent” (Elsa T3 DBI), “because it is easier to write” (Helena T2 and T3 DBI), “because it is more flexible, it’s good for my writing” (Isabel T3 DBI). Such consideration continued into the dissertation stage. All these comments suggest the students’ priority of sentence construction over the rhetorical roles of citations at some points of their writing. This is as expected, that novice writers tend to be concerned about language accuracy, and accordingly might not have enough cognitive space left to consider rhetorical roles. At the same time, concern for language structure sometimes further reveal unfamiliarity with a wider range of citation forms, for example:

Fiona T1 OM	Fiona comment, T2 DBI
<p>It was argued that the significance of teacher intervention is limited...A study conducted on sixty Spanish students at intermediate levels in Wheaton College showed that the error-corrections written feedback neither helped avoid surface-level errors nor improved to a significant extent L2 learners’ level of writing (Kepner, 1991).</p>	<p>Fiona: This is using research to support my argument, which was given at the beginning of the paragraph. QS: So why, for example, didn’t you say ‘so and so conducted a study’, or something like that? Fiona: Maybe <u>to explain the participants and the research context more clearly</u>. If putting the person first, saying <u>someone conducted a study, which showed blah, then maybe the sentence structure wouldn’t feel so smooth</u>. It’s a <u>concern on the sentence structure</u>. I didn’t think anything else. I think this doesn’t matter, because I’m more used to writing in this way.</p>

Figure 5-17 Example of being unaware of alternative citation forms, Fiona T1 OM

Here, Fiona knew that the source she cited was a research study, but she did not adhere to the convention of foregrounding author names for particular research findings. In fact, the text here could be more precise if it started with “Kepner’s (1991) study on sixty Spanish students...”, while still achieving Fiona’s intention to describe the study in detail. Fiona’s comment on sentence structure could imply that, in fact, the alternative expression of “someone’s study”, or more generally the expression of “someone’s product” as a Naming type integral citation (Thompson, 2001) did not come across as an option for her.

Third, there was an assumption that certain citation features must go with certain citation forms, as if it was a fixed combination. This was reported by four students.

They therefore adhered to such rules to avoid risks of being judged as inappropriate by the marker. For example, Mina believed that direct quotations needed to be used with the non-integral form, and Helena believed that secondary referencing needed to be used with the integral form. Such instances again show the participants' limited exposure to authentic citation use in disciplinary discourse, and their taking what they knew as fixed rules. This is more evident in Olivia's comment below:

I don't know if it's ok to put a source containing three authors at the beginning of the sentence, I'm not sure of it. So, I adopted a somehow conservative way, to put them together at the end...in the handbook, I didn't find such examples as three authors said what, so I don't really dare to use it. (T2 DBI)

Olivia used the non-integral citation form here not because of its rhetorical meanings, but because she was unsure about the legitimacy of using integral citations in the case of a publication with three authors. She chose the alternative option in order to be safe from marker's judgement of citation errors. It is also noteworthy that Olivia had not encountered a single instance of integral citations containing three authors in any of the materials she read. In other words, she seemed to be exposed to limited examples of disciplinary writing.

5.3.4 Summary

Most participants intended to use integral and non-integral citations to highlight the author and the content, respectively. Only a few participants intended to use integral citations to introduce particular research findings, and to use non-integral citations to suggest widely accepted knowledge. On the other hand, the participants' concerns for variety in citation forms, language structure, and avoiding risks were also prevalent.

These reasons show that the participants did not consistently consider the rhetorical functions of citation forms in their writing—the rhetorical aspects were often replaced by a focus on varying language forms and accurate sentence construction. At the same time, it can be inferred that some participants were not familiar with the full range of citation forms available and had limited exposure to citation use in discourse.

5.4 Reasons for links between sources

This section will present participants' reasons for using and not using link between sources, including all three sub-categories in the text analysis framework (Section

3.4.3). Reasons for linking sources included, most commonly, an intention to show similarities or differences between sources, and other less common reasons such as an attempt to remedy weaknesses of over-reliance on particular sources, an intention to replace the writer’s own voice with frequent reference to others’ ideas, and a strategy of borrowing links between sources from secondary sources. Meanwhile, a range of reasons were found for not making links between sources, including difficulties in understanding sources, extracting common points from multiple sources, and time constraints on coursework writing.

5.4.1 To show similarities or differences

Nine participants reported the rationale of strengthening their arguments by using more than one source to support their arguments. For example,

Elsa T2 DBI: X said this point, Y also mentioned the same viewpoint. When saying ‘he also thinks this’, I feel my argument in this paragraph would be more reliable.
 Lucy T2 DBI: These authors all think like this, so I thought it can add to my convincing power.

They aimed to emphasise the points they intended to make in their writing. The majority of the participants understood the importance of using multiple sources as evidence.

Six participants linked sources in order to highlight the differences between them, which tended to be reported towards the end of the study. For example:

Olivia T1 CM text	Olivia comment, T2 DBI
<p>Online collaborative learning has also received criticisms and doubts from scholars. According to Lin and Griffith (2014), several studies indicate there are <u>disadvantages of online collaborative learning, such as flaws of the online learning tool itself</u>, participants’ operational errors when using the learning tool, confrontations during the cooperative process, discomforts etc. Other studies have also been carried out to investigate the drawbacks of online collaborative learning, <u>finding out issues arising from the collaborative learning process might not be a result of the technology tool itself</u>, but might be a result of users’ insufficient knowledge of using the tool, their lack of communicating abilities etc. (Vallance, Towndrow, & Wiz, 2010).</p>	<p>These two points, <u>they kind of contrast</u>. The first ‘several studies’ talked about disadvantage, then other studies said actually the disadvantages are not from the tools themselves.</p>

Figure 5-18 Example of contrasting sources, Olivia T1 CM

Here, Olivia explained that her main purpose for comparing the two sources was to show the difference between their conclusions.

In addition, five participants also reported a rationale to show their amount of reading for the marker, for example:

Jennifer T3 DBI: I just want to say I've read so much.
 Fiona T2 DBI: Those with similar views or the same view as I are not necessarily one author, but several authors. Using more than one sources shows my wider reading, more extensive reading.

They intended to show to the audience that they had consulted many sources which informed their own writing. This rationale often occurred alongside the above intentions to show similarities or differences.

5.4.2 Other reasons for making links

Several other reasons accounted for few instances in the dataset, but nonetheless revealed participants' intentions. Firstly, Naomi and Elsa made efforts to remedy their weaknesses in over relying on one single source and edited their texts to bring in more sources. In the following excerpt, Elsa added in another source into her extensive citation:

Elsa T2 OM text:	Elsa comment, T3 DBI
Two activities of task-based approaches demonstrated by Edwards and Willis (2005) will be shown in this section. The first activity...(222 words omitted). However, task-based approaches were also criticized by Thornbury (2005) for neglecting language forms and accuracy...	QS: How did you use sources in this paragraph? Any consideration? Elsa: ... I was going to just use one person. But I thought, <u>no, that's not OK, otherwise my tutor would again say I'm always using the same source. So I found some relevant content from my notes,</u> written by another author, to support this point.

Figure 5-19 Example of avoiding weakness of over reliance on sources, Elsa T2 OM

Previously in T1, Elsa's work had already been criticised for "relying too much on only one source" (T1 CM feedback), which was also evident in her frequent use of *extensive citations* in text analysis (see Section 4.3). Her comment here shows her awareness of this weakness and her attempt to resolve it during writing. In this instance, Elsa reviewed her reading notes and tried to find another source to link to her long description of one source. Careful note-taking seems to benefit Elsa in this case, as she was able to find the point and the source she needed.

Meanwhile, Fiona and Jennifer mentioned an intention to use others' ideas to replace their own arguments. In their texts, these two students either cited densely or used a large number of sources (see Section 4.1). For example, Jennifer commented:

Jennifer T2 OM text:	Jennifer, T3 DBI
<p>Thomas (1995) states that politeness is interpreted as “a genuine desire to be pleasant to others, or as the underlying motivation for an individual’s linguistic behavior” (p. 150). <u>In other words</u>, politeness is the way employed to show consideration of another person’s face (Yule, 1985; 1996). Yule (1996) further explains that an attempt to save another’s face focuses on their <u>negative face and positive face</u>. <u>Negative face is</u> the need to be free from imposition while positive face is the need to be connected (LoCastro, 2011; Yule, 1987; 1996). <u>Based on this assumption</u>, Cutting (2008) and Yule (1996) propose that...</p>	<p>QS: What are the roles of these citations here?</p> <p>Jennifer: You mean why I use one source and then another source?</p> <p>QS: Yes.</p> <p>Jennifer: To <u>vary these sentences a bit</u>. <u>So that I feel it doesn’t look repetitive</u> – as here I was always explaining about politeness. And sources such as Yule... I was thinking <u>they are authoritative</u>, so I used what they said. I didn’t use my own words to say it in simpler ways.</p>

Figure 5-20 Example of using others' ideas to replace writer voice, Jennifer T2 OM

In this extract, each sentence contained reference to at least one source, and the sources were connected by being about the same topic. Jennifer here explained her intention to use these authors' ideas to develop a paragraph, instead of synthesising different positions according to her own understanding. It can be indicated that she relied on the sources' authoritative status to replace the authorial responsibility that she needed to take in making this argument.

Another reason was that links between two sources were taken from one of the sources. This has been found in three low-scorers in this study. For example, Mina explained her link making approach:

Mina T1 OM text:	Mina T2 DBI:
<p>There is no definitive “definition” of bilingual education because of its complexity. García (2011) gives a general idea: ... (block quote). <u>Although García agrees with Baker’s opinion</u> that people receiving bilingual education consists of different identities, she defines the basic and core principle of bilingual education, rather than differentiating one group of learners from another... Baker (2007) suggests a distinction between...</p>	<p>Maybe Garcia added the year number of Baker, but I didn’t. Because <u>it’s the same</u>, it’s said in this source... <u>It’s just Garcia cited Baker</u>. And Baker was recommended, so I used it - and Garcia happened to cite Baker as well. <u>It’s just giving a definition in the first paragraph, and then this person (Baker) has this view.</u></p>

Figure 5-21 Example of secondary referencing, Mina T1 OM

The language used in the text “Garcia agrees with Baker’s opinion” signals a link between the two sources. However, the first time the Baker source appeared, it was not followed by a date of publication. Mina’s interview comment confirmed that this was secondary referencing, that she read from Garcia (2011) first and retrieved the link between the two sources. Her comment “it’s the same” indicated that she regarded the two authors as the same source of information, and thus it could be inferred that she did not read both sources and arrive at the statement from her own comparison.

5.4.3 Reasons for not making links

Six participants (including all the three low-scorers) reported difficulties that prevented them from connecting sources, even though they knew that connecting sources was desirable. Most comments either referred to their deficiency in reading, or deficiency in the skills of integrating sources, or both. For example, Kim reflected on her source use in her T1 CM, for which she received a clear fail mark:

I used a lot of sources, but I didn’t digest their original viewpoints. I just wanted to show what I know, and I used the sources, but I couldn’t find ways to integrate them. (T2 DBI)

This comment shows both difficulty in understanding the sources’ stance or arguments, and difficulty in integrating ideas from sources in assignment writing. Similarly, Elsa commented:

I don’t know how to separate the points from the source into different parts of my writing... You need to have many people’s words in your writing, but you can’t think that much when you’re reading. That’s a big problem. (T2 SSI)

This points to disconnection between the reading and the writing stage. Reading was a way of grasping domain knowledge, and at that stage she could not envisage the overall aim of her assignment. This added to her difficulty in identifying stretches of information from source texts and re-organise them into her writing.

Other comments referred to general constraints of reading and writing under a limited time and the effects they had on integrating sources:

Olivia DS DBI: I just didn't think about all those other sources at the time of my writing. Sometimes when you're writing, your thinking is very restricted, you can only think about a few things.

Elsa T3 DBI: I'm just slowly having this awareness of linking sources. But it's hard to find a point matching, as different people have different views. They focus on different things. I can only say I'm trying to find other sources to link, on purpose. And my reading speed is very low, so still can't make it in time.

These comments point to a lack of time in reading and extracting points, and their limited attention to connections between sources under the pressure of finishing tasks on time. A further comment referred to difficulties in accessing sources that would allow link making:

Maybe it's up to my searching. Some articles, you didn't find them doesn't mean they don't exist. So maybe I've always been searching articles on the same aspect, but there are many other aspects that I didn't pay attention to, or have no access to. (Mina T3 SSI)

Mina here regarded her literature searching technique as a barrier to her knowing more fully about the topic and making meaningful links between sources.

5.4.4 Summary

Most participants were aware of the advantages of making links between sources, particularly in terms of strengthening their arguments by presenting multiple sources supporting the same statement. Relatively fewer, but still a majority, of the participants intended to contrast sources and show the difference between them. At the same time, half of the participants made these links in order to impress the marker with their amount of reading.

Apart from these direct intentions to show links between sources, further reasons include 1) an attempt to remedy existing weaknesses in description of sources; 2) the intention to rely on other sources' ideas and avoid the student writer's own analysis; 3) having obtained links from secondary sources (for three low-scorers). These were some underlying reasons that prompted participants to seek links between sources.

On the other hand, half of the participants (including three low-scorers) expressed difficulties in making links despite their wishes to do so. These include difficulties in finding sources from a wide range of perspectives, in extracting

information from sources at the reading stage, and in synthesising ideas effectively within the time constraints of given tasks.

5.5 Evaluation of sources

This section will present reasons for evaluation of sources. Some of the evaluation was achieved by making explicit evaluative comments on sources (Section 5.5.1), reasons of which included an intention to show authorial voice and meet with the requirement of criticality, a strategy of generating evaluation from the content of several sources, and a strategy of borrowing evaluation from secondary sources. One particular type of evaluation was achieved with the use of reporting phrases (Section 5.5.2), reasons of which included no particular consideration of the use of reporting structure devices, an intention to communicate the writer’s stance to the audience, and considerations of the language forms. In contrast, reasons for not showing evaluation (Section 5.5.3) included an unwillingness to criticise sources and difficulties in grasping authors’ stance in reading sources.

5.5.1 Reasons for making evaluative comments

Some of the evaluation on sources was achieved by making evaluative comments. Six participants reported a reason of showing their authorial stance and meeting the requirement of critical writing. This could apply to both theoretical and empirical work, for example:

<p>Elsa T1 CM: The notion of metacognition proposed by O’Brien Moran & Soiferman (2010) is a <u>very useful skill</u>.</p>	<p>Elsa T2 DBI: If I just say it, not mentioning ‘useful’, others won’t know what my attitude is like. <u>This is like my stance, my viewpoint, that this is good.</u></p>
<p>Fiona T1 OM: A study conducted on... showed that the error-corrections written feedback neither helped avoid surface-level errors nor improved to a significant extent L2 learners’ level of writing (Kepner, 1991). But this experiment <u>failed to consider other forms of feedback</u> which may play a positive role in the production of higher-level writing.</p>	<p>Fiona T2 DBI: QS: Why did you write this final sentence after citing this source? Fiona: Adding this sentence, <u>maybe my consideration was critical writing?</u> That what they say might not be totally true. They have some limitations.</p>

Figure 5-22 Examples of stating authorial stance, Elsa T1 and Fiona T1

Both Elsa and Fiona reported a reason to show “my stance, my viewpoint” and “critical writing”, showing that they were aware of the requirements of academic writing and found ways to achieve it through the use of evaluative comments.

Three high-scorers made evaluative comments because they read or interpreted such stances from several sources and were assured of the legitimacy of such comments. All of these occurred at the dissertation stage. For example,

Fiona LR text:	Fiona DS DBI:
<p>Second, different taxonomy systems have been developed to classify a wide list of learning strategies (Rubin, 1987; Oxford, 1990; O’Malley, et al. 1985; Stern, 1992), among which Oxford’ classification frame <u>is the most comprehensive and the validity has been confirmed</u> in subsequent research (Green, 1991; Hsiao & Oxford, 2002).</p>	<p>QS: Why did you say it “is the most comprehensive and the validity has been confirmed”? Fiona: many articles said this. I also cited this point. QS: Did they say validity was confirmed? Fiona: I wrote it mainly because of the fact that they used this classification...the validity must be rather high, and must not be low. But I don’t necessarily want to or need to prove here how high is the validity. It’s not like that.</p>

Figure 5-23 Example of interpretation from several sources, Fiona LR

The evaluative comment in text “...is the most comprehensive and validity has been confirmed” came from Fiona’s conclusion of several other sources. Her interview response at first indicates that those other sources contained the evaluative comment in her text, but a further probe suggests that the comment was based on the fact that many studies adopted the framework. It appears that Fiona made the evaluative comment based on her interpretation of a group of sources.

Different from the above, Isabel and Mina, two low-scorers, made evaluative comments based on what they read from another source, in essence using secondary evaluation. For example,

Isabel T2 OM text:	Isabel T3 DBI:
<p>In 1997, Frenck-Mestre and Prince conducted research about if L2 speakers show similar manner when using semantic information...Results showed that ... (Frenck-Mestre & Prince, 1997). <u>But their findings were questionable because</u>, even though bilingual participants’ L2 proficiency level as high, it has still not technically reached the L1 level. Altarriba and Canary (2014) explained that when using L2, bilinguals might not notice to semantic related words but the relation was not strong enough.</p>	<p>QS: Why did you say “questionable”? Isabel: It was when I read another source, I found this Altarriba and Canary 2014 source, who questioned this (findings from Frenck-Mestre and Prince), and they explained why. So they disapproved this, and reached a new conclusion.</p>

Figure 5-24 Example of describing evaluation from a secondary source, Isabel T2 OM

The text contains a negative comment on a study’s research findings. Isabel explained that she made the comment because she read it from another source, which was first found in yet another source. Her rationale here for making the evaluative comment appears to be merely describing what she read from sources, without involving her own thinking in reading.

5.5.2 Reasons for using reporting phrases

5.5.2.1 No consideration

Seven participants reported at some point that they had no consideration of their use of reporting verbs or phrases when they were writing. It was most prominent in Helena’s responses:

Helena T2 OM text:	Helena T3 DBI:
<p>Proficient readers could combine their own reading strategy well with the whole text compared to less skilled readers. Nicholson (1984) <u>noticed that some readers hardly use any reading strategies at all and they are not interested in reading as they read slowly.</u></p>	<p>QS: Why did you used ‘notice’ here? Helena: I think this all...<u>If what I’m saying is reasonable, all these things are OK, it doesn’t matter.</u> QS: You said you learned about reporting verbs in a course, do you use them? Helena: I would use <u>some very fundamental ones. Notice, point out, words like that.</u> QS: So why do you use these? Helena: It’s just <u>when I’m writing, only these words appear in my mind, so I used them.</u></p>

Figure 5-25 Example of having no consideration of the use of reporting verbs, Helena T2

Here, Helena clearly regarded the content as more important than her use of reporting verbs as one rhetorical device. She usually employed some widely used reporting verbs without thinking about their rhetorical meanings: from what she answered, it appears that she regarded “notice” and “point out” as having virtually the same meanings. She used the reporting verbs that were most familiar to her, and she put more focus on finishing the writing tasks.

5.5.2.2 To communicate stance

Five participants reported an intention to show their agreement with the sources with the use of positive evaluative verbs. For example, Elsa explained her use of “point out” in T2 OM assignment:

Elsa T2 OM text:	Elsa T3 DBI:
<p>Edwards and Willis (2005) ...believe that the task is aimed at providing a platform for learners to communicate meanings with others and complete certain goals collaboratively... Thornbury (2005) also <u>point out</u> that it is underpinned by the belief that using the language is the best way to learn a language...</p>	<p>I used 'point out' to say I agree with it, otherwise I wouldn't say so much about it, if it's the opposing view. If I use 'mention', I feel it's too slight, too weak. <u>I feel 'point out' can better emphasise my point, it's more persuasive.</u></p>

Figure 5-26 Example of using positive reporting phrases to show agreement, Elsa T2

Elsa intended to show her agreement with the source Thornbury (2005) by introducing it with a factual reporting phrase *point out* (see Hyland, 1999), which is the ideal expectation of students' use of reporting structures. She was also aware of the rhetorical difference between *point out* and other neutral alternatives, such as "mention". Elsa used reporting phrases here in order to add strength to her arguments and highlight her authorial voice.

Only Elsa and Jennifer, two high-scorers, reported an intention to show their disagreement with sources with the use of negative evaluative phrases. Both of these instances were about the verb "claim". For example:

Jennifer T1 OM text:	Jennifer T2 DBI:
<p>International target culture refers to...Mckay (2002) <u>claims</u> that various cultures puzzle students, <u>but it is argued that international target culture is the appropriate one to be introduced in the EFL classroom. In a research study, Otwinowska-kasztelanic (2011)</u> points out that...</p>	<p>Jennifer: <u>I used 'claim' here to show I don't agree with this point.</u> QS: And why is there no reference to 'it is argued that'? Jennifer: It's my own thoughts. And <u>later there was supportive research...</u> I said in a research study because it was an empirical study, using it would be more convincing.</p>

Figure 5-27 Example of using negative reporting verbs to show disagreement, Jennifer T1

Jennifer used the verb "claim" to show her disagreement with Mckay (2002). She made this *negative evaluation* in order to refute the stance she opposed, and then to lead to the position she wanted to support, that "international target culture is appropriate". She further supported her own argument with the source Otwinowska-kasztelanic (2011). As Jennifer explained, she also intended to highlight the empirical nature of the source by specifying "in a research study", so as to strengthen the credibility of the idea.

Five participants used neutral reporting phrases to show neutrality of their stance. For example, Olivia explained her predominant use of “according to” in her T1 OM:

I know I’ve used many ‘according to’ ... at that time I felt very much in a rush. ‘According to’ is just easy to use. Its tone is neither weak or strong. I wanted to keep it neutral. It’s the safest. You can’t be too extreme, and your argument can’t have personal tones. I think my ‘neutral’ means objective. (T2 DBI)

Olivia often intended to use “according to” to show her neutral stance, i.e. neither positive nor negative stance, towards sources. She also regarded having a generally neutral, impersonal stance as a feature of academic style, and intended to conform to this requirement. At the same time, her monotonous choice of reporting phrases was also due to time constraints of the writing task (“I felt very much in a rush”), and she used it in part because “it is easy to use”. This appears to be similar to the reason of “no consideration” presented above.

Further, seven participants intended to communicate their stance, but their choice of reporting phrases did not appear to match with their intended stance according to existing categorisations of reporting phrases (e.g. Hyland, 1999). For example:

Fiona T2 OM text:	Fiona T3 DBI:
<p>Studies have <u>demonstrated</u> that cultural backgrounds, motivation, ..., etc. have significant effects on learners’ use of strategies (4 references grouped). Reid (1987) <u>claimed</u> that ESL learners with different cultural backgrounds preferred different learning styles, based on a study of 1388 students in widespread intensive English language program in U.S... Green and Oxford (1995), following a study of 374 students in university of Puerto Rico, <u>argued</u> that both proficiency level and gender significantly affected learners’ use of specific strategies.</p>	<p>I feel in this sentence, <u>argue represents a meaning of strongly support</u>. And then claim...<u>claim should have similar meaning as argue</u>. So <u>you need to consider your attitude towards the conclusions</u> of these researchers...I also referred to that table I mentioned⁴, I would choose according to it.</p>

Figure 5-28 Example of intention to communicate stance, Fiona T2

Fiona was aware of the need to match reporting verbs with authorial stance overall, as shown in her comment “you need to consider your attitude...”. In the first sentence of

⁴ Since Term 1, Fiona reported to have referred to a table that lists reporting verbs with corresponding stances. The table was provided in the in-sessional EAP courses for international students.

her text, the verb *demonstrate* seems to be well-used for introducing a strong statement, as four sources supported the statement. However, the following verbs did not seem to match with her intended stance. *Claim* in the second sentence can be perceived as a device for showing disagreement. Fiona here perceived claim to “have similar meaning as argue”, which shows her lack of awareness of the potentially negative meaning contained in the verb. Further, her use of *argue* in the third sentence was intended to show her “strong support”, but the verb *argue* is usually regarded as a neutral verb. On the other hand, as seen in Section 2.4.4.2, categories of evaluative stance are only indicative, because the surrounding texts can easily change the rhetorical meaning of a certain reporting phrase. This may provide difficulties for the student writers to communicate their stance accurately to the audience.

5.5.2.3 Linguistic considerations

Seven participants articulated an intention to vary reporting phrases in their writing, e.g. “I just wanted to vary them” (Helena T2 DBI), “to use different words to express the same meaning. Using the same word all the way through is not very good” (Lucy T2 DBI). They regarded variation in reporting phrases as necessary in academic writing. Further, Isabel reported an even lazier approach to meeting with this self-interpreted requirement: “If I was going to use a reporting verb, very possibly I would end up with always the same verbs, so I just put these authors in brackets” (DS DBI). Isabel’s use of the non-integral citation form was in fact an attempt to avoid the choice of reporting phrases, instead of a thought-through decision to express the writers’ voice.

Five participants (three high-scorers and two mid-scorers) considered reporting phrases within the linguistic context. These include collocations of reporting phrases with the reported content, e.g. “I used the word *identify* here, because what follows is the word *factors*. They match better” (Fiona T3 DBI). Another example is the concern of how the reported content can be linguistically organised after the use of a reporting phrase. For example,

Lucy LR text:	Lucy DS DBI:
According to Paris (1983), reading strategies were “deliberate actions” and can be seen as “skills under consideration”.	I feel if I don’t use ‘according to’, I won’t be able to write this sentence clearly. This would help me express my meaning more clearly.

Figure 5-29 Example of linguistic concern on reporting phrase use, Lucy LR

Lucy’s choice of the reporting structure *according to* here was due to her concern of the clarity of the whole sentence. This suggests that Lucy had some difficulties in managing sentence clauses – she needed to use a subordinate clause to avoid interfering with the dominant clause. However, the use of *according to* here simply served as a neutral introductory phrase and did not help her convey her own stance.

Four participants used reporting phrases according to their meanings in their L1. For example, for Naomi’s use of *as Author + verb* structure, she explained: “from a translation point of view, it’s ‘just like he said’ in Chinese. So, I think adding this *as* means I also think in this way” (DS DBI). Olivia expressed her uncertainty over the meaning of *acknowledge*: “It was difficult when I learnt it. I looked it up in dictionary, which had example sentences, so I feel it should mean *Chengren* in Chinese (which has a meaning of *admittedly*). I’m not sure. I should study this word more” (T2 DBI). These comments suggest that they used L1 resources to interpret the rhetorical meanings of reporting phrases in L2. In addition, Naomi often used *according to* in her T2 assignment, to which she explained: “it’s like I only know this word...and I can’t find many alternatives. You can translate it into *genju* in Chinese. This should be my writing habit since high school or undergraduate time” (T3 DBI). It seems that previous literacy in L1 could have fossilised influence on Naomi’s reporting of sources.

5.5.3 Reasons for not showing evaluation

Three participants (Elsa, Jennifer and Kim) articulated reasons for not giving criticism on sources due to the higher status of sources, for example:

What I still lack is...If you give a source, I can’t find its weakness. So, I can’t achieve that critical analysis. Teachers said you need to look at their sample size and research methods etc., but I just feel those sources look so superior. I can’t find any (weakness), and I worry that I might be wrong if I talk about any weakness. So, I never questioned any source. (T3 SSI)

This comment reflects Elsa's perception of her status as a novice writer, and a lack of grounds to criticise other sources that she regarded as "superior" experts. What is also significant here is that Elsa regarded the requirement of "critical analysis" as merely finding weakness about sources.

By contrast, out of all the participants, only Olivia, a high-scorer, reported a generally sceptical attitude towards sources at the dissertation stage: "I don't really trust any studies. Because in my own research, I used the two software to test those two factors mentioned here, and they are not reliable at all" (DS DBI). Her critical attitude was gained after having the experience of testing out instruments used in published research studies. Deeper domain knowledge and hands-on practice with the instruments seemed to offer Olivia grounds to be more *critical*. However, what is telling is that even with Olivia's expression of criticism in the interview, she did not actually write negative comments about the two factors she questioned in her text. It seems that even with personal experience of using the instruments, Olivia was cautious about making negative judgements.

Three participants articulated their difficulty in grasping the author's stance as the reason for them remaining a neutral stance. For example, Kim stated:

Although reporting verbs were covered in class, I still can't have my own ideas. Like after reading this experiment, how do you know whether it has an uncertain attitude to say this? Or is it certain? So, you would hesitate over the verb, whether 'show' or 'stated' would be better. I hesitate and sometimes I would select a conservative one, one which won't trigger alternative meanings. (T2 SSI)

Kim was a low-scorer, and the only participant who reported that "often [she] cannot understand the sources" (T3 SSI). The comment here reveals her intention to use a non-committal reporting verb to hide her lack of understanding of the sources' stance. Similarly, Olivia, a high-scorer, also reported difficulties in reporting sources:

Like I read, Smith said something, as cited in another source... When I have found the Smith source, it's very hard for me to find the corresponding sentence... So, I don't know whether the author suggests, claims or believes. I can only adopt a rather neutral way to paraphrase their words. I also have used first-hand sources when I read, for this I'm more certain. I can use more specific words to write it. (T2 DBI)

Olivia’s difficulty here refers to reading secondary information and where the original words were difficult to locate. In this case, a lack of grasp of the original author’s stance was caused by reading a rephrased version from another author, instead of difficulty in understanding per se.

This difficulty in grasping author’s stance can be further indicated from two participants’ interview comments. For example, Helena used the same reporting verb as the source text:

Helena LR first draft:	Helena DS DBI comment:
For Chinese MA students, this one-year MA study in the UK might offer them a great chance to communicate English with people, to actively use English in everyday life, and greatly improve their English-speaking proficiency as well. <u>Beliefs hold that</u> it is a good way for EFL learners to immerse to an English spoken country to achieve their English-speaking skills (Freed, 1995).	I wrote ‘beliefs’ because <u>Freed the source mentioned ‘belief...holds’</u> . <u>And it is a thing that everybody knows</u> . So, I just directly used the word...I just searched “study abroad”, and the source in introduction mentioned these sentences.
<p>Foreword of Freed 1995 source: “As a number of the authors in the volume acknowledge, <u>beliefs about the special value of study abroad are widely held</u> among language learners and members of the language teaching profession...”</p> <p>“The effect of this pervasive ‘<u>myth</u>’ about second language acquisition has <u>never</u>, to my knowledge, been systematically explored...” (p.2)</p>	

Figure 5-30 Example of misunderstanding source text, Helena LR

Helena reported to have adopted the reporting verb “beliefs hold that” from the original source. I therefore traced the source and found the extracts Helena referred to. Looking at only the first sentence from the original source here, it seems that Helena was trying to stay truthful to the author’s stance by using exactly the same reporting expression. Looking further at other parts of the source, it becomes salient that Helena only read the sentence containing the keyword “study abroad” but did not read further to comprehend the author’s stance. In fact, Freed (1995) was an edited book containing studies on the effects of study abroad, and the foreword section served the role of introducing the field. Just immediately after the paragraph Helena read, the author stated “this...myth...has never...been systematically explored”. The sentence laid the foundation for the studies that followed in the book, which were arranged to address this gap by providing empirical findings. As Helena only read the surface meaning of one sentence, she could not identify the author’s shrewd rhetorical strategy of downplaying the argument first and then supporting it with more strength.

Helena's case here clearly shows her deficiency in grasping the author's stance due to a surface reading approach, although she was not consciously aware of this.

5.5.4 Summary

First, most participants attempted to make some evaluative comments in order to show their attitudes towards sources and to meet the requirement of criticality in academic writing. Three high-scorers generated evaluative comments from their interpretation and conclusions made through several sources, while two low-scorers merely described evaluation from one single secondary source.

Second, the use of reporting structures presented a more complex picture. Most participants used reporting phrases according to their intended stance on several occasions. Meanwhile, their intended stance did not always match with the conventional interpretation of the reporting phrases they used. This may suggest occasional inappropriate use of reporting phrases, but a few instances may also question the very idea that certain reporting phrases should always carry corresponding stances.

In contrast to the intentions to show stance, most participants at various points had no consideration of their use of reporting phrases. It appears that although they were aware of reporting phrases' stances and used them occasionally, they did not consistently consider stance in their reporting phrase use. Various types of linguistic concerns were also prevalent, including considerations of using a variety of reporting phrases, of sentence structure (found in high and mid-scorers), and of reporting phrases' meanings in the participants' L1.

On a different note, it can also be seen that most of the evaluative devices used by the students were evaluative adjectives, direct statements (Section 5.5.1), and reporting phrases (Section 5.5.2), while a wider range of devices available as shown in the literature (Section 2.5.4) was seldom found in this study. This suggests participants' somewhat limited use of various types of evaluative devices.

Third, reasons for not showing evaluation included 1) an understanding that academic texts are objective and shall not involve subjective opinions; 2) a perception of themselves as novice writers and source texts as experts that cannot be critiqued; 3)

difficulty in grasping the source author's stance and therefore difficulty in representing the author's stance in their own writing. The final reason also involved difficulty in locating information in the original text when reading a secondary source.

Chapter 6 Results - input on source use

6.0 Introduction

This chapter will address RQ3—*What formal and informal support do students receive on source use?* The chapter will present and analyse the impact of various sources of input on students' actual and reported source use. Section 6.1 will present input from support resources and workshops, including handbooks, one-off workshops or courses on source use from the university and within the department. Section 6.2 will present input from an in-sessional EAP programme (the DEL courses), which contained dedicated support on academic writing. Section 6.3 will present input on source use within students' subject learning in the department. This includes subject tutors' guidance inside and outside of the classroom, supervision meetings, and the important element of formative and summative feedback from written assessments. Participants' responses to the feedback will also be discussed in detail. Section 6.4 will deal with informal input (i.e. not provided by the university or department), including reading other texts and communication with peers. Finally, Section 6.5 will present participants' overall comments on the support system and their self-perceived development of source use over the year.

6.1 Support resources and workshops

This section will present types of input organised by the Northern University or the education department where the participants studied. The resources and workshops discussed here were add-on, i.e. not a part of students' degree learning and not credit-bearing. Most of such support was optional; although students were strongly recommended to attend some of the courses, attendance could not be guaranteed. These included university and departmental handbooks, a study skills workshop, library and IT workshops on referencing, the Turnitin workshop, a dedicated workshop to source use, and the writing centre.

6.1.1 University and departmental handbooks

The university provided a set of handbooks on referencing styles, including APA style that students in the education department used. The department provided a guide on writing assignments and dissertations, which also included a section on using APA

style. Interestingly, the department guide also provided some advice on effective source use, including avoiding plagiarism, using quotes sparingly, and how to use reporting phrases appropriately (one and a half page in total). This latter is more about avoiding informal phrases, but it also introduced the negative evaluative connotation in the verb “claim”. A screenshot of these pages can be found in Appendix 8.

Eight participants reported to have consulted the handbooks for their use of the referencing style during Term 1 and Term 2. Four of these participants regarded the handbooks as useful, for example: “They are good because the examples are very detailed. How to cite a book, a journal article, one, two or three authors; articles on website or some other sources” (Olivia T2 SSI). Only Kim mentioned the advice on avoiding secondary referencing. No other participant mentioned anything other than the APA referencing style, as a result of consulting the departmental handbook.

6.1.2 Study skills workshop

The education department organised a time-tabled workshop on study skills for all MA students at the beginning of Term 1, which covered “referencing and the appropriateness of sources” (departmental programme handbook, p. 35).

Two participants described attending this workshop in detail. For example, Isabel reported:

In the class, first the teacher talked generally about how to cite. He gave a handout with a piece of writing full of completely wrong citations, and he asked us to find out which ones are wrong. We just discussed with a peer to find out the mistakes, and he then gives the answers to us. There were all sorts of mistakes, including within the essay and in the reference list. But to be honest my impression is not so deep. After correction, it was finished. (Isabel, T2 SSI)

It appears that the workshop provided students with the opportunities to identify errors in referencing style through examining examples and then group discussions. On the other hand, from Isabel’s experience, she seems to have expected more from such an activity and felt that she did not benefit fully from this support on referencing style.

6.1.3 Library and IT workshops on referencing

The university information department offered workshops on reference management software. Five participants reported to have attended these workshops. Three participants commented positively on the introduction of referencing management tools, for example:

This week I went to the Endnote session. I feel it's very magical. When reading sources, I can immediately write down my thoughts and then turn it into the first draft. If you download the articles into the file storage, and you type the author's name the file just pops out. I feel this is really so convenient. (Helena T2 SSI)

Helena here commented on the efficiency such tools could bring to her management of sources and to her recording of notes during reading.

Only Elsa, a high-scorer, mentioned a point other than software tools in attending one such workshop: “that library workshop also mentioned, you have to find evidence and be critical, but I still don't know what that means” (Elsa T3 SSI). Elsa was reminded of the need to use evidence from sources but did not understand the practical means to achieve it after attending this workshop. Such lack of mentioning of salient issues such as criticality in one-off courses will be further discussed in Section 7.6.1.

6.1.4 Turnitin workshop

The university's academic support office organised a one-hour training workshop on Turnitin software for all new students in Term 1, which was usually delivered by PhD students working as graduate teaching assistants. The workshops aimed at informing students of how to use the text matching software and how to interpret instances of text matching in the originality reports. Definitions of paraphrasing, summarising and synthesising sources were also briefly covered. After the workshop, students were expected to use the software for self-checking before submitting their coursework.

When asked what type of input they received on source use, seven participants mentioned this Turnitin workshop. Elsa and Helena described what they learned from it and suggested that they benefitted from it in general, for example:

We had a tutorial, showing you examples of what counts as plagiarism and what not, using turnitin. I also learnt that similarity index percentage does not mean

whether you've plagiarized or not, but some places if you don't use quotation marks when you quote, that's a very fatal instance (Elsa T2 SSI).

Elsa reported to have understood more about how to identify plagiarism and what the text matching index represented. Interestingly, no other participant specifically mentioned the similarity index or reported whether they had used it as an indication of the quality of source use in their writing. The interpretation of the similarity index in Turnitin system is likely to be confusing for new users, but here only one student reported caution on its use.

In contrast to Elsa and Helena's responses, four participants (three low-scorers and one high-scorer) regarded the workshop as unhelpful. For example,

I've been to the Turnitin workshop, but I didn't use the software. The session talked about sources...I think it's so complicated...They said sources with different mark tag, what red represents and what other colours represent. I felt rather confused when I was in the session. (Jennifer T2 SSI)

Jennifer here reported to be confused about the content of the workshop. It was somehow alarming that she, a high-scorer, did not go through the plagiarism-checking procedure before submitting her work. This suggests that the Turnitin workshop did not raise enough awareness from these students for plagiarism and source use. It may be due to the fact that they were new to the UK education system when they received this workshop, and that this workshop covering a range of topics of source use was only one-hour long. Students might not have sufficient time to understand and think over the content before it was over.

6.1.5 Departmental workshop on source use

In Term 3, before the dissertation stage, an optional workshop was available on how to use sources in dissertation writing. The workshop was delivered by an academic in the department with particular interest and expertise in academic writing. The course materials were based on rhetorical functions of citations as proposed in Petric's (2007) study of Master's students' citation use in dissertation writing. Each function was first explained, and then some exercises asked students to match the functions with sample sentences, in order to enhance students' understandings of these functions. Finally, two example paragraphs of synthesis of sources were shown, one successful and one less successful, and students were invited to comment on them.

Of the five participants who attended the workshop, all commented positively in the main. For example, Kim reported what she learned from the workshop in the following way:

He listed each function clearly and gave many examples, like what this function means, what is its underlying meaning. I think this is very good. For us international students, teachers often say you need to have argument, topic sentence and counterargument, but we never thought of why to propose it – it's like to propose for no reason.... So I understood that every citation should have an underlying message, not just to cite for the sake of citations. In the past no teacher had said this to us... And I was excited to know about literature review. In my mind I thought literature review is to say someone has done what, pile them up, but after that workshop I knew it's not like this. Like you need to find out what these studies have in common, under what condition were they conducted, and what can we conclude based on different conditions - so there is a line running through. (T3 SSI)

It is clear that Kim regarded the workshop as helpful for her writing, and that the content was new to her. Kim recognised the main message of the workshop, that the act of attributing sources should have purposes in sentences and texts. This was a point she reported to be unaware of before the workshop. Likewise, she previously regarded the literature review chapter as a list of “who has done what” and an act of “piling them up”, but she changed this misconception after learning that sources can be compared with each other, and common points can be found. It seems that for Kim, a low-scorer, learning about source use functions in this way enabled her to go beyond her initial understanding source use - attribution merely for the purpose of supporting a single statement.

Naomi seemed to focus on a different aspect of the workshop when reporting its value for her:

Although it taught you how to give examples, show evaluation and comparison etc., actually when I write I just use citations, I wouldn't think of the function... But the part teaching how to integrate sources in a paragraph is useful. I think this is difficult. You can put a single source about what somebody did, just putting it there. But if you put many studies together, your paragraph needs to have logic... with those examples given, I can learn from them. (T3 SSI)

Naomi was an overall strong student, who actively sought advice on source use from her supervisor. In previous terms, Naomi had claimed that she knew about the need to have purposes for citations, unlike Kim above who regarded this as new information

never known before. Naomi's comment "I just use citations, I wouldn't think of the function" may imply that she was already using some rhetorical functions unconsciously in her writing, which was evident in her T2 OM assignment (see her extract in Section 4.6.2). This confirms that students assimilate into the discourse of academic writing in ways that they cannot always verbalise. Instead of focusing on individual functions of citations, Naomi regarded the sample paragraph of synthesis more useful, and expressed her willingness to learn from it. This suggests Naomi's attention to discourse level source use instead of merely sentence level.

In contrast, Lucy's comment below reveals her difficulties in transferring source use knowledge into her own writing practice, and it indicates that she benefitted less from the workshop:

Most of it was what I already knew, only that maybe it makes more specific categories...But some of these maybe are divided in a too detailed way, and itself has some overlap – maybe we as the audience would feel there's no need to have such a detailed division of source use...Overall, I've been to several workshops of this type. I feel these things appear vague when you say it. I feel, even if explained, when you actually use it, it's not the same. (T3 SSI)

This comment shows a belief about her inability to turn declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge - she seemed frustrated by the fact that she "already" knew some of the content of the workshop but was unable to use this knowledge in her own writing. More practice is surely needed for such knowledge transfer, and perhaps students should see such advice as only an entry point to their learning.

6.1.6 The writing centre

The university's writing centre offered support on academic writing for taught Master's students studying any subject. Students could book 15-minute or 50-minute appointments with a writing tutor to discuss a sample of their written work (from the Northern University website). It was specified that the tutor would not offer proofreading, but only comment on the argument and structure.

During whole programme, only two participants reported to have used the service. Elsa, a high-scorer, visited the centre twice. In terms of source use, one of the appointments helped to clarify summative feedback comments on Elsa's T1 CM assignment:

The writing centre was a great help for me. They gave me much feedback. They said that I over relied on each source, which was not convincing...They said I need to find many sources, and put them together in a paragraph. They talked about this clearly. (T2 DBI)

Elsa understood better that she needed to synthesise various sources instead of relying on a few sources.

Lucy, a mid-scorer, visited the centre during the dissertation stage for advice in addition to marginal feedback from her supervisor, and edited one instance of her source use as a result of the appointment:

Lucy LR final draft:	Lucy DS DBI:
<p>(heading) 2.6.1 Previous Studies on Offline Reading Strategies</p> <p>One of the most popular inventory in use is the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS), which was developed by Sheorey and Mokhtari in 2001. This questionnaire was designed for... Results showed that ... it reported a higher use of strategies among L2 learners rather than native speakers, especially for support strategies. <u>This study is the first one that employed the SORS. Later on, several other research investigating reading strategies chose to use this taxonomy as well (Zhang and Wu, 2009; Tien & Talley, 2014).</u></p>	<p>QS: I noticed that these bits (the underlined sentences) were not present in your first draft...why did you add this?</p> <p>Lucy: The person at the writing centre said, <u>if you write this study, you need to say why to discuss this study</u>. If you put it here, what purpose do you think it would bring to your own study - you need to write that reason.</p>

Figure 6-1 Example of editing source use after visiting the writing centre, Lucy DS

Lucy presented her draft of this section in the appointment. She received the advice of highlighting the purpose of describing this research study and the insights it would bring to her own study. As a result, Lucy here added to her first draft the role of Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001) source in similar studies – that it was the first one to employ this instrument, which became adopted in following studies. Lucy appears to have benefitted from this advice, which was grounded in feedback on concrete examples of her written work.

On the other hand, Fiona reported constraints in the booking system that prevented her from using this service: “I tried to book an appointment with the writing centre, but it was too late. They were already on leave for the Christmas holiday, so I couldn’t make it” (T2 SSI). Nevertheless, she and other participants still had opportunities for using the service in later terms, but they did not do so.

To sum up, although only two participants used the writing centre services, they reported clear benefits from this. There was also evidence in one case (Lucy) that a draft was improved as a result of the appointment. Elsa understood more clearly her weaknesses of over relying on sources after receiving one-to-one explanation of her feedback report. Lucy added further comments to a source she used after describing it, as a result of receiving focused feedback from the writing centre.

6.1.7 Summary

Overall, at the institutional and departmental levels, many types of support provided related to study skills (four out of six types of support investigated in Sections 6.1.1 to 6.1.4), such as using the referencing style and using reference management tools. These included paper-based handbooks as well as interactive workshops aimed at enhancing these skills. These technicality-focused workshops on referencing were deemed necessary from the participants' perspectives. In contrast, the workshop on using text-matching software did not seem to impact particularly positively on the participants, as some of them reported that they did not understand the content covered in the workshop and did not use the tool for self-checking for possible plagiarism.

In contrast to the four types of study skills support above, the other two types involved usage of citations and sources in specific texts. A workshop dedicated to source use within the department was an innovative approach. The participants who attended it mostly regarded it as useful, as it provided examples of source use in specific contexts and offered a subject lecturer's judgement on them. On one hand, a high-scorer (Naomi) regarded it as implicit knowledge, and reported that the workshop simply made it explicit. However, making such knowledge explicit in itself could not ensure the ability to put it into practice, as revealed in Lucy's case. Similarly, the two participants (one high-scorer and one mid-scorer) who had face-to-face appointments with writing centre tutors seemed to benefit from the experience, perhaps because advice was focused specifically on source use in their coursework. Unfortunately, other participants made no use of the writing centre services during the entire programme.

6.2 Input from in-sessional EAP programme

An in-sessional EAP programme was delivered by the university's English Language Teaching Centre but organised within the department of Education, hence named the Departmental English Language (DEL) Courses. It targeted all international students enrolled into the MA programmes in the department. It ran throughout three terms, with two hours per week for eight weeks during Term 1 and 2, and five weeks for Term 3. Support in Term 3 primarily focused on dissertation writing (departmental programme handbook, p. 34-35). The courses in Term 1 also included a mini-assignment task (500 words) as one overall outcome. The task was about one chosen topic in students' programme of study, and it required using academic sources. The course tutors gave feedback on each student's writing, and each student was invited to a 15-minute one-to-one tutorial with their tutor.

The course handouts were examined for their coverage of source use. According to the handouts provided by the programme administrator, it appears that most areas set out in this study had been covered in the course. There were activities on technical referencing conventions, summarising and quotation, reporting phrases and their semantic and rhetorical effects, tenses in reporting phrases, integral and non-integral citations, how to synthesise sources, and how to evaluate sources. The two tables below summarise the coverage of source use topics in the course materials, in terms of general aspects of source use and referencing (Table 6-1), and more specifically the rhetorical aspects of source use (Table 6-2). Foci and types of the activities are outlined, and examples of task prompts in the materials are shown.

Table 6-1 DEL course materials on general aspects of source use and referencing

Focus	Type of activity	Example task prompts	Amount of coverage (by A4 size pages)
Writing a reference list	Reading - Awareness raising	Study the example (of a reference list) below in small groups and try to work out the APA style rules for writing a list of references. You should find at least ten rules	One page
Introduction to citations	Reading - Awareness raising	Look at text 1 and 2, in groups, discuss your text and pick out the key points: author's main viewpoint/idea; main ideas/points from the text	Half a page
	Group discussion	Why is it important to acknowledge sources?	Half a page
Summarising	Choose the appropriate	Read the original text, and read the two summaries. Which is a well-written summary, and which is unacceptable summary?	One page
	List of tips	For your summary, read the source text and look at the structure: which parts of the text will be useful for identifying main ideas for a summary?	One-third of a page
Direct quotations	Reading - Awareness raising	Look at the example, what kind of information comes before and after the quotation?	One-third of a page
	List of tips	Select only direct quotes that make the most impact in your work	One-third of a page
Summarising and quoting	Writing in class	Write a paragraph for your mini-assignment, citing one of your sources, incorporating your summary (and direct quotation, if appropriate) into your paragraph	One-third of a page
Errors in referencing	Troubleshooting	What are the problems and how should these references be correctly presented? – e.g. As Mary points out, 'no state has yet opposed such legislation'.	Half a page

Table 6-2 DEL course materials on rhetorical aspects of source use

Focus	Type of activity	Example task prompts	Amount of coverage
Integral and non-integral citations	Reading - Awareness raising	What is the difference between the two examples of source use, and what effect does each have? Read the following extract and comment on the use of the two approaches described above.	One page
Reporting verbs	Reading - Awareness raising	Look at the reporting verbs in your source texts... Which verbs are used? What are they used for?	One-fifth of a page
	Identify/ Categorise	What would you use the following verbs for? Match each verb with the category it belongs to. (e.g. reporting authors' ideas; reporting research evidence; reporting a claim)	One-third of a page
	Examples - Awareness raising	These structures are frequently used in academic writing: note the grammar and punctuation. (Jones (2012) states that.../ As Jones (2012) states.../.... (Jones, 2012). Which of the three structures is often preferred, and why?	One-third of a page
Verb tenses in reporting	Examples - Awareness raising	In academic writing, the choice of verb and the choice of tense is used to signal currency and distance of ideas. Is the choice of tense significant in each example below? (Hint: think about the writer's intention)	Two pages
Synthesising sources	List of tips	Stages in synthesising sources. E.g., step 5: look for common points in texts. Use colours to highlight similarities. List any similarities you find on one piece of paper.	One page
	Practice task	Read the three passages below on preparing for a class or lecture. Highlight the parts in each passage that are similar in meaning.	One page
Synthesising sources in critical writing	Reading - Awareness raising	Analyse the following text, notice how citation of each source is integrated into the writer's argument. E.g., does the writer indicate agreement or disagreement with each source?	Two pages
LR: critical evaluation of sources	List of tips	Criteria for evaluating sources: e.g., Does the source compare well with others? If yes/no, then why?	One page
LR: organizing, evaluating and synthesising sources to support your argument	Reading – awareness raising	Look at this extract from a study on Mature Students...how does the writer use sources to support his argument? Note any examples of useful phrases for: Evaluating/commenting on sources; summarising studies; noting/commenting on similarities/differences between studies	Three pages

It can be seen that many aspects of source use were covered in the materials, but each aspect only occupied one or two pages. Further, these materials were available to all tutors on the course, but it was also possible that some individual tutors might use them selectively. Some materials might not be used by all the students, and they may not have been used in the same ways. Unfortunately, it was not possible to collect data on this variety. Practical constraints of time and timetables meant that it was simply not possible to interview all teachers or observe how they used the materials in the classroom.

Tutor A, an EAP programme leader, commented in the interview on the amount of time they usually devoted to source use in an in-session programme:

Tutor A: In term 1, we only have 8 sessions in 8 weeks...in the second lesson we introduce a reading circle, by which I mean students get used to an academic text, an academic journal...Session 4, it's only one session out of eight, we spend about the entire lesson talking about citing sources, use evidence to support points in arguments. These are not isolated points, they are all interconnected. The sources connect to the arguments. We tend to do that in follow-up sessions as well.

QS: Do you think the students you have taught are able to meet the challenges of achieving successful source use in their MA programmes?

Tutor A: ...I can fully believe that there are academics who mark their assignment, they still criticise their use of sources...We only have students for two hours a week, and students are very busy doing other things. I think we have to be realistic about what we can achieve. But I feel confident that we are giving the students, at least those who are listening, the right information.

Source use was the main focus of one session out of eight in Term 1. Later terms did not have sessions specifically on source use, although it may be addressed indirectly through writing activities. Tutor A also indicated that the overall time of in-session courses was rather insufficient for observing students' improvement in academic writing, but expressed a confidence that the tutors made their best attempts in teaching source use within the time limits of the courses.

Tutor A also commented on the nature of the EAP programmes they ran in terms of their connection with academic staff in departments. The following excerpt was about departments in general in the Northern University:

I think some academics are less than helpful when they share information...departments need to give information for me to support students. ...they need to tell me things such as assignment titles, sources they

suggest, assessment criteria, expectations, good and bad exemplars, what they want their students to avoid. Language is a changing phenomenon, different lecturers have different interpretations. So different departments have different expectations.

Clearly, tutor A acknowledged the variety in academic literacy practices used in different departments and disciplines. Tutor A expected more input from academic departments, which was however sometimes not achieved. In contrast, the case for the education department was different:

I'm lucky because for Education department, the person who's running the MA TESOL programme is someone I work with closely for all the time I'm here at the Northern university. He himself has run pre- and in-session programmes. He's now more on the academic side of things. So he sees things from both perspectives. So he as an academic understands what me and other EAP practitioners need to do, want to do, can do and should do. So he's helpful. In general, the education staff are very helpful. But unfortunately, there are other academics who are oblivious, and less than helpful.

From Tutor A's perspective, the education department therefore seems to be a special case among all departments. The co-working relationship between tutor A and the academic programme leader was unique; the perception that "the education staff in general are very helpful" could also be related to the fact that many academics in the discipline worked with language teaching – they might therefore be more likely to recognise the value of EAP support. This situation is different from their relationship with some other academic departments that Tutor A reported above.

6.2.1 Positive knowledge gains

Overall, although the course materials suggest almost full-rounded coverage of source use, most participants did not recount this support in detail in interviews. This was not surprising, as students are often not at the same cognitive level as course instructors and might not understand the purpose of doing certain activities in class. Another issue was the difficulty in recalling learning input after several weeks. However, it should be assumed that participants would be able to give some descriptions of the learning incidents that were most impressive to them. On the other hand, there was also diversity among participants' recall of such source use input, which might be because of their individual sensitivity to input as well as different teaching approaches by various EAP tutors (they may have had any one out of seven tutors).

As a result of attending the DEL courses, seven participants recalled knowledge points of source use, pointing to what topics had been covered and what advice were given in class. These comments usually referred to a rule of source use that they needed to follow. For example, in her T1 assignment, Isabel (a low-scorer) used a particular reporting verb *claim* for a study that she described without any indication of disagreement. When Isabel was asked about the reason for her use, she recalled the knowledge she gained about reporting verbs in T1 DEL courses:

I didn't pay attention to that (her use of *claim*) at all. I just thought a word needs to be here to state their point. This term, not long ago, the course has mentioned this (reporting verbs). Particularly, they gave a handout with a list of such verbs, like some are neutral, some are negative, some are to support. Only now do I know these words can't be used randomly. (Isabel T2 DBI)

This refers to understanding the affective connotations of reporting verbs, which Isabel did not know before attending this class. However, knowing that they were not random was not the same as knowing how to use them appropriately. In the following term, she avoided using evaluative reporting phrases and adopted a neutral approach to source use - she used mainly non-integral forms and neutral phrases such as *according to* and *explain*. This might have been influenced by her learning the functions of different reporting phrases, so that she avoided what might be accused of inappropriate use. However, she also fell short of showing her evaluative stance, in contrast to the expected outcomes of such teaching.

On the other hand, Olivia, a high-scorer, referred to learning about the degree of commitment in reporting verbs:

This term we learned more about this. The teacher told us that actually the degree (of your attitude) can be light or heavy, and you can use hedging to show your certainty, like the difference between *suggest* and *claim*. Now I think about this, I need to consider carefully and improve. (T2 DBI)

Several keywords of commitment were reported. She expressed a need to further apply such knowledge in her own writing. At the dissertation stage, she also reported that she “would now try to use reporting verbs accurately, like using stronger verbs if the author is assertive” (T3 SSI). This seems to be her sustained concern after she learned about this device. However, both Olivia and Isabel's comments were about learning the rules of reporting phrase use; there was no evidence that the phrases were

presented or exemplified in actual texts. In fact, an example of reporting verbs presented in categorising activities and isolated sentences can be found in the DEL materials (Appendix 9).

Apart from reporting phrases, a few comments referred to practical tips for paraphrasing, for example:

The teacher said as beginners you don't know very well how to paraphrase, it's better if you write your paraphrase after reading. Then use your own words to paraphrase that note again. That was very interesting (Helena T1 SSI).

Helena here reported to benefit from advice on paraphrasing as a result of attending EAP courses, and this was about the process of reading and writing. However, this important knowledge gain was not reported by any other participant, which suggests that the DEL courses might not have foregrounded it enough.

Some participants recalled analogies EAP tutors made for them to understand abstract concepts, for example:

I asked what description is. The teacher said being descriptive is something you can't refute. If it's good, it's good. It's like a fact. Argument is controversial, somebody said this is good and somebody said this is not good. Only that counts as argument. (Kim T2 DBI)

Kim here appears to understand the difference between description and argument from the tutor's analogy. However, she still scored low overall, suggesting overall descriptive writing, which was also explicitly criticised in her T2 OM assignment (see her feedback comment in Section 6.3.4 later). It was not clear whether Kim made use of this explanation of criticality or made any progress in showing criticality in her writing.

6.2.2 Students' experience of learning: Activities and contextual source use

Reporting knowledge gains is different from reporting experiences of actual writing practices or activities in class. Being able to recall the latter suggests deeper impression on the input, which could have helped in learning how to apply the advice. Four participants (two high-scorers and two mid-scorers) recalled several in-class activities where they noticed source use conventions in concrete excerpts of academic

writing. For example, Helena described the activity that made her aware of the importance of giving evidence to claims in Term 2:

We learned this through a game. There were three types of cards, claim, example, evidence, followed immediately by counter-claim. A structure like this. We needed to sequence them for writing a paragraph. By the end, the teacher gave an example paragraph, saying which sentence is claim and which sentence is evidence. This really made the paragraph structured. Then I knew, oh, really there is no *I think*, and the claim needs to be followed by very coherent citations of sources. (T2 SSI)

Helena recorded the components of writing a paragraph in detail, and noted the connection between claim, example and evidence. During the activity, she also reflected on her own language use in writing her T1 OM assignment - she repeatedly used the phrase *I think* to propose her own arguments, which was criticised in the feedback. She further enhanced her understanding of why phrases suggesting personal opinions should be avoided, and that academic arguments need to be built up using references to relevant sources.

Lucy provided a different example of how she benefited from a practice activity on citation functions, in particular gaining understanding of the use of secondary citations:

They let us practice writing paragraphs ourselves, in which citations were needed -but they didn't say specifically how to cite. They gave use two articles and asked us to write a paragraph based on the two articles. Some student cited the other authors mentioned in the two articles. The tutor then said you can't do this, you haven't read the other authors, you can only say what this author said about what other authors said. You can only do secondary citation. No other course has talked about these things (Lucy T2 SSI).

This instance was an opportunity for practicing source use in a specific context. As shown in the course handout (Appendix 9), the exercise seems to aim at training students' synthesising skills from more than one source. However, what Lucy took forward here was more about the need to signal secondary citations correctly. This perhaps suggests her attention to technical skills instead of rhetorical use when absorbing input. At the same time, no other participant remembered this instance or commented on the activity.

The activities so far were based in the classroom, and the texts involved in the activities did not have direct connection with students' own writing tasks for module assessment. Only two instances referred to source use advice that was connected to students' own contexts of writing. Jennifer (a high-scorer) reported her tutor's advice tailored to her own work:

Jennifer: We were asked to write two paragraphs of an assignment. Then my tutor, according to our individual situations, said what to pay attention to about citations. It was one-to-one, and the tutor told me that with citations, you can't just describe it - you need to say why do you need to use this citation, you need to explain your reasons and your view on the citation...I had rather little of this in my two paragraphs. This point was rather helpful for my future writing. (T2 SSI)

Jennifer understood the need to have purposes for citations she used, instead of merely describing them. This advice was based on her own writing - she was pointed to specific instances of descriptive source use in her own text. This instance was similar to Lucy's gains from an appointment with the writing centre (Section 6.1.6), but here it occurred within the EAP programme.

Similarly, Fiona (also a high-scorer) showed her draft of her T2 CM assignment to her EAP tutor, and received some advice on using sources:

About my definition of 'examination', at first, I did not know what to do with so many definitions from all these sources. Then my (EAP) tutor said, instead of fixing on one definition, I could characterise them, like, describe the features of different definitions. So finally, I gave an overview and summed up these definitions. (T3 DBI)

Fiona actively sought advice from her tutor, and finally adopted the tutor's suggestion of an approach that would provide a synthesis of definitions, instead of selecting only one source to discuss. This showed one instance of how personal-tailored advice influenced Fiona's change of citation choice from originally stand-alone attribution of one source to synthesis of several sources.

According to the DEL course outline, every student had an opportunity of a 15-minute one-to-one tutorial with their tutor at the end of Term 1 to discuss their mini-assignment writing. However, only two participants here reported gains from such tailored input. This may be because other students did not receive advice on source

use, which is unsurprising, given the very short duration of the tutorial and the wide range of topics in academic writing that need addressing. Another possibility is that some other students also received advice on source use in such tutorials but did not recall such events in interviews. They might not be able to associate concrete instances, or other abstract areas of academic writing, with the concept of source use. An example of this was Isabel's separated conceptualisation of criticality/arguments and source use (to be shown in Section 6.4.4; Section 6.5.2). In other words, they may have been pointed to issues of disconnected arguments or descriptive writing, but they failed to see these as relevant to ineffective source use. Overall, it seems that source use support was not sufficiently tailored to the participants' own writing.

6.2.3 Summary

The in-session EAP programme was a main venue of learning source use for the participants, as revealed by the fairly wide coverage of source use topics in materials. This coverage was not fully reported by the participants, which may be due to difficulty in recall, but is more likely due to its limited impression on students. When participants reported experiences of learning, most of them articulated source use rules that they needed to follow. Only a few high and mid-scorers reported activities in which they learned about the contexts of source use, and even fewer accounts pointed to the experience of practising writing from sources in the classroom. It might be that the participants did not see such events as relevant to their learning of source use; only by practice could this input work towards *intake* and *uptake* of source use skills, rather than by simply raising some awareness. Further, only two high-scorers reported reception of advice on their own disciplinary writing in one-to-one tutorials with EAP tutors, and reported benefits from this experience. Unsurprisingly, where tailored support was given on actual assignment drafts, this was most positively received.

6.3 Module teaching and supervisions in department

This section will show findings of four types of support on source use in participants' subject learning within their department. It will first show instances of more general and more specific guidance that participants reported to have received, and the roles they played in participants' learning (Section 6.3.1). Such guidance was not located in

specific texts. The section will then present participants' reports of their module tutors' requirements on source use, which were often specific to the module and even to the task (Section 6.3.2). Again, such requirements were usually not located in specific texts. This will be followed by source use guidance exemplified in specific texts (Section 6.3.3). Finally, this section will present one particular type of guidance—written feedback on students' coursework (Section 6.3.4). End summative feedback reports for assignments and marginal feedback for dissertation drafts will be presented in two sub-sections.

6.3.1 General vs specific guidance

Five participants reported to have received de-contextualised advice on how to use sources when they were studying subject courses in the department. Some of the advice seemed to confuse participants due to its generic and abstract nature. For example, Mina described her understanding of source use requirement as communicated by the module lecturer:

(the formative task in week 5 Term 1) it needed to use citation...oh, the teacher's requirement was, you can't just use sources and not have your own points. In that way you'll fail. I feel I can't find my own points. (T1 SSI)

The lecturer gave some instruction on how sources should be used in the formative task. However, from what Mina recounted, the point "you can't just use sources and not have your own points" does not seem to contain information about how it can be achieved. Mina's further comment "I feel I can't find my own points" also shows that she did not know how authorial voice could be achieved through source use. In fact, Mina failed her T1 optional module primarily because of gaps in her content knowledge (as stated in her feedback report), but her struggle with understanding writer voice perhaps became her main concern and diverted her efforts away from focusing on content knowledge. Mina was a weak student overall, and perhaps the advice on writer voice confused her more than helping her succeed at the beginning of the programme.

In contrast, Naomi seemed to benefit from general advice during a supervision meeting:

I asked my supervisor how not to write in descriptive ways, to be more in depth. He said you need to make comparisons and contrast. So here I tried to put many peoples' ideas together. (T2 DBI)

This comment was from Naomi's DBI interview on her T1 OM assignment, where Naomi made a link between sources. She provided this advice from her supervisor as a rationale for her link making. It is clear that Naomi applied the advice to her own writing.

Two reasons may be involved in the different effects of guidance on Naomi and Mina. Firstly, the advice "you need to make comparisons and contrast" that Naomi received seems more concrete and applicable than "you need to have your own points" as discussed in Mina's case above. Even so, a student might also have difficulties in knowing how to compare and contrast sources, so this advice may still be too general for some students. Secondly, Naomi asked "how not to write descriptively", probably after knowing about the general requirement of critical writing. Naomi here was prepared to follow up, asking more questions when she did not understand, while Mina did not. This difference in how students took responsibility for learning will be further explored in Section 7.6.4 of the discussion chapter.

6.3.2 Module-specific requirements on source use

Three participants reported to notice different requirements on source use as communicated by module lecturers. For example, Mina, who took one module on bilingual language education in T1 and one module on teaching practices in T2 noted:

I talked to my T1 OM tutor again, who failed my essay...he said you need to say this experiment in detail. But I haven't heard other teachers asking this, so I don't know whether this is applicable to all. (T3 SSI)

Mina reported her T1 OM lecturer's requirement on source use and was aware that such expectation might not be the same for other modules. She also reported a specific requirement on source use from her T2 OM lecturer:

QS: Here in this paragraph you mostly put citations in brackets at the end. Was there any reason for this?

Mina: This is also the lecturer's requirement. He said that when you write this, you just write your ideas first, and then put the reference in the bracket. If he didn't say so explicitly, I'm not sure whether I would write like this.

Here is a clear example where the lecturer explicitly specified the preferred way to introduce sources, which was particular to the genre of lesson commentary used in this module.

Similarly, Kim reported her perception on different requirements, in combination with her friends' experience:

I'm not sure how to summarise studies, what information is useful. Like I think, where the study was conducted is actually not so important. I asked tutor P about this, and he gave me an example. It was mainly about what the purpose of the study was, whether the results of this purpose are relevant to your argument. Just a few points, actually you don't need to say so much about a study. But I asked my friends who are on tutor X's module, they said that tutor asked you to write in very detailed ways. He wants to know whether you understand the whole experiment, how many participants, how is the context, he wants you to write all those details. So, I think, maybe every tutor has not the same requirements. (T3 SSI)

First, even though Kim reported awareness of the importance of summarising sources in academic texts, she had difficulties in actually doing it. This is in contrast to Naomi's case above – Naomi came to know the need of compare and contrast and she was also successful in developing this ability in her writing. Such a comparison shows that being able to develop ability in source use skills is more challenging than understanding them, which is not a given for student learners. Second, Kim's comment here reflected specific disciplinary differences and tutor/marker preferences. Again, tutor P who asked for concise summary of studies taught teaching related modules, whereas tutor X who asked for detailed overview of studies taught psychology-related Applied Linguistics modules. Although both modules were optional modules offered in the department of education for MA TESOL students, these two modules reflected different disciplinary practices of the wider subject field they belonged to – practical teaching and educational psychology. This corresponds with earlier theorising that a particular TESOL topic can be positioned anywhere along the soft and hard disciplinary continuum (Section 2.2.1). In addition, this different requirement might also be influenced by the subject tutors' individual preference as a result of their own literacy experience, as suggested in previous literature (e.g. Lea & Street, 1998).

6.3.3 Guidance located in specific texts

Three participants reported the value of formative assignments in teaching them about source use in Term 1. Naomi and Fiona, two high-scorers, reported how their mistakes in using the APA style were pointed out in T1 formative tasks, and how they used this as an opportunity to improve:

The module tutor found quite a lot of problems- my reference list wasn't in alphabetical order, I made mistakes in referencing because I copied the entries from google scholar, and some years of publication was wrong... At least the mistakes I made this time, I would not make them again next time (Naomi, T1 SSI).

In addition, Lucy had not received feedback from her OM formative task by the time of baseline interview in T1, but she reported that she understood the referencing mistakes she had made in the task after learning APA style in the EAP course.

Apart from learning about referencing style, only Isabel reported learning about source use requirements of the summative task as a result of formative task feedback:

I mentioned the language and the participant number because I thought these were the key information in the experiments, so I gave many details. When writing the outline (formative task), the tutor said you can't just put on the conclusion, you have to say the participants, the procedure, otherwise I would think you just made it up. So I wrote in much detail. (Isabel, T2 DBI)

Isabel reported a need to provide detailed information of research studies in the task, as required by the module lecturer. This reported requirement from feedback on her formative task can be linked to Isabel's extensive citation use in T1 OM. No other participant reported other benefits of writing the formative tasks in Term 1.

Within module teaching, support on source use grounded in specific texts, as opposed to decontextualised general advice, was rarely reported. Only one instance referred to learning about source use from one subject module:

In one class, the teacher when she was analysing one article, she taught us how to integrate sources together. Later when I wrote the assignment for the module, I used her method, which was useful....She gave us an article, very difficult to understand, and let us read for two weeks. Then she explained it. She wrote key points (of the article) on the white board, and compared with another article – so she summarized the main ideas of both articles...she described a research method step that both articles used, each sub-step was not exactly the same but there were similarities – but if you summarise you'll find actually they are the

same but just written in different ways. So, she taught us how to combine these two articles if we are to write them. (Naomi, T3 DBI)

This instance seems to be an important subject-specific input about how sources can be combined, within the context of comparing two articles. Instead of giving general rules, the lecturer here showed students this process after students had been immersed in the content knowledge for two weeks. This seems to have benefitted Naomi, as she was able to recall this instance in detail and reported how she applied the link-making method in her own assignment writing. This is another instance that shows Naomi's sensitivity to input, as well as her commitment to applying it in her own writing. In contrast, Helena and Isabel also took the same optional module in Term 2 but made no mention of this activity or its relevance to their source use.

6.3.4 Written feedback on coursework

Due to difficulties in collecting various types of feedback, only two types of feedback artefacts were closely investigated as a source of learning input (explained in Section 3.2.3.3). These were end summative feedback reports of assignments (with a standard feedback form) and marginal feedback comments on first drafts of the literature review chapter. This section will present an analysis of the assignment feedback reports from the researcher perspective, and the following two sub-sections will present participants' reactions to these two types of feedback.

Assignment feedback reports (19 altogether, for assignments in T1 and T2) were analysed for their coverage of source use. A preliminary analysis found that the content in feedback comments were very similar to the source use aspects outlined in the assignment grade descriptors used in the department (see Section 3.2.2), i.e. "selection from a wide and relevant range of perspective and sources that draws upon contemporary academic debate", "sources well-integrated into the overall argument", and 'references clear and accurate using appropriate APA conventions' (the descriptors for *Merit* marks, in department handbook). Such phrases were thus used to categorise topics covered in the feedback reports here. This analysis followed a *content analysis* approach – each report either contained or did not contain each of these topics.

The results of this analysis are summarised in Table 6-3 below. Column One specifies the topics of source use comments. These are then separated into general and specific comments (Column Two). General comments were those that only pointed to an issue without referring to any particular section of student text, whereas specific comments gave an indication of where that issue took place, by citing a page number or a quote from the student's text. If a report contained both general and specific comments on the same topic, it is regarded as *specific* in this table, because the issue has been exemplified overall. Therefore, in terms of each source use topic, a report is either *general* or *specific*. Further, the number of reports that contained each source use topic *generally* or *specifically* is calculated in Column Four. Examples are given for each category in Column Three.

Table 6-3 Analysis of summative feedback reports for assignments

Topic of comment	Type of comment	Examples	Number of reports (Total=19)
Amount and range of sources	General	An impressive list of sources is provided here... This shows real evidence of wider reading. (Fiona T1)	15/19
	Specific	Relevant sources are included in your assignment. I would add the following: Oxford and Amerstorfer; Cohen and Macaro. (Fiona T2)	4/19
Use of referencing conventions	general	There is a good attempt to follow the APA referencing style. (Isabel T2)	8/19
	specific	Some citations were not found in the reference list (e.g. Chen, 2008, MacDonald, 2008). (Olivia T1) Ideas in two full sections (Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, Linguistic determinism) come from unidentified earlier sources. (Isabel T1)	6/19
Integration of sources	General	Sources used were well-integrated in the argument. In various places of the essay, more attention is needed to in-text citations (Kim T2)	10/19
	specific	Much of the text shows deficiency in providing due empirical support. e.g. p. 8 'assessment was updated [...] eight appropriate components [...] the result shows [...] prove its feasibility [...] the same results were found' -> evaluation components omitted, any literacy-related results are absent, no credible proof is presented (Mina T1) You should focus more on themes for discussion rather than who said what. This is noticeable in your essay through the extensive use of reporting verbs (e.g. As X states/points out; According to Y). Although useful to a certain extent, they are neutral evaluative propositions which are used to substitute your own voice. (Jennifer T2)	3/19
Criticality vs description in source use	general	Continue reading widely so that you are in a better position to critically discuss various issues related to the place and role of learning strategies in English language education. (Fiona T2)	5/19
	specific	In explaining ideas, you occasionally rely too much on only one source (see p. 3). Reliance on a limited number of sources may lead to simplification and oversimplification. (Elsa T1) There are a few attempts that go beyond descriptions, but the arguments lack perspective and sophistication. The majority of claims are replicas of imported ideas. Specific points: p.3 'using the languages spontaneously at least for communication' -> as opposed to what else?; p.4 'certain effects on the way they think' -> underspecified. (Isabel T1)	2/19
Currency of sources	general	Think about currency of sources- the most up to date are the most convincing. (Olivia T1)	4/19
	specific	Some sources related to description of IELTS are as old as 1999. (Kim T2)	3/19

Regarding the number of reports containing each aspect, it is clear that the “amount and range of sources” and “use of referencing conventions” were the most often mentioned (19/19 and 14/19). Integration of sources was also commonly mentioned (13/19); however, the majority of these were vague and general comments without referring to specific issues or specific texts. Only three reports clarified integration of sources by citing specific instances in students’ texts. Further, as seen in the table here, the two reports with specific comments referred to two rather different issues of rhetorical sources use. Mina’s T1 report referred to a lack of necessary details in her description of studies, thereby limiting her potential to support her arguments. Jennifer’s T2 report in fact referred to her ineffective use of reporting phrases. Yet both comments could arguably relate to integration of sources into one’s own texts.

Seven out of nineteen reports contained comments on criticality or description in source use, which was fewer than the above areas. Interestingly, currency of sources, as one sub-area of amount and range of sources, had equal coverage as criticality in source use. However, issues of criticality or description appear more important than the use of referencing conventions and would more likely have more weight in the marking decision (as stated in the department’s student handbook, see Section 3.2.2 and Appendix 2). Again, more reports were found to be general (five reports) than specific (two reports). The two specific reports here pointed to issues of over-reliance on certain sources (Elsa T1) and perhaps a lack of in-depth understanding of the sources in order to make authorial comments on them (Isabel T1). Arguably, these two issues could also be described as ineffective integration of sources – this further shows the vagueness of general feedback phrases such as “integration of sources” and “criticality”, and the wide range of specific issues involved in such comments. The following sub-section will further show how students made use of general and specific feedback comments.

6.3.4.1 Student reactions to summative feedback for assignments

Seven participants discussed how they were able to make sense of certain feedback comments and how they used them to improve their work. For example, Mina commented on one feedback entry she received:

Feedback on Mina's T1 OM assignment	Mina's comment on the feedback, T2 DBI
There are numerous problems with the level of data and idea analysis, many of which are severe. Much of the text...is padded with vacuous claims and pleonasm (e.g. p. 6 'schools are always the best choice to implement bilingual education programmes'.	This I didn't write well. It maybe was my subjective thinking. At the time, I thought like this. Later I thought maybe it's too subjective and absolute. I should delete it.

Figure 6-2: Example - Mina understanding feedback T1 OM

The marker here pointed to the problem of unsupportable claims and Mina's tendency to overgeneralise. This feedback comment confirms the existence of *no citation* in student texts (Section 3.4.2). Mina agreed that it was "too subjective and absolute" and in fact, after this experience, Mina seemed to be more pro-active in supporting her claims in her T2 assignment: "for this task, I looked for sources first before writing. Those points that I cannot find reference to, I didn't write them" (T3 SSI).

Similarly, Naomi, a high-scorer, also discussed her understanding of a feedback comment and how she could apply the advice in her current task:

Feedback on Naomi's T2 OM assignment	Naomi's comment on the feedback, T3 DBI
Scope for improvement: 50 sources seem a bit of an overkill for a 5k word assignment - less is sometimes more, as it allows you to develop and explain some ideas more fully. Your discussion is sometimes too abstract - provide examples to clarify your meaning (e.g. p.4).	So, in the text I could say, when you teach children to read "cat", "bat", they will learn to pronounce 'a' when they encounter such words later. Maybe I took such examples for granted, thinking people should all know about examples. So, I did not give these examples. I think this is what she needs, to make it clearer...Like page 4 I talked about alphabet principle, maybe she wants me to give examples of it. This problem, also my supervisor say I have this issue in my literature review, like I don't expand enough on one source. Maybe I mention many sources, but only briefly. In my LR I also listed many conjunctions, additive and contrastive, I just put the terms there, but the reader doesn't know what additive and contrastive conjunctions are, so I also need to give some examples.

Figure 6-3: Example - Naomi understanding and applying feedback T2 OM

This is the only feedback entry in the database that indicated an overuse of sources. Here, Naomi interpreted how she could improve her own assignment according to the feedback comment of "less is sometimes more". Further, she moved beyond the immediate context of writing for that particular module, to writing for a different genre - the dissertation. She recognised similar problems based on her supervisor's advice, and identified ways to improve the issues in her dissertation. This was yet

another example of how Naomi took responsibility for learning by actively using feedback comments.

In contrast, five participants reported difficulty in understanding their marker’s feedback, which was mainly caused by misunderstanding of particular language devices. For example, Helena, a mid-scorer, struggled with the following feedback comments:

Feedback on Helena’s T1 OM assignment	Helena’s comments in T2 DBI
<p>Another issue is <u>the depth of theoretical inquiry</u>:</p> <p>p.6 ‘show learners the passive form in a present tense first’ -> <u>links to theory of processing added complexity?</u>;</p> <p>p.11 ‘not very easy to forget new vocabulary which they learnt by heart’ -> mechanism? <u>How does this relate to form-meaning mapping discussed earlier?</u></p>	<p>I think these bits of feedback are the most important. But actually, <u>seeing together with what he wrote down on my script, I can only guess the meaning</u>. Like here, p.6 ‘show learners the passive’, links to theory of processing added complexity, <u>I don’t know why there’s a question mark here. Does he want me to link to theory of processing added complexity?</u> I didn’t use the two theories in the essay, so I guess he wants me to use them. But the question mark here I don’t understand.</p> <p>And then...this is tricky, <u>what is theoretical enquiry?</u> Is it depth of theory? Depth of combining theory and practice?</p> <p>‘Mechanism’ I also really don’t understand - this morning I saw the word and thought, does it mean practice? On my script he wrote ‘why do you think so’. Is it that I still need theory to support? But he tried to avoid repetition of wording, so he said ‘mechanism’ here. <u>He wants me to find practice, current studies to support myself</u>. But at the time when looking at this word I really don’t know what it means. But overall <u>from the whole feedback, I think I definitely lack theoretical support, or evidence, or support. I think I lack examples everywhere...</u> maybe he wants me to give specific examples. <u>Real examples in classes...</u> ideally an example of students learning the vocabulary by heart through this method in class.</p>

Figure 6-4: Example 1 - Helena struggling to understand feedback T1 OM

First of all, as seen from the feedback analysis (Section 6.3.4), it was rare for markers to quote exact sentences from students’ texts in the feedback report. It may be assumed that such type of specific comment can help students understand the problem better. However, Helena’s difficulty in benefitting from this piece of feedback was still salient. At first, she struggled to understand the marker’s intention of using the question mark at the end of the first entry. Later on, by talking through the comments, she figured out that the comment was meant to ask her to provide the links to those theories. The second feedback entry intended to draw attention to using the concept “form-meaning mapping” to explain the situation described, i.e. why “not easy to

forget vocabulary which they learnt by heart”. However, Helena clearly struggled to understand the word “mechanism”, which she probably had not encountered before. Her later interpretation of the word seemed to rely on her limited vocabulary set about academic writing – a mixture of “theories”, “practice”, “(research) studies” and “examples”. It was not clear whether Helena really understood the issue to work on and the ways for her to improve that argument. Overall, the feedback could have been more clearly stated. e.g. “you need to link this with the theory of... discussed earlier”. However, Helena’s difficulties here also seem in part related to her limited language repertoire of feedback statements.

Another instance from Helena suggested her difficulty in knowing the aspect the marker referred to:

<p>Helena’s T2 OM: In eye movement research, studies show that eyes do not move smoothly in reading...Skilled readers <u>do not</u> frequently “refixated” a word, while unskilled readers need to do that quite often (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989). <u>Their eyes do not move</u> in a direction of the text. <u>They fix and trace back</u> particular words for several times (Rayner, 1986).</p>	<p>Marker feedback: <u>Don’t confuse ‘always’ and ‘often’</u>. There are few, if any, things that happen always (all the time), especially in education; there are many things that often happen, though.</p>
<p>Helena T3 DBI: QS: What do you think of the feedback about “always” and “often” here? Helena: I’ve read this comment...Oh but <u>I haven’t carefully looked at how “always” and “often” were used in my essay.</u> QS: Umm...actually you didn’t use the words ‘always’ or ‘often’ in your writing. So, what do you think this comment means? Helena: So, is the tutor making a mistake here? If I didn’t use ‘always’ and ‘often’.</p>	

Figure 6-5: Example 2 - Helena struggling to understand feedbackT2 OM

While the marker referred to issues of “always” and “often” in the feedback report, a text searching of the words “always” and “often” found no results in Helena’s text. After a close analysis of the whole text, this feedback entry appeared to be about the rhetorical aspects of Helena’s source use. In Helena’s T2 assignment, a very high proportion of 90% of citations were non-integral citations (Section 4.2). The excerpt text here epitomised her source use: non-integral citations generalised findings from some individual studies and presented them as uncontested facts, as in “Their eyes do not...They do...”. It would be more appropriate if the sentence was introduced as e.g. “Rayner’s study found that...”. Interestingly, Helena did not

understand this feedback comment, as she could not associate this with her use of citation forms.

Unsurprisingly, perhaps, Helena only thought of the feedback in terms of the surface linguistic meanings of “always” and “often”, and not in terms of the underlying rhetorical meanings that the marker intended. She probably was unfamiliar with the concept of rhetorical meanings at that point. Helena did not perceive her source use in the same way as her marker did – it was as if they were communicating in different channels, which resulted in Helena’s misunderstanding here. Meanwhile, a lack of effort to understand feedback may also be implied, as Helena did not check the point being questioned at the time of the interview (her response “I haven’t carefully looked at how ‘always’ and ‘often’ were used in my essay”), which took place seven weeks after her receiving the feedback. This issue of students taking responsibility for learning and their understanding of what to do with feedback will be further discussed in Section 7.6.4.

In a different vein, five participants indicated their feelings of vagueness in feedback comments and uncertainty over how to improve their weakness. For example, this was evident in Jennifer’s (a high-scorer) understanding of feedback comments over two terms:

Feedback on Jennifer’s T1 OM assignment	Jennifer’s comments on the feedback
Try to <u>go beyond black & white summaries</u> , and make clear that whatever the evidence tells us (eg culture-language link) is based on the evidence and arguments of researchers so far and that <u>no position can claim to give the definitive answer to this issue. Think more critically!</u>	It says <u>my views are rather neutral...</u> What does <u>black and white mean?</u> Should be black and white areas. It means <u>points are not clearly said...</u> I think I need more literature to support this, to use more source, and <u>different authors on the subject...</u> not just one author’s articles.
Feedback on Jennifer’s T2 OM assignment	Jennifer’s comments on the feedback
There is evidence of some critical discussion however much is taken at face value.	Jennifer: Surface. Urr, face value, so, face (<i>mianzi</i>) ⁵ ? QS: On the surface, superficial. Jennifer: So how to go deep? I don’t know.

Figure 6-6: Example - Jennifer not benefitting from feedback, T1 and T2 OM

⁵ Here, Jennifer refers to face in the Chinese equivalent of *mianzi*, which was a concept in the module she took in T2.

Jennifer’s failure to write critically and her superficial approach to summarising sources were pointed out in both feedback reports from two terms. For T1 feedback, Jennifer at first did not understand “black and white summaries”, and later misinterpreted it to be “points are not clearly said”. This suggests that Jennifer’s difficulties in understanding feedback, as with Helena’s example above, could have been caused by her unfamiliarity with the concept of criticality rather than her understanding of particular words or expressions. She later concluded that the point for improvement was her need to use more sources, and to reach conclusions from different sources. Although this could be one approach to addressing her problem, the core issue for Jennifer appeared to be a superficial understanding of evidence from sources, something that she did not seem to understand. In T2, similar comments appeared again, and this time Jennifer still struggled with knowing ways to analyse arguments more deeply. Overall, the rather vague messages in the feedback concerning 'criticality' in both terms clearly failed to help Jennifer to improve her writing, as little concrete suggestion was given.

Similarly, Kim, a low-scorer, commented explicitly on the confusing nature of feedback, and showed her difficulty in knowing where to improve:

Feedback on Kim’s T2 OM assignment	Kim’s comment on the feedback, T3 DBI
<p>In various places of the essay, more attention is need to in-text citations. There is a need to enable the reader to hear your own voice in an essay.</p>	<p>Does it mean within my text? Or what does it mean? These comments he gave, like hear your voice, many of us received this – we all don’t know how to let my voice be heard. It’s rather confusing. When I saw this feedback, I also didn’t really understand its meaning.</p>

Figure 6-7: Example – Kim being confused with feedback, T2 OM

Here, Kim struggled with understanding what “in-text citations” referred to, but more importantly she lacked an understanding of how to create an authorial voice. This does not seem to be a barrier in understanding a few language devices, but clearly the concept of authorial voice is an issue for all novice writers (Section 2.4.4). While it is not possible to explain how to achieve it in any individual feedback comment, simply pointing to it as a problem is unlikely to help any novice writer.

Overall, among the six instances of feedback comments shown in this section, the participants tended to understand and appreciate the value of specific comments

(the first three examples) more than general comments (the latter three examples). However, specific comments could also provide difficulties for students' understanding (the third example, Helena).

6.3.4.2 Responses to marginal feedback in literature review drafts

It is important to remember that participants' writing of the assignments and dissertations involved quite different genres and processes. Assignments were submitted as final products, whereas first drafts of dissertations were work in progress. Ideally, LR chapters were expected to inform decisions on the methods and instruments. In reality though, students tended to settle on a research design much earlier (in Term 2) without sufficient time to be fully informed by the literature. When drafting the LR chapters, students usually did not have a clear overview of their whole study. Their purposes of source use in first drafts might not be well thought out, but instead reflected a process of thinking. On the other hand, by the dissertation stage, the students had chances to become more skilled in source use through the previous two terms of experience, which they did not have when attempting their first assignments.

For LR chapter drafts, eight participants discussed specific aspects of marginal feedback which related to source use. Unlike the reactions to assignment feedback set out in the previous section, most participants reported that they understood comments on their LR drafts and that these provided them with ideas for improving their writing. For example, Olivia's supervisor commented on her omission of details in describing a source:

<p>Olivia LR first draft In Gilabert' (2007b) study, <u>he manipulated task complexity by varying the level of reasoning demands</u>. He investigated the effects of manipulating task complexity on self-repairs during L2 oral production. According to his results...</p>	<p>Supervisor's feedback in margin: How did he do that?</p>
<p>Olivia DS DBI: Now I know, I need to let the reader understand what I'm talking about. Now if you ask myself to read this bit on reasoning demand, I wouldn't understand it either. But that time maybe I was just being lazy, so I put it there.</p>	

Figure 6-8 Olivia's LR draft feedback

Olivia, a high-scorer, did not give enough explanation for her supervisor to understand the research procedure, of how the variable being discussed was controlled

in the study. This reflects her difficulty in grasping the content needed in the LR and the ability to make links to her own study. The feedback comments here stressed the need of more details of the study’s procedure in order to communicate more effectively with the audience, which was understood by Olivia in the interview.

Three other participants had a slightly different experience to Olivia - they received comments on how they had included details which were irrelevant to their own studies. For example, Fiona reported gender difference as part of the finding of one study, but her feedback commented: “Why not look at your data for gender differences? If not, then don't review it. Only review what is relevant to the current study.” Fiona reported that she regarded this advice as useful. Such instances of inclusion of detail which may lack relevance seem unsurprising, because without an overview of the whole study, what is relevant cannot be finalised. This points to the procedural nature of writing dissertations, that the students need to adjust their writing at different stages of planning, conducting research and analysing results. It was difficult for students to bear in mind their entire dissertation while drafting the literature review, which was usually the first chapter to be drafted.

Based on marginal feedback received from supervisors, six participants edited some instances of source use in their literature review. For example, Lucy edited her form and type of citation:

<p>Lucy LR first draft: According to Kern (1989, p73), reading is “cognitively demanding, involving the coordination of attention, memory, perceptual process, and comprehension process.” → Final draft: Reading was then viewed as evaluating and reacting with the authors’ words to understand the recorded words (Kern, 1989).</p>	<p>Supervisor’s feedback on first draft in page margin: <u>Instead of starting with authors/researchers’ names, start with the key ideas and only then use references to support your ideas.</u></p>
<p>Lucy DS DBI: Previously I also knew something about this. But <u>our focus are different. My supervisor maybe thinks, you need to express your own thoughts. And my focus was maybe about, Oh I think what he says is authoritative, so I need to state it’s him.</u></p>	

Figure 6-9 Lucy LR revisions

Lucy changed her use of citation here from the author-prominent integral form to the meaning-prominent non-integral form. In the first place, the sentence was about one

understanding of reading, and might not be directly associated with the author Kern. Lucy seemed to have understood this from the feedback and reflected on her previous understanding of the issue. In addition, Lucy also changed the citation from a direct quotation into a paraphrase of the definition. These revisions show how Lucy responded to feedback on her need to communicate her own ideas more clearly to the audience.

On the other hand, given the time constraints of writing up a first draft and then finalising a final draft in three months, one might expect the challenge involved in responding fully to supervisor feedback. In the data, there are some instances of participants using inappropriate solutions to ways around problems that tutors pointed out. For example, Elsa, a high-scorer, admitted her attempt to “cover up” her problematic definition:

<p>Elsa LR first draft: According to the definition derived from the dictionary, Askew (2000) points out that feedback is associated with “information in response to an inquiry” (p.8). →Final draft: According to Askew (2000), feedback referred to “information in response to an inquiry” (p.8).</p>	<p>Supervisor’s feedback on first draft in page margin: The feedback you supposedly refer to is a very specific form of feedback, so <u>a general dictionary definition is clearly not sufficient</u></p>
<p>Elsa DS DBI: My supervisor said you can’t just use a dictionary definition of feedback, <u>but I really can’t find one. This is all that I can do. I covered it,</u> just using ‘according to’...I just don’t tell people it’s from dictionary. Just say he thinks so.</p>	

Figure 6-10 Elsa LR revisions

Here, the feedback suggestion of replacing the source seems more demanding than the above example of Lucy’s need to change the citation form. As a response to her supervisor’s comment, Elsa used the dictionary, but did not cite it as a secondary reference and did not try to find the original reference. She chose to keep the content she already had and masked the intertextual tie between the quotation and the source. Elsa explained that this was due to her difficulty in finding a new definition. In fact, the topic of feedback is so popular that it should not take much effort to find a number of definitions within the field, e.g. several sources on feedback were used in this thesis. Her response here shows that she was not taking responsibility for her learning at that time, and simply took a short cut to revision.

6.3.5 Summary

Overall, within the department, general advice on source use was more commonly reported by the participants than source use support grounded in specific texts. Half of the participants received some form of general advice in subject module teaching or contact with lecturers, and the extent to which they benefitted from the experience seemed to vary. Further, lecturers' communication of specific task requirements, in terms of source use, was only reported by two participants. Equally few instances of support that took place alongside specific texts were reported. From writing the formative tasks in Term 1 and receiving formative feedback, three participants reported how they enhanced their knowledge of the APA referencing format, while one participant reported that she understood task requirements of source use more clearly. Further, there was only one instance reported of a lecturer showing students how sources could be combined in writing an argument during subject teaching.

Summative feedback for assignments and formative feedback for dissertations both contained comments on source use. Assignment feedback reports tended to comment more generally than specifically by citing instances in student texts. Participants' reactions to this summative feedback varied. Overall, it appears that specific comments were more likely to be understood by the participants than general comments. In particular, five out of ten participants perceived a number of feedback entries as vague, and they struggled to understand how they could improve their work. Meanwhile, another five participants did not understand particular comments, either due to the expressions of particular words or due to unfamiliarity with concepts such as criticality and voice.

Feedback for dissertation drafts included mostly marginal comments in texts, and most participants received comments on source use in their drafts. Unlike their assignments, most participants claimed that they understood the comments on their dissertation drafts. Additionally, in the case of Lucy and Elsa, they reported how they avoided inappropriate practices as pointed out in their feedback. Lucy demonstrated that she could apply feedback when editing, while Elsa merely employed a shortcut to "cover up" her inappropriate source use without really addressing the problem. The reasons for these actions could be assigned to several factors, including the

complexity of revision, time and resources available for making the revision before submission, and individual student motivation and engagement.

6.4 Other input

Besides the types of formal support organised and provided by the institution, department or individual lecturers, students also learn from informal support in their everyday life. This section will present several sources of informal support that the participants reported. These include others' texts, their peers, external proofreading services, and study resource books.

6.4.1 Learning source use from reading others' texts

All ten participants referred to how they had learnt some aspects of effective source uses from reading others' texts. Most of them reported learning from published scholarly texts. For example, Elsa noted the use of linguistic devices to show contrasting points in her reading:

Elsa LR text	Elsa DS DBI
<p>According to Weaver (2006), feedback plays a crucial role... Hyland and Hyland (2006) also consider feedback as a significant element... However, <u>the opposed views claim that</u> students may attach greater importance to the grades instead of looking through the feedback sheets carefully (Mutch, 2003).</p>	<p>I wanted to show that there must be someone with a different view. Someone would disagree. This is a topic with controversy. <u>Actually, I found the phrase "opposed to" in other people's sources, and it exactly fits my context here, so I used it.</u></p>

Figure 6-11 Example of learning rhetorical devices from reading other sources, Elsa LR

Here, Elsa was sensitive to how other authors signposted contrasting viewpoints through the use of devices such as "opposed views". She grasped such use and adopted it in her own text. Similarly, Fiona reported how she learned that a claim can be supported by several sources instead of one:

From reading articles, I've known that a sentence can be followed by more than one reference. There can be several people saying the same things as the idea. This is new knowledge I studied by myself. (Fiona T2 SSI)

Fiona observed the use of links between sources in published journal articles. In her texts, she also used many *group citations*, which provides evidence for what she reported here (see her case report in Appendix 10). Examples like this are not surprising, that students assimilate discourse practices by reading, which fit the

academic socialisation model as discussed in Section 2.3. However, such assimilation appeared problematic in the cases of Isabel and Kim, which will be discussed in the light of genre expectations in Section 7.6.3.

6.4.2 Communication with peers

Nine participants reported that they had engaged in discussions with peers about source use on at least one occasion. The most common topic was the use of referencing style, for which six participants reported. For example,

We checked our citation formats for each other. That time was close to deadline, so I didn't make many changes. (Lucy T2 SSI)

Lucy reported proofreading other students' referencing formats before submitting their assignments. It was interesting that they did not have confidence in their own formatting. It seems that they attempted to correct their referencing at the end, rather than from the start.

Four participants discussed with peers about the need to provide references to their claims. For example:

My friends and I have discussed how to use sources, because previously it totally wasn't this strict. Like a sentence such as 'it is acknowledged that', we wouldn't add references in our previous writing because this is a common sense. Like a student wrote 'Chinese students are poor at speaking' with no reference, and the teacher put a question mark there. So, we discussed and thought you just can't casually write anything. Maybe this is obvious to you, but it is not to your teacher or audience, so you need to add reference. (Naomi T2 SSI)

Naomi here was aware of the difference in source use conventions in the UK and in China, and she discussed this issue with her peers. They deepened their understanding of where citations were needed. This was a discussion of what constitutes common knowledge within the local educational and cultural system (as set out in Section 1.4.3).

Isabel and Kim reported sharing some sources to read with their peers, and Kim further reported discussing the content of sources with her peers. The fact that these were low-scoring, weaker students might suggest a lack of confidence in their content knowledge, which may be the reason they sought out such discussions. Isabel and Kim also discussed with peers the question of the appropriate number of

references needed for an assignment. This is very much evidence of learners who have missed the point of source use. They expected that tutors would look for a set number of sources, which takes the focus away from how sources are used to simply counting how many are used.

Only Isabel had contact with a PhD student in the department, who read her T1 OM assignment and gave some suggestions for improvement. For example:

Isabel T1 OM text	Isabel T2 DBI
<p>Humboldt (1767-1835), a passionate language learner, believes that languages are self-contained systems... people adopt different perspectives towards the world since different language reflects parts of human nature. (Humboldt, 1836: LXXV; translated by Cowan in Humboldt, 1963: 294)</p>	<p>This clearly wasn't APA style. And later I knew that there is no need at all to put the birth and death year of an author. But at the time, <u>in the book I read, these were marked, so I thought they need to be marked, but actually they don't.</u> I knew it through <u>discussion with the senior student.</u></p>

Figure 6-12 Example of learning source use formats from a senior student, Isabel T1 OM

Isabel understood her inappropriate use of citation formats through her communication with a PhD student. In fact, the point that details such as authors' birth year are not needed can be found by a close reading of the department handbook of assignment writing. This may suggest that learners often did not consult the documents that they ought to. Isabel's explanation that she adopted such use from the source book she read is also an example of problematic assimilation of source uses. The source and passages she read may be a general description of the field's history, and she did not realise that these style and formats may differ from those of academic texts.

6.4.3 Proofreading

Two participants reported to have used proofreaders for their coursework. According to Elsa, using this service led her to modify aspects of her source use in her dissertation writing:

Elsa LR first draft:	→Elsa LR Final draft:
<p>Despite the emergence of oral feedback and the use of peers as sources of feedback, teachers still form the habit of giving considerable written comments on papers to leave students the impression that their essays have been read through carefully, which aims to help students enhance their composing skills and justify the marks given (Hyland, 2003). In this respect, teacher written responses still play an important part in second language and foreign language writing classes (Hyland & Hyland, 2006).</p>	<p>Most teachers favour giving written comments on papers, which may leave students the impression that their essays have been read through carefully (Hyland, 2003). In addition, Hyland and Hyland (2006) claimed that teacher written responses still played an important part in second language and foreign language writing classes.</p>
<p>Elsa DS DBI: QS: So, you changed this source, Hyland and Hyland 2006, from in brackets in first draft into at the beginning of the sentence. Was there any particular reason? Elsa: This change was according to the proofreader, because she made this change. I don't know why – is it because it's better to change the use from time to time? I'm rather confused about this. The proofreader I found not only corrects my grammar, but also corrects logic. Here I feel both types are OK, but since she pointed this out, I changed it.</p>	

Figure 6-13 Example of changing citation form according to proofreader, Elsa LR

Here, the final draft that Elsa submitted was notably more concise than her first draft. In terms of source use, the second citation changed from a non-integral citation in the first draft into an integral citation in the final draft. Interestingly, Elsa admitted that she did not understand the reason for making such a change, yet made the change according to her proofreader's advice. It was noteworthy that Elsa acknowledged this advice to be beyond grammar correction, seeing it as extending to correction of "logic". However, according to the proofreading policies in the departmental handbooks, such advice is actually not in the remit of proofreaders.

6.4.4 Study resource books

Only Isabel and Jennifer mentioned reading some study support books on academic writing. They did not report any specific points on source use. For example, Isabel reported to have read Wallace and Wray (2011) - *Critical reading and writing for postgraduates*, and commented that:

This book is about how to write. I'm reading it because I think I have big problems with writing. I think my biggest problem is I don't have my own content -- I'm always putting on the content of other's experiment, I don't have my own categorisation and reach to my conclusion. But there's not much about referencing in this book. (Isabel T2 SSI)

Isabel's frustrated attempts to gain more support on authorial voice from this book are perhaps not surprising, since it is difficult to define, explain and verbalise these

abstract concepts (Section 2.4.4). Well-intentioned resources books are unlikely to provide clear answers to her questions here, because achieving criticality is not a generic, decontextualised requirement, but relates to genre and disciplinary conventions. However, Isabel clearly lacked the ability to map the abstract requirement of authorial voice with concrete devices and techniques of source use, and support on the latter is in fact covered in a number of widely used textbooks (Section 2.5.2). It was more likely that Isabel could not locate the support she was looking for in the book she consulted, or that in fact she did not make much effort in using the book. She was not able to follow up on this topic either in later interviews.

6.4.5 Summary

A range of informal support was found in the participants' learning of source use. First, all participants learned about source use from reading other texts. From the examples in this section, Fiona and Elsa benefitted from this activity as they accumulated language devices for comparing sources or how sources could be grouped. Meanwhile, there was the danger of not understanding that formats and styles vary, as in Isabel's case.

Second, discussing source use with peers was also common, but the majority of the discussion was limited to the use of referencing style and number of sources needed, and only a few instances involved discussion of subject content and the need to support claims with citations. From peer discussion, no instance was reported on rhetorical use of citations in texts. This is unsurprising when rhetorical aspects of source use are not sufficiently foregrounded in their modules or other support (one exception being the source use workshop, see Section 6.1.5).

Third, proofreading services and study resource books were two less commonly reported types of informal input. Elsa changed her citation form according to her proofreader's advice, without understanding the reason for the change. Further, Jennifer and Isabel made use of study resource books, but did not recall any points related to source use.

6.5 Students' overall comments on input and development

Besides the participants' comments on particular types of support they received (as shown above), some overall comments were about all types of support, or the entire support system available to them. These will be presented in Section 6.5.1. At the dissertation stage at the end of the study, I also elicited participants' comments on the source use areas that they felt they had developed. These will be presented in Section 6.5.2.

6.5.1 Comments on usefulness of input

Four participants commented on insufficient support on source use overall, which could in fact be due to their inability to associate source use with such aspects of support as arguments. For example, Isabel commented:

Isabel T2 SSI: (For the EAP course) The main focus is on writing, like how to write essays, how to argue, how to do critical writing, they didn't mention reference much, almost none.

QS: How did they explain critical writing?

Isabel: Last term they gave a paragraph, and analysed, like the first sentence is the point, the second sentence explain, and the third giving more evidence.

QS: So, does evidence involve citations?

Isabel: Yes, it is followed by brackets with citation. But that's all, the topic is then passed on. It's there, but the tutor didn't explain it, only said what the sentence means, and why to put the sentence there.

With my probing, Isabel remembered vaguely the topics covered in class, but without much detail. It is salient that she could not link the terms argument, evidence and the purpose of a sentence with the skill of source use, also seen in a previous excerpt (Section 6.4.4).

Regarding the coverage of support, one participant, Lucy, noticed that many of the feedback comments were about referencing formats but few went beyond that:

...you can specifically say what's wrong with the referencing formats, like if the author name is wrong. But few tutors said how to better use sources in your writing ... maybe they said something, but not very deep. And that is where I think I still need support with. (T3 SSI)

Lucy made an important point here, that she could receive support on formats, but rarely on more tacit issues of source use. These instances all point to how referencing

formatting is easier to address due to its explicit conventions, while other issues such as using sources critically are more implicit.

Five students regarded source use support as general, lacking specific practices, which caused difficulties in them applying such knowledge. For example, Elsa commented on her sustained difficulty in being critical at the end of the study:

Currently I still cannot reach the requirement of critical analysis...I've never doubted any sources in my writing...I think this needs practice. Like for our EAP course, teachers would better find a source with many faults, and let us discuss what problems there are. After analysing three such pieces or so, we can gradually know which points we can critique. But after attending all the courses, I found no session on this. (T3 SSI)

Elsa expressed a lack of practice in identifying points from sources to critique. Although such support appeared at least minimally available in the students' support system⁶, this did not seem to equip Elsa to become a confident evaluative writer. Elsa emphasised her insufficient practice in writing critical summaries and synthesis, and she wished for more opportunities to experience criticality in the classroom. Her self-perceived problem also included an uncritical approach to reading, for which she also expected more support.

6.5.2 Self-reported development of source use

At the end of the study (DS SSI), participants were asked about the areas in which they felt they had improved. Their responses are presented here, in the sequence of the most reported to the less reported. As the most popular response, five participants reported improvement in managing the APA referencing style during the year. Four participants reported improvement in their awareness of attributing sources carefully and avoiding plagiarism. For example, "At first, I didn't know how to reference, but now I do. Now I've put references to all the places where they are needed" (Lucy DS SSI). This points to Lucy's confidence that by the end of the year, she managed to recognise when a citation is needed and to acknowledge sources whenever necessary.

⁶ In the in-session EAP programme, one worksheet was about on how to evaluate sources in the literature review, which was also accompanied by a sample text with a focus on supporting writer's argument with evidence. See Table 6-2 in Section 6.2.

Indeed, in her LR draft, no instance of *no citation* was identified. Further, Elsa and Fiona reported improvement in their ability to paraphrase.

Other responses include literature searching, organising sources, and understanding requirements of source use in LRs, each reported by one participant. In particular, Elsa's comment on organising sources was interesting: "I would now think in advance what I want to write, list a few headings, and put the sources I've read under each heading. This is where I feel I've improved" (DS SSI). Such purposeful planning of the use of sources before the writing stage is likely to facilitate connecting various sources during the writing stage. This shows her awareness that purposeful source use needs to be based on purposeful structuring at the reading and planning stage.

Participants were also asked about the areas in which they perceived sustained difficulties at the end of the year. Three participants reported difficulties related to constructing arguments by skilfully using sources. Among these, Isabel reported general difficulties in argumentation:

I've always thought that my argument is a big problem. Before I went to the UK, my teacher in China pointed out this problem, now with my assignments the lecturers here also talked about this problem. (DS SSI)

Jennifer reported difficulties in connecting sources logically: "sometimes I still have that kind of listing approach to source use...maybe logically I still lack something, like when do you use this source first and then another". Elsa reported difficulties in criticising sources and gaining an overview of domain knowledge. It can be seen that Jennifer and Elsa's (two high-scorers) difficulties were more specific than Isabel's, suggesting their stronger ability in articulating difficulties.

Further, Mina and Naomi reported difficulties in identifying relevant sources to their tasks, whereas Fiona reported occasional inaccessibility of sources relevant to her tasks. It seems that literature searching, or evaluating the relevancy of sources, was still an issue for them at the end of the study. Other responses include keeping record of a large amount of reading (Olivia), and paraphrasing (Isabel), each reported by one participant. Helena and Lucy reported no particular difficulties in source use. While it could be that they were confident about their source use abilities, their

responses could also be due to a tendency to give short answers in interviews to perform an able informant in front of the interviewer. Such responses suggest little about their real capabilities of source use.

Chapter 7 Discussion

7.0 Introduction

The overall aim of the study was to investigate Chinese students' practice of source use during a particular degree programme in the UK. It aimed to combine students' textual practices, their rationale for these textual practices, and the institutional support system, to explain what factors may influence the development of students' source use. The above results chapters presented the quantitative and qualitative patterns of citation use in students' texts (RQ1), their self-reported reasons for their citation practices (RQ2), and the support on source use available, together with participants' perceptions of such support (RQ3). This chapter will bring all these findings together to address the overall aim of the study.

This chapter will discuss the following themes. Section 7.1 will discuss development in students' source use over the one-year programme. Section 7.2 will discuss the relationship between citation use and the quality of writing in relation to each case study, and compare the findings here to previous studies on novice and expert writing. Section 7.3 and 7.4 will discuss the extent to which students in this context were aware of the need to use citations rhetorically. In particular, Section 7.3 will focus on evidence of awareness, while Section 7.4 will consider the factors that emerged in this study and appeared to limit a fully varied and appropriate rhetorical use of sources. Section 7.5 will expand further on contextual factors that influence their source use. Section 7.6 will discuss students' engagement with various types of input, which was also one important reason for their development of source use. Section 7.7 will provide summaries of the main arguments in the chapter. Drawing on all of these themes, Section 7.8 will further discuss implications for teaching and supporting source use.

7.1 Development of source use

This section will discuss students' development of source use over the year. Development here is measured in two domains: 1) changes in quantitative citation patterns from T1 to DS, which is a sub-question of RQ1 (*Is there any change in students' use of sources over time?*); 2) participants' self-reported development of

source use in the interview at the end of the study, which can be seen as their perceptions of the outcomes of institutional and departmental input (sub-question of RQ3).

From the quantitative results of citation features, this study found some patterns of change across the year. The most observable and consistent change was in the frequencies of references and citations, both of which steadily increased from T1 to the DS. It is expected that as students became more familiar with conventions and writing practices, they gradually use more sources and cite them more often as their study progresses. This increase in citations is similar to Cumming et al.'s (2018) finding of 33 undergraduate students increasing the amount of citations in their coursework from the First Year to the Second Year.

Regarding patterns of rhetorical functions of citations, there were notable changes in some aspects, but not in others. The participants' use of the simple *attribution* function increased slightly from T1 to T2, showing little progress in the variety of functions. In the LR chapters, however, the percentages of *attribution* decreased considerably, and they used higher percentages of *group citations* and *compare/contrast*. The genre difference between essays and LR chapters might have played a role here, but it is also likely that, as a result of their exposure to academic texts and a range of input on source use, the participants became more aware of the need to show links between sources by the dissertation stage. On the other hand, the percentages of the *evaluation* function remained at similar values at all three stages. This finding about the *evaluation* function is similar to Cumming et al.'s (2018) finding where eight Master's students used similar percentages of agreeing and disagreeing functions⁷ in their First Year and Second Year coursework. This suggests that developing the ability to evaluate sources may be more challenging than making

⁷ Calculated from their raw data. The "agreeing" and "disagreeing" functions in Cumming et al.'s study can be regarded as similar to "positive evaluation" and "negative evaluation" in this study. In their study, eight graduate students in Year One used 9.28% "agreeing" function (5.00 out of 53.88 total citations) and 2.56% "disagreeing" function (1.38 out of 53.88 citations); in Year Two they used 9.02% agreeing function (3.01 out of 33.38 citations) and 4.88% disagreeing function (1.63 out of 33.38).

links between sources, yet creating a network of sources is clearly also an essential step to building solid critical arguments.

Whereas the ten participants as a whole did not demonstrate consistent patterns of development regarding rhetorical functions from T1 to DS, some individual students showed notable development. In particular, as the study progressed, Naomi and Jennifer used the basic *attribution* function less and less frequently and they made more links between sources (see Section 4.4), which seems related to their engagement with input as well (see case reports in Appendix 10). This conforms to previous findings from qualitative longitudinal studies that individual students develop source use abilities in different ways, even for a group of students with a similar cultural background and the same L1 (Davis, 2013; Dong, 1996). It is also pointed out by Tian and Low (2012) that one must not assume homogeneity in literacy development among a group of students coming from the same country. As found in this study, part of the reason for individual differences was that participants incorporated input on source use in different ways, and more evidence of this will follow in Section 7.6.4.

Participants also reported perceptions of their own development of source use (Section 6.5.2). At the end of the year, five out of ten students reported managing the APA referencing style as one area in which they were confident they improved. This was also found in Thompson et al.'s (2013) longitudinal study of First Year undergraduate students' self-reported progress in source use over one year. However, as these authors acknowledged, managing citation conventions is only a surface feature of source use, and disciplinary enculturation is more about acquisition and negotiation of literacy practices within the discourse community. Further, four participants in this study reported increasing awareness of the need to support claims with evidence. This is similar to the undergraduate students' survey responses in Cumming et al.'s (2018) study, where the majority of students reported having paid more attention to acknowledging sources in the First Year than in the Second Year. This basic awareness of *attribution* is clearly an important aspect of acquiring source-based writing skills, which is expected at the beginning of students' literacy development.

In contrast, regarding the rhetorical use of sources in arguments, in this study, three participants experienced sustained difficulties and no participant reported improvement in this area. On one hand, these findings could indicate less development in rhetorical source use than in managing referencing styles and acknowledging sources, or at least that more participants paid attention to the superficial aspects of source use. On the other, these data report the participants' conscious awareness of their own development, and may not reflect their actual performance—students might be unaware of their own development (Deane & O'Neill, 2011). For example, the above quantitative text analyses show a clear increase in the *links between sources* functions at the dissertation stage, but no participant reported this as an area of improvement. This points to the tacit nature of source use as a skill, and it suggests that explicit signposting to these skills might make participants monitor their own progress more confidently. This also confirms that participants' self-report alone may not be a reliable source for investigating development, and that combination of self-report with text analysis would produce more reliable findings.

The overall developmental pattern evident in the findings for this study seems to largely coincide with those of previous research. Regarding textual features, while participants showed progress in using more sources and avoided potential accusations of plagiarism (the frequency of *no citation* constantly decreased, in Section 4.3), they did not show much progress in using a wide range of rhetorical functions. Regarding self-reported development, in the baseline interviews during Term 1, participants reported much new understanding of source use as compared with their previous knowledge, but they reported less new knowledge at later stages as they became involved in disciplinary writing. This was not surprising, because at the beginning of the year, they were introduced to many new conventions of source use and gained, at least, declarative knowledge of them; later on, they were working with the same conventions and were less likely to perceive *learning* as such. This tendency is similar to that found in other studies. In Davis' (2013) two-year qualitative study, all three students reduced the amount of patchwriting or unacknowledged copying in their work during their pre-Master's EAP programme. However, during the main Master's programme, only one student continued to show development by using a wider range of reporting verbs and citations, whereas the other two students showed a regression

to earlier patchwriting behaviours. Cumming et al. (2018) also found the period from First Year to Second Year to be a critical period for their undergraduate students, because in the Second Year they used sources far more accurately than in the First Year. Again, the First Year can be seen as the beginning of undergraduate students' academic literacy journey, when substantial development occurs.

It may be that observable development is more likely to occur during the very beginning of learning source use (i.e. starting from no or little previous knowledge), particularly regarding basic features such as acknowledging sources and avoiding plagiarism, but the development may slow after an initial period of learning. The slow progress in the rhetorical aspect of source use during a one-year study is not surprising, as previous literature has noted sustained difficulties in writing development even after a substantial period of time. For example, in Zhang and Mi's (2010) survey study of self-perceived language difficulties for 40 Chinese students in Australian universities, almost all participants continued to report difficulties in argumentative writing, even after two years of study in Australia. As they emphasised, mastering discourse features in a second language is an arduous process. In this sense, a one-year programme may be too short for the participants to adapt to discipline conventions (Thompson et al., 2013)—they need more time to be exposed to academic texts and apply what they learned in practice. In line with this, some studies have suggested prolonging the MA programme, but they are also aware that the current one-year systems might better suit the stake-holders' practical concerns (Tian & Low, 2012).

7.2 The relationship between source use and the quality of writing

This section will discuss the other sub-question of RQ1: whether and how high and low-scoring students used sources differently in the same educational setting, making inferences about the extent to which source use contributes to their mark. Only a few studies have previously attempted this, and they will be compared here. Further, the section will attempt to compare source use patterns of novices, advanced students, and expert writers in the wider context of academic writing, although it is clearly difficult to make such comparisons given the variety in disciplines, genres, and levels of expertise involved. Sections 7.2.1 (source and citation density) and 7.2.2 (integral and

non-integral citations) will discuss the two dimensions altogether, i.e. high versus low-performers' source use, and novices' versus experts' source use. This is because, for these two areas, very few studies have compared high and low-scorers' use in the same educational setting. In contrast, Section 7.2.3 (rhetorical functions of citations) will discuss these two dimensions separately in two sub-sections, because this area is a primary focus of this study, and some previous studies have compared high and low-scorers' rhetorical use of sources.

7.2.1 Density of sources and citations

This study found that five high-scorers consistently used more sources (i.e. number of items in the reference list of one text) per thousand words than five mid/low-scorers throughout three stages (see Section 4.1.1). This shows that high-scorers consulted more sources than mid/low-scorers at the reading stage. It could also be that mid/low-scorers were less able to find useful and relevant sources than high-scorers, which is related to their ability to read academic texts. Few other studies have explored the relationship between frequencies of sources and the quality of coursework, perhaps because this raw frequency of sources suggests little about the quality of sources used or how they were used in texts.

This study also found that the five high-scorers consistently employed higher citation density (i.e. citations per thousand words) than five mid/low-scorers throughout the three stages of data collection (see Section 4.1.2). On one hand, in terms of full papers, this trend conforms to the general finding in previous literature that more advanced writers tended to employ more citations in their work. For example, Swales (2014), in the Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers, found a higher citation density in 15 postgraduate papers than in 22 undergraduate papers. Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) also found a higher citation density in their expert scientists' research articles than in novice scientists' articles.

On the other hand, findings in this study relating to source use in LR chapters were slightly different. High-scorers used more citations than mid/low-scorers in LR chapters, but the difference between groups was smaller than that in assignments. In contrast, Petrić (2007) found that eight high-rated Master's theses' LR chapters contained lower citation density than the eight low-rated theses' LR chapters. In

addition, Schembri's (2013) study of 60 undergraduate theses' LR chapters also found no significant correlation between the amount of citations and the overall mark. These findings and the present finding show inconsistency in whether higher citation density is related to higher quality in the LR chapter.

This may further suggest different genre requirements of the essay and the literature review in empirical work, although both require substantial citations. Denser citations in essays may indicate wider use of evidence and more solid arguments. For literature reviews, writers need to present an overview of the sources related to a particular study, for which relevance and coverage of topics may be more important than the amount of evidence alone. This is also evident in the marking criteria used by the education department in this study. Whereas the assignment marking criteria emphasised "wide range of sources" and "relevant to the title", the LR chapter grade descriptor only stated relevancy to the student's own research (Section 3.2.2). This suggests that while both assignments and LRs require knowledge transforming (Section 2.2.2), the ways to achieve knowledge transformation differ in the two genres. Knowledge transforming may mean providing more evidence in essays, but giving more explanations of selected sources in LRs. This point will be further explored when discussing the reasons for change in citation patterns from T1 and T2 assignments to LR chapters (Section 7.5.3), and the effectiveness of Isabel's attention to citation use in journal articles (Section 7.6.3).

7.2.2 Integral and non-integral citation forms

In this study, no clear consistent pattern could be observed in terms of high and mid/low-scorers' different use of integral and non-integral citations. There were large individual differences at each stage (see Section 4.2). For assignments, high-scorers used integral citations less frequently than mid/low-scorers in T1, but they used far more integral citations than mid/low-scorers in T2. This lack of a clear pattern is likely to be a result, in part, of the small sample, but it was also influenced by individual task requirements (e.g., Mina's report of the lecturer's requirement for the use of citation forms in Section 6.3.2).

For assignments in T1 and T2 altogether, high-scorers used on average 42.8% integral citations and 57.2% non-integral citations; mid/low-scorers used on average

33.6% integral citations and 62.4% non-integral citations. Other studies on citation forms in student essays show different patterns within social science disciplines, given that soft disciplines tend to use more integral forms than hard disciplines (see Section 2.4.1). Similar to this study, Wette (2017) found 36% integral citations in her Third Year undergraduate essays in various social sciences subjects in a New Zealand university, showing more predominant use of the non-integral form. In contrast to this study, Ädel & Garretson's (2006) study of citation patterns in the Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers found a significantly higher percentage of integral citations than non-integral citations in the Social Sciences and Linguistics. No consistent pattern can be drawn about advanced writers' use of integral and non-integral citations in essays.

Regarding the analysis of the LR chapters in this study, the limited sample of nine texts in total showed that high-scorers used higher percentages of integral citations (57.98%) than mid/low-scorers (39.70%). The high-scorers' predominant use of integral citations is similar to that in other studies that focused on the LR chapters in theses or dissertations. In the same discipline and programme as this study, Nguyen and Pramoolsook (2016) found 64% to be integral citations in 24 Vietnamese MA TESOL theses' LR chapters. Peng's (2019) study of PhD theses in Linguistics/ Applied Linguistics also found 52% integral citations in ten home-grown students' theses, and 47% integral citations for ten overseas-taught students. However, Peng further argued that the greater use of integral forms found in home-grown students' writing represented weaker authorial voice as compared with the overseas-taught students' writing, which runs counter to the pattern of high and mid/low-scorers in this study. In this study, high-scorers' higher percentages of integral citations than mid/low-scorers in LR chapters could be seen as conforming to the LR genre expectations. LRs need to give attention to details of individual studies, in order to prepare for research design later. This conformation to expectations was evident in a few qualitative examples of using integral citations in LRs (e.g., Elsa's example in Section 5.2.3).

When considering all these studies together, there seems to be little identifiable relationship between percentages of integral/non-integral citations and the level of

expertise or the quality of work. As suggested in previous literature, it is likely that the choice for integral or non-integral citations is influenced by a combination of various factors (Charles, 2006)—the purpose of the genre (Jalilifar, 2012; Kwan & Chan, 2014), the topic of writing (Thompson & Tribble, 2001) and the specific requirements of tasks (Wette, 2017). In this sense, the raw counts of integral vs non-integral citations alone may be of limited value. This is borne out in this study by tutor feedback on some participants' work. Some feedback entries pointed to markers' judgement of inappropriate citation form use, which were due to the nature of the literature cited and inappropriate rhetorical messages conveyed in the sentences (see Olivia T1 feedback in Table 6-3 in Section 6.3.4; Helena's T2 feedback in Section 6.3.4.1). This suggests that the appropriacy of citation form use should be considered within specific instances and contexts, instead of merely judged by quantitative percentages.

7.2.3 Rhetorical functions of citations

7.2.3.1 High vs low performers' use of rhetorical functions of citations

In this study, high-scorers on average used lower percentages of simple *attribution* functions than mid/low-scorers, whereas high-scorers used higher percentages of *links between sources* and *evaluation* than mid/low-scorers (see Section 4.4). This more diverse range of rhetorical functions used by high-scorers suggested a stronger ability to move beyond the description of sources and towards the critical analysis of sources. This finding conforms to Petrić's (2007) finding that high-rated MA theses in gender studies employed more diverse rhetorical functions of citations than low-rated theses. This is also consistent with Davis' (2014) conclusion that the competent source users in her study, who carefully avoided plagiarism and used a range of citation features, also carried out far more evaluation of sources in their extracts. As these two studies took place with MA students in similar settings to those of the current study, it is fair to conclude that higher-performing students in this setting tend to use a wider range of rhetorical functions than lower-performing students.

This study also found some qualitative differences between high and mid/low-scorers' use of rhetorical functions by analysing specific examples (see Section 4.6). Mina, a low-scorer, was found to praise the author's status instead of evaluating any

specific statement (Section 4.6.3). This instance of evaluating sources also contained some linguistic deficiency in expression. These findings echoed a similar finding to Petrić's (2007) qualitative comparison of high and low-rated theses' use of evaluation. Further, this study found that high-scorers typically used rhetorical functions for the purpose of developing their overall arguments, whereas the low-scorers appeared to have merely managed the formats of linking sources (Isabel in Section 4.6.2) or evaluating sources (Mina in Section 4.6.3) without clear purposes in relation to their arguments. This difference between purposive and purpose-less use of citation functions within discourse contexts is expected, but it has not been mentioned explicitly in the previous literature.

7.2.3.2 Novices' vs experts' use of rhetorical functions of citations

This sub-section will make a general comparison of findings across different educational settings. In this study, mere *attribution* without any other rhetorical function was, overall, the most frequent function for both high and mid/low-scorers. This is similar to previous studies' findings that undergraduate and Master's students primarily used citations to acknowledge the sources of particular content without going further to comment on the content (Azlan, 2013; Lee et al., 2018; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Petrić, 2007; Wette, 2017). This could be because student writers have limited awareness of using citations for a range of rhetorical purposes, as well as unfamiliarity with the genres they are typically required to write. However, even though Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) and Petrić (2007) investigated Master's dissertations, which arguably had similar genre purposes to research articles, a tendency to merely attribute sources was still found in their student texts.

Links between sources can be achieved through different ways, and this study used three categories—*group citations*, *compare/contrast*, and *exemplification/further reference* (see Section 3.4.3). It is difficult to compare the results with other studies as they used different constructs. Some studies counted the percentages of links between sources as one broad category (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Petrić, 2007), whereas some studies counted the percentages of *group citations* alone (Hyland, 1999 with the term *generalisation*; Wette, 2017 with the term *citations from multiple*

sources), perhaps due to the ease of identifying this format. In terms of links between sources in general, when adding percentages of all three categories together, this study found an aggregated average percentage of 28.11% for high-scorers and 18.05% for mid/low-scorers. It needs to be borne in mind that these figures may include citations coded for multiple functions (see Section 3.4.3). These percentages are in part in line with previous observations and findings that student writers tend to cite single sources instead of bringing several sources together in synthesis (Howard et al., 2010; Li & Casanave, 2012; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; McCulloch, 2012; Wette, 2017).

The function *group citations* is comparable among studies, as its syntactic format is easily distinguishable. In this study, high-scorers used 12.81% *group citations*, whereas the mid/low-scorers used only 8.88% *group citations*. There appears to be some relationship between the percentage of this format and the level of expertise. For example, Lee et al. (2018) investigated 100 research papers written by L2 undergraduate students on a First Year Writing course in a US university, and found only 0.96% of all citations to be generalisation of several sources. Wette (2017) found 8.33% *group citations* in 27 essays from six Third Year undergraduate students (five of whom studied TESOL) in a New Zealand university, which is very close to the mid/low-scorers' percentages of *group citations* in this study. Wette compared this figure with Hyland's (1999) finding of 23% *group citations* in ten Applied Linguistics articles, and concluded that her student writers appeared inexperienced in this regard. From these studies, there seems to be a pattern that the percentage of *group citations* would go up as the level of expertise advances. This could be in part due to student writers' limited ability of synthesising common points from multiple sources, but it could also be that journal articles expect more synthesised statements of multiple sources than the essay genre. This genre difference in using *group citations* will be discussed again when analysing Isabel's imitation of journal articles (Section 7.6.3).

Compared with mere *attribution* and *links between sources*, this study found relatively low percentages of the *evaluation* functions. High-scorers used 11.47% *positive evaluation* and 2.04% *negative evaluation*, while mid/low-scorers used 7.55% *positive evaluation* and 2.80% *negative evaluation*. These included the use of reporting phrases or other devices that indicate writer stance (See Section 3.4.1 and

Section 3.4.3). The *positive evaluation* function endorses the source text, e.g., “Author X gave *insightful* arguments on this issue” or “Author X *pointed out* that...”; while the *negative evaluation* function counters the source text, e.g., “Author Y *neglected* the factor of...” or “*No evidence* could support Author Y’s *claim*”. Again, this construct of evaluation is similar to, but slightly different from, the constructs used in other studies. For example, Cumming et al. (2018) used the term *agreement* and *disagreement* with sources; Lee et al. (2018) investigated both *evaluation* in Petrić’s (2007) rhetorical functions framework, and *endorse/contest* in Coffin’s (2009) writer stance framework. Nevertheless, this study’s finding is consistent with previous research findings where undergraduate and Master’s students tend to adopt a predominantly neutral stance and less often show agreement or disagreement with sources (Cumming et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Wette, 2017; Xie, 2016).

In terms of expert writers’ use of evaluation, it is again difficult to compare the values, as most studies on expert genres (e.g., published journal articles) focus on reporting verbs or one specific stance device, perhaps due to the wide use of computer-assisted tools in this area of research. Nevertheless, it can be generally concluded that expert writers tend to make their stance clear by using evaluative reporting verbs (Bloch, 2010), adverbs in conjunction with reporting verbs (Brezina, 2012), or evaluative comments following a neutral verb (Sawaki, 2014). Complete neutral stance without any indication of evaluation tends to be uncommon in expert writing (Bloch, 2010), in contrast to the “hanging, unresolved” attributions that Groom (2000b, p.17) observed to be typical in student writing.

7.3 Awareness of the rhetorical nature of citations

This section will address RQ2: *What are the reasons for students’ use of certain citation features, and neglect of others?* From participants’ self-reported reasons behind their use of citation features, it was clear that most students had basic awareness of the rhetorical nature of source use. The sub-sections below will highlight how, at times, they considered the communicative messages they wanted to convey through citations. These include the intention to support their own arguments (Section 7.3.1), to use relevant content from sources (Section 7.3.2), to highlight the content or the author (Section 7.3.3.1), to establish a strong claim by using multiple sources

(Section 7.3.3.2), and to show agreement or disagreement with sources (Section 7.3.3.3). They employed these features intentionally, in order to meet the requirement of critical writing and further to appeal to the marker. Such awareness contrasts with previous research pointing to novice writers' general lack of purpose in their source use (Angélil-Carter, 2000; McCulloch, 2012).

7.3.1 Awareness of attribution

Most participants were aware of the importance of attribution. Nine participants reported intentions to acknowledge sources and to use sources for supporting arguments, and such reporting appeared as early as in Term 1. For example, Fiona consistently used many sources in her texts at the three stages. She also looked for sources to support her own summaries of knowledge (see Section 5.1.1.1). This has some similarity with the purpose of attribution to support the writer's own opinion, commonly found among novice L2 students (Plakans & Gebril, 2012; Thompson et al., 2013), as well as experts' use of sources as evidence to support their own claims (Harwood, 2009; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). Fiona's intentions did not seem to be related to either subjective personal opinion or experts' novel claims based on their own research, but corresponded more to those of an advanced student writer, using citations in a supporting role in their writing, based on their knowledge of the field (Leki & Carson, 1997).

Six participants reported their intention to distinguish different voices clearly to their audience. This includes distinguishing between the student's ideas and source texts' ideas, as well as distinguishing between different authors' ideas. For example, Jennifer's use of citations was particularly dense (in Section 4.1.2) when compared to her not so frequent use of sources (Section 4.1.1). She often acknowledged the sources of different ideas contained in the same sentence, for which she reported an intention to signpost citations clearly (Section 5.1.1.2). By default, anything that is stated but not referenced directly belongs to the writer, and in this sense, Jennifer attributed most of the ideas to the sources she consulted. This practice seems to conform to the source use conventions, as novice students are not likely to produce original ideas. Her cautious approach to attribution is similar to what other studies referred to as *over-referencing*, i.e. attributing sources frequently even when it is

seemingly unnecessary, a practice that was more typical among high-scoring students in such studies (Davis, 2013; Petrić, 2012). In this study, Jennifer's practice seems to have signalled authorship appropriately (her T1 CM feedback commented: "referencing was clear"), and no evidence from marker feedback suggested a negative sense of *over-referencing*.

In contrast to Jennifer's example, five participants made no reference to particular sources when presenting what they regarded as common knowledge (Section 5.1.2.2). Clearly, knowing when to attribute is difficult for novice writers, because they have limited knowledge as to what counts as shared knowledge in the discipline, and what counts as individualised knowledge that needs referencing. As advised by textbooks (Creme & Lea, 2008) or subject lecturers (Wette, 2017), if students are unsure about whether a particular point needs referencing, they would do better to attribute the idea to sources, rather than claiming originality of the idea.

7.3.2 Awareness of content relevance

In this study, the textual feature of *extensive citations* (i.e. attributing the same single source to four or more consecutive sentences) was identified as a potential indicator of over reliance on particular sources and descriptive writing (Section 3.4.2). When commenting on their instances of *extensive citations* in essays, five participants reported difficulties in bringing in other sources (Section 5.2.1), while six participants reported an intention to explain the ideas clearly (Section 5.2.2). These instances nonetheless could appear to be descriptive from the researcher's point of view. The participants were aware of the need to explain relevant ideas, but they struggled to develop their understanding of what constituted an acceptable amount of description.

Regarding the LR chapters, however, six participants' use of *extensive citations* seemed to be necessary preparation for the empirical study to follow (Section 5.2.3). Nonetheless, other instances were criticised in tutor feedback for including irrelevant details (Section 6.3.4.2). One conclusion was that the amount of description necessary was not the same for essays and the LR chapter. In this regard, although six participants appeared to have used *extensive citations* purposefully at the dissertation stage, their struggle with content relevance was still evident throughout the three stages of the study. This contrasts with Shi, Fazel and Kowkabi's (2018)

findings on 18 graduate students' writing in a US university. Their advanced student writers were able to choose only the content necessary from source texts and integrate it purposefully into their own writing. This ability can clearly take time to develop, and Master's students may need some familiarisation with the way good writers integrate content from sources, in order to go beyond mere description. This suggests the value of pedagogical materials that raise awareness of an inappropriate amount of description dedicated to one single source.

7.3.3 Awareness of stance

This section will discuss the participants' awareness of the rhetorical purposes of citation devices. These include the integral and non-integral citation forms, devices to achieve links between sources, and devices to achieve evaluation of sources, including the use of reporting phrases and explicit comments. Using these citation features randomly without purposes may inhibit the potential for showing authorial stance.

7.3.3.1 Integral and non-integral citations

Nine participants reported their intention to use the integral form to highlight the author, or the non-integral form to highlight the content. Such an understanding conforms to conventional use of citation forms as recognised in the literature (Section 2.4.4.1). It appears that most participants had an understanding of how these different strategies for reporting impacted the author voice. The fact that most students had this awareness might have been a result of teaching, as some participants reported to have learned about this point from EAP courses (e.g., Naomi's example in Section 5.3.1) and subject lecturers' feedback (Lucy's example in Section 6.3.4.2). By contrast, only three participants (Jennifer, Naomi, and Lucy, in Section 5.3.2) reported an intention to use integral citations for ideas associated with particular authors or particular findings, and to use non-integral citations for generally accepted ideas, a function of citation forms that is also established in the literature (e.g., Pecorari, 2008a). They seemed to have reached this awareness from observing discourse features, instead of from explicit teaching of the functions.

In contrast to such demonstration of awareness, some instances of citation form use seemed inappropriate in their rhetorical emphasis. For example, Helena's text

analyses showed that she used predominantly the integral form (above 80%) in T1 but drastically reversed the trend by using predominantly the non-integral form in T2 (90%) (see Section 4.2), suggesting random use and a lack of clear purpose. Her feedback report in T2 also indicated that she inappropriately used the non-integral form for particular research findings, which Helena clearly did not consider in the rhetorical sense (Section 6.3.4.1). This is similar to one novice student's problematic use in Mcculloch's (2012) study, who used the integral form for what was actually generally accepted knowledge not coined by any particular authors (the example being "According to Author X, in investigating learner language, it is important to collect reliable and valid samples from actual speech or writing" p.64). From Mcculloch's (2012) interpretation of the student's example, it also seems that the two rhetorical connotations of citation forms listed here could actually be one. An intention to highlight the content or the author with the use of citation forms often overlaps with an intention to separate particular findings from commonly accepted knowledge. In this sense, perhaps when teaching students about the functions of citation forms, it would be better to explain both the function of highlighting the content or the author, and the function of distinguishing between particular findings or ideas and widely accepted knowledge. Simply telling learners that citation forms can highlight the author or the content (as seems to be the case for the EAP courses in this study) might be problematic, as students may not know whether they should highlight content or the author in the first place. Helena in this study was a particularly telling case for this, as she was aware of the content and author distinction, but still used citation forms inappropriately in authentic contexts.

7.3.3.2 Links between sources

In this study, nine out of ten participants used multiple sources in reference to one point, with an intention to strengthen their knowledge claims. Six participants discussed their intention for contrasting ideas, which could serve a further purpose of incorporating a range of perspectives. This finding indicates that most participants were aware of the need to synthesise and compare sources, especially towards the later stages of the study, which contributes to the requirement for establishing students' own positions in academic writing (Wingate, 2012a). This finding conforms to the feature of successful student writers in previous studies, that they were able to

find links between the sources they read and show such connection in their own writing (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Petrić, 2007).

In contrast to these six participants' intentions to present contrasting views, Isabel, Lucy, and Kim's (two low-scorers and one mid-scorer) texts contained few instances of *compare/contrast* functions generally, and they did not report any particular intention when they made such comparisons. This suggests that for them, the form of directly stating differences between sources may not be as easily employable as the format of *group citations* as a link-making device. Similarly, in Thompson et al.'s (2013) longitudinal study, such awareness of presenting a range of views was reported by only one out of 13 first-year undergraduate students towards the end of the year. However, contrasting sources is important as it shows incorporation of different points of views and indicates awareness of the dialogic nature of knowledge (Bazerman, 1988; Chanock, 2008).

At the same time, five participants (three high-scorers and two low-scorers) explicitly discussed how they used references to multiple sources to gain marks, attempting to show their marker that they had engaged in wide reading by making links between sources. This is comparable with Harwood and Petric's (2012) finding of two successful postgraduate students' performance strategies in providing a larger number of references than what they actually consulted in writing their essays. However, whereas Harwood and Petric (2012) suggest that performance behaviour could boost the appearance of the quality of work in the negative sense, in this study performance can be regarded as a legitimate catalyst for meeting the requirement of analytical writing. For example, Naomi and Elsa recognised their weakness of over-reliance on some sources, and actively searched for other sources to address this problem (see Section 5.4.2). They realised the need to show evidence of wide reading, and they became no longer contented with their original extended description of one source text. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that the rationale to perform as a competent writer can be positive when the sources are indeed carefully read, but negative when sources are merely used for boosting the amount of citations without thorough understanding (Harwood & Petrić, 2012). On the other hand, it would be difficult to interpret whether students have substantial knowledge of the sources they

referenced, even with participants' self-reports. The implication would perhaps be that markers should be aware of the performance strategies and remind students to be honest with the extent of their reading.

7.3.3.3 Evaluation

Seven out of ten participants referred to their intentions to show an evaluative stance or critical analysis when they made evaluative comments on sources. Regarding reporting phrases, five participants on at least one occasion intended to use factive phrases (phrases that represent the content as true, as in Hyland, 1999) to show agreement with sources. Two participants used counter-factive phrases (phrases that represent the content as not true) to show disagreement with sources. Another five participants used neutral phrases to show a non-committal stance towards sources. Such intentions showed the participants' overall awareness of the requirement for criticality in academic writing, which was unsurprising, as it featured in programme handbooks, EAP courses, and coursework feedback. At the same time, misconceptions of criticality also occurred. For example, Elsa regarded criticality as merely criticising sources and explained why she refrained from doing so (see Section 5.5.3). This reflects a common student problem in understanding criticality, namely that it is about finding strengths as well as weaknesses, and that there must be reasons for making such academic judgements (Wingate, 2012a). One pedagogical implication from this is to make the requirement explicit by showing example extracts of how to achieve criticality through source use in discourse appropriate ways.

Further, three participants reported adopting a predominantly neutral stance due to an unwillingness to critique authors who they regarded as the authorities. This perception of scholarly texts as superior has been commonly found among novice L2 writers (Abasi, Akbari, & Graves, 2006; Hirvela & Du, 2013; Wette, 2017), and they often regard themselves as novices lacking the credentials necessary to cast evaluation on authoritative texts (Abasi et al., 2006; Chanock, 2008; Thompson et al., 2013). Further, while some literature has proposed that certain cultures (typically the Chinese culture) tend to avoid criticising published texts (Carroll, 2007; Qian & Krugly-Smolka, 2008), the cultural element did not seem to emerge from student interviews

in this study, one indication being that only three out of the ten Chinese students in this study articulated a reluctance to confront authorial texts.

Another interesting point was that evaluation was not always from the participants' own judgement of sources, but what they interpreted based on their knowledge of the field. For example, in literature review writing, Fiona commented positively on a framework, that it "is the most comprehensive and the validity has been confirmed" (Section 5.5.1). She suggested in the interview that other studies using this framework confirmed its validity, rather than suggesting that any sources actually claimed that. This is similar to Shi et al.'s (2018) finding that advanced student writers did not always rely exclusively on what the sources explicitly stated; they inferred one author's stance based on their knowledge of the wider literature. This may be a strategy that successful or advanced students use to generate their own evaluative stance, and it is clearly based on in-depth knowledge of the overall field.

7.4 Difficulties in using sources rhetorically

This section will continue to address RQ2. It is expected that students show engagement with sources by showing their stances and connecting sources with a range of positions. Although most participants in this study reported intentions to show engagement and accordingly used citation features successfully (as discussed above), other concerns were also prominent and sometimes impeded their rhetorical use of citations. In other words, participants were inconsistent in their approaches to using sources rhetorically. This section will discuss the difficulties that participants reported to experience, which contributed to such inconsistency. The difficulties include unfamiliarity with citation devices and hence a limited number of choices for rhetorical use (Section 7.4.1); the dilemma between linguistic forms and rhetorical functions (Section 7.4.2); and reading and understanding domain knowledge (Section 7.4.3).

7.4.1 Unfamiliarity with citation devices

It can be said that awareness of rhetorical roles of citations, which most participants demonstrated, did not always lead to rhetorical use in texts. This was in part caused by the participants' unfamiliarity with the range of syntactic expressions of citations. They often chose the expressions that they were most familiar with, and did not have

the language resources of other forms that could more effectively convey rhetorical meanings. This was evident in participants' use of integral and non-integral citations (Section 5.3.3), lack of thinking behind the rhetorical meanings of reporting phrases in source texts (Helena's example in Section 5.5.3), and the limited range of evaluative devices as compared to a wider range of options in the literature (Section 5.5.4). This echoes the language difficulties that international Chinese students typically face, especially in vocabulary size and literacy skills, which impede their academic achievement (Trenkic & Warmington, 2017; Zhang & Mi, 2010). Such unfamiliarity with a variety of citation devices was also likely to be the reason for Ädel and Garretson's (2006) finding of student writers' strong preference for using the verbal form of reporting (*Author X found that...*) rather than the nominal form (*Author X's finding*) in a six million-word corpus of upper-graded undergraduate papers across disciplines. This shows that beginners of academic writing are only likely to master a limited number of citation devices, which at the same time, is the inevitable starting point for learning appropriate source use. As students develop a command of a wider variety of usages, they become more capable of choosing the citation phrases that best match their communicative intentions. Clearly, it is important to enlarge novice writers' repertoire of citation expressions throughout their enculturation into the discipline discourse, in order to facilitate rhetorical use of sources.

In a different vein, this study found some evidence of language transfer from L1 in participants' use of reporting phrases (Section 5.5.2.3). Naomi and Olivia, two high-scorers, interpreted reporting phrases' rhetorical meanings by attempting to find their counterparts in their L1, Chinese. Whereas in these two cases, language transfer helped them to understand the rhetorical meanings of a few neutral verbs, students should in fact be cautious about such strategies. Previous literature has shown that the rhetorical meanings of reporting phrases could be different in English and other languages, such as Chinese (Hu & Wang, 2014) and French (Jolivet & Carter-Thomas, 2014). Students should be introduced to the semantic and rhetorical differences of citation devices across languages, so that they can make use of their L1 knowledge cautiously (Hu & Wang, 2014).

7.4.2 Linguistic forms vs rhetorical meanings

A further reason for unfamiliarity with citation forms was general language proficiency. Most participants struggled to find the desired linguistic forms to best communicate rhetorical messages. For the use of integral/non-integral citation forms, reporting phrases, and occasionally for the use of *group citations*, a commonly reported concern was to vary the usage, in the belief that variation in itself was a mark of a competent writer. This finding confirms previous observations and findings that L2 student writers often focus more on varying reporting phrases without thinking through their rhetorical implications (Bloch, 2010; Pecorari, 2008a). It also corroborates the general belief that novice writers have insufficient understanding of the purposes of source use (Angélil-Carter, 2000; Chanock, 2008). All this evidence suggests that a common misconception held by novice students may be that alternating citation forms will impress the marker, even if only at the level of linguistic ability. This misconception may also exist in some research implications. Some studies on students' use of citation devices indicate that using a limited range of reporting structures is problematic (Friginal, 2013; Kwon et al., 2018), which may lead to a focus on forms rather than meanings. Linking with the argument in the previous section, the problem is not simply that a limited range of devices are used, but that the choice of devices does not fulfil the communicative potential in a specific context. In order to clarify the essence of this form-meaning dilemma, student writers need to be shown how citations are used for the purpose of the writer's overall stance, and that citation forms cannot be used interchangeably without principles. Unfortunately, this point has not been sufficiently addressed in many popular EAP textbooks reviewed (Section 2.5.2).

Another facet of the issue was that most participants in this study tended to prioritise accuracy of grammar and sentence structure, and as a result overlooked rhetorical meanings. When discussing their use of reporting phrases, half of the participants commented on their attention to how to blend the verbs into the surrounding sentence structure. For example, Lucy (in her LR in Section 5.5.2.3) chose the reporting phrase *according to* in order to maintain grammaticality in a sentence, and she seemed to be ignorant of other forms that she could have used for the purpose. This provides evidence of a general lack of linguistic proficiency, but

also indicates her unfamiliarity with how citations and reporting phrases can be used in sentences. Similarly, seven participants considered the sentence structure and coherence with surrounding texts when they chose between integral and non-integral citation forms (Section 5.3.3). These findings are similar to those relating to two undergraduate ESL Chinese students' perception of paraphrasing in Hirvela and Du's (2013) study; these students regarded paraphrasing merely as linguistic re-arranging of sentences, and did not focus on engagement with the content. This points to the language concerns L2 students are always likely to encounter in developing their academic writing, not only in terms of citation devices but also every language choice in paraphrasing and summarising (Schmitt, 2005). However, the real challenge they face is two-sided; they need to master the writing at the linguistic level of forms, but also to engage with meaning at the level of conventions. A pedagogic focus on language difficulties can only partially solve such problems, and may aggravate the situation if students are only aware of the mechanical and formulaic resources and options. Therefore, support on source use needs to address both the linguistic and the rhetorical aspects altogether within specific disciplinary contexts of content learning, taking a holistic approach to source use support (Wingate, 2006).

7.4.3 Reading and understanding domain knowledge

Although it was not possible in the design of this study to investigate the reading stage prior to writing, it is clear that effective and appropriate source use is heavily dependent on students' abilities to read critically and master the content knowledge (Section 2.4.5). Half of the participants, perhaps unsurprisingly, reported a range of reading difficulties as the reasons for not providing links between sources (Section 5.4.3) or not evaluating sources (Section 5.5.3). It is therefore worthwhile to deconstruct these difficulties. As will be shown below, the difficulties at the reading stage were complex, involving difficulties in understanding the content knowledge, in grasping author stance and in forming a systematic system for reading the literature.

Understanding the content of sources is central to the quality of source-based writing (Section 2.4.5). Difficulties in understanding the content were the most prominent for Kim, a low-scorer. Unlike the other participants, she was the only one who reported that "often" she could not "understand the sources" (T3 SSI). This was

not surprising, given her rather limited language proficiency and her weaker academic background as compared with other participants⁸. It was because of her frequent uncertainty about the content and stance of sources that she tended to leave an open stance using neutral reporting phrases (Section 5.5.3). In contrast to Kim's case, the other nine participants did not report particular difficulties in comprehending the content of sources, which may be due to the relatively high language proficiency of the participant group. The fact that only a low-scorer reported difficulties in reading is in line with Plakans and Gebril's (2012) finding of nine students completing reading-to-write tasks, where students with lower scores reported far more difficulty in comprehending source texts. This tendency was also summarised in Grabe and Zhang's (2013) review of several studies on short reading-to-write tasks. Unsurprisingly, substantial difficulties in understanding sources impact negatively on the outcomes of source-based writing.

Apart from self-reported difficulties, further evidence of misunderstanding of author stances emerged from interviews, with two more participants, and analysis of their texts, in which Helena's example was particularly interesting (see Section 5.5.3). She adopted the reporting phrase "belief holds that" from a source text in order to report the author stance accurately, without noticing that the author used a weak phrase in order to counter the position later on. This instance echoes Jamieson and Howard's (2013) finding of a tendency to simply report information located at the very beginning of sources in 174 undergraduate papers, which indicated a lack of reading around citations to understand the whole text and developing argument. Similarly, both Thompson et al. (2013) and Wette (2010) found in their undergraduate L2 students' texts some incomplete or inaccurate representation of original sources' meanings, even after sustained practice of source-based writing. All this points to ineffective reading strategies, which result in a failure to grasp author stance and to understand how citations are used to develop coherent arguments. It does not point to

⁸ See participants' profile in Section 3.5.2. Kim's lowest IELTS score was 5.5 overall, taken within one year before the study. She attended vocational school and then transferred to a bachelor's degree program.

a lack of citation skills at the writing stage. This confirms the position often held that ESL students' problems in source-based writing may be caused by ineffective reading of source texts (Boscolo, Ariasi, Del Favero, & Ballarin, 2011; Hirvela, 2004; Shaw & Pecorari, 2013).

Another aspect that emerged in relation to difficulties in reading was related to strategies such as note taking and keeping track of the content of sources. The management of such study skills strategies seemed to be a more pertinent issue in this study than the more basic comprehension problems discussed above. As seen in Section 5.4.3, both high and low-scorers struggled to identify sources relating to a range of positions, and they struggled to keep track of relevant information which then hindered their attempts to integrate these arguments into their own texts. This finding is similar to that regarding two students' difficulties in Hirvela and Du's (2013) study; while these students were able to paraphrase at sentence level in EAP classes, they had problems incorporating source texts into their own coursework writing. This points to a problem in literacy skills, aggravated by the participants' lack of experience in source-based writing. As the study progressed, more participants reported strategies to overcome these difficulties, such as using a grid to record key points of each source and demonstrate relationships between sources (Naomi T3 SSI). Clearly, systematic categorisation of ideas from sources would seem to be important for successful argumentation. There was ample evidence of high-scorers reading a range of sources, gaining in-depth understanding and making careful arrangement of information before writing (e.g., Jennifer in Section 5.1.1.2; Elsa in Section 5.4.2). These are in line with the goal-setting and goal-keeping strategies typically found in high-performing students' writing processes under both controlled conditions (Plakans, 2009; Solé et al., 2013) and naturalistic contexts (McCulloch, 2013). In particular, literature organisation techniques can facilitate the visualisation of relationships between sources and arguments, contributing to effective source use in the final product. Existing attempts at teaching such techniques will be discussed further in Section 7.8.

7.5 Chinese international students in UK higher education

This section will further address RQ2. Topics of discussion in this section are not simply awareness of the rhetorical nature of citations, difficulties that students had in source use, or reading and writing *per se*, but influences from the wider context of international students studying in Anglophone universities. Firstly, student engagement with the programme of study was found to be an unstable factor (Section 7.5.1); their dedication to coursework writing could change according to their interest in the topic and personal arrangements at that stage. A particular student cannot always be assumed to be conscientious or lacking effort. Secondly, time constraints on coursework writing sometimes led to limited space for participants to carefully consider their rhetorical intentions when using sources (Section 7.5.2). This is in part due to institutional timings, but it is also due to participants' time arrangement. Thirdly, different essay task requirements were more of an issue for some participants than others, but all participants faced the challenges of managing different requirements of assignments and the LR chapters. This need to understand and interpret source use requirements of a particular task adds to the challenges they faced in source use (Section 7.5.3).

7.5.1 Engagement with study: An unstable factor

Apart from language and literacy issues, it is acknowledged that students' general motivation and engagement with study also influence their product of writing (Fenton-Smith et al., 2015; Wright & Schartner, 2013). In this study, source use features can be in part traced back to participants' attitudes towards their coursework writing. In the pilot study, Alice admitted to an attempt to fulfil length requirements of the assignment by describing a source extensively without particular purposes (Section 5.2.1), showing her limited commitment to the degree programme study, or perhaps her difficulties in trying to manage her work. In the main study, in Term 1 and Term 2 Isabel relied almost exclusively on a few key sources to contribute as much as possible to her own work (Section 5.2.1), which resulted in high frequencies of *extensive citations* when compared with other participants (Section 4.3). Isabel's over reliance on key sources conforms to Bereiter and Scardamalia's (1987) knowledge telling approach to source use, where she simply re-stated the content of the source without transforming it for her own purpose. Isabel had been alerted to her problem of

descriptive writing in her feedback reports in T1 and T2, but she made a poor attempt to improve the problem, with evidence of superficial grouping of sources of the same topic in her LR (Section 4.6.2). Such descriptive writing helps to explain Isabel's overall low marks (48.3 on average, a marginal fail, see Section 3.2.2). This evidence and other interview comments of hers (e.g., Isabel's use of a secondary citation without acknowledgement, in Section 5.3.3) reinforce the view that her commitment to study was limited throughout the programme.

It can also be noted that most participants' engagement with study was not consistent during the programme. A few participants revealed contradictory tendencies on different occasions. For example, Jennifer, a high-scorer, showed a conscientious attitude in acknowledging sources carefully, even to the extent of over-referencing (Section 5.1.1.2), and she achieved this through careful note taking. In Term 2, however, she admitted to a general uncertainty about her knowledge of the assignment topic, as she reported travelling during the vacation and, therefore, devoting limited time to reading and writing. The mark she received for this assignment was much lower than her T1 assignment. Another example was Elsa, also a high-scorer, whose ability to synthesise ideas and argue critically were evident in one qualitative extract (Section 4.6.3). In the interview, Elsa associated it with her particular interest in the topic:

I used to think we need to use them (authentic materials), and later I found someone said you don't necessarily need to use them. So I searched for a lot of sources on this point, and wrote a lot about it. (T3 DBI)

This influence of interest in the topic corresponds with Boscolo et al.'s (2011) finding, from 247 high-school students' source-based writing in their L1, that students writing on a topic that seemed to interest them more scored higher in knowledge base questions. However, at other stages of the study, Elsa also displayed evidence of a similar lack of commitment to that shown by Isabel above. Elsa also used high percentages of *extensive citations* in T1 and T2, and explained her difficulties in searching for further sources (Section 5.2.1); at DS, she did not directly address one problem as pointed out by her supervisor, where she cited a definition from a dictionary (Section 6.3.4.2). These may indicate less than total engagement. On the other hand, it was difficult to get clear evidence of how participants actually engaged

with learning. The majority of data collected on this were from participants' self-reports, and only a few types of relevant artefacts could be collected.

7.5.2 Time pressure

Many participants reported or indicated time constraints they faced during writing their coursework. On many occasions, participants reported that they had not considered the rhetorical roles of their citations, and an underlying factor seemed to be their need to produce work in a limited period of time. For example, when asked about her use of citation forms, Helena responded, "I was more concerned about writing down the work and finishing it on time, not so focused on the (citation) skills" (T2 DBI). Time constraints also influenced the extent that students engaged with searching for literature. For example, Jennifer reported that she did not have enough time to find the sources that she expected for her T2 assignment (see Section 5.2.1) due to her traveling during the holiday. It needs to be restated that students have a range of objectives and motivations for study abroad (Chirkov, Vansteenkiste, Tao, & Lynch, 2007); academic achievement is certainly one important objective, but it is not the only objective. The one-year taught MA programme may be too short to allow students to take time out at busy stages. Nonetheless, some successful students reported a revision and editing stage before submission. For example, Naomi edited her use of integral/non-integral forms in T2 OM according to tutor advice (see Section 5.3.1) while Elsa and Naomi added more sources to their previous drafts (Section 5.4.2). Conforming to previous literature, academic writing from sources is a complex process, and time pressure is surely one of the obstacles preventing students from achieving effective source use (Pittam, Elander, Lusher, Fox, & Payne, 2009).

7.5.3 Genre and task requirement

Although this study did not set out to explore effects of genre requirements or specific task prompts on source use, there was evidence that different task requirements impacted source use. As shown in Section 6.3.2, Mina and Kim reported their lecturers' communication of task requirements, and concluded that requirements might not be the same across modules. In these cases, awareness of task difference was mainly due to the lecturers' explicit instruction. No other participant mentioned task differences and their influence on source use. This finding differs in some ways

to that of Thompson et al. (2013), who found that a few First Year undergraduate students became aware of the need to adapt their source use according to task prompts during the year. The successful Master's student in Petrić and Harwood's (2013) study also showed awareness of differing task requirements and adjusted her source use accordingly.

The participants' relatively rare reporting of task difference factors in this study could in part be due to the similarity in task prompts for some participants' T1 and T2 assignments. The majority of assignments in the department were based on discussion of a particular statement (Section 3.5.3), and therefore for some participants, few task differences seemed apparent. This raises the question of how diversity in coursework requirements at undergraduate or Master's level can be more of a problem for some students than others. Those who took modules that require different task types might need to spend more effort in grasping the particular task requirements. Or, they might actually benefit from this understanding of genre difference, which is an opportunity that other students lost. In either case, it is essential to ensure students' understanding of task requirements, and to invite students to think through the rhetorical styles required by each task. On the other hand, an important reason why participants rarely reported task differences of essays may be that the interviews in this study did not specifically ask about their understanding of tasks at each stage, as this was not a part of the study design. An opportunity was perhaps lost by not including more focus on this. A better approach could be to ask participants in Term 2 whether they perceived a change in their source use due to the change in the task rubric.

While there was limited evidence of task differences among assignments and participants' awareness of such differences, there were differences in the participants' source use in the assignment genre and the literature review genre. In the text analysis, the ten students, as a group, made more links between sources in the LR chapters than in assignments in T1 and T2 (as seen in Section 4.4). This could in fact be due to their awareness of genre difference, although no participant commented so explicitly. Only Elsa and Jennifer reported a perception that the LR chapter required more sources than assignments, which could be due to their increased dedication to dissertation writing as well, since the dissertation bore more credits than assignments.

Another reason may be that the LR chapter has the more specific rhetorical purposes of justifying one's own research, whereas essays tend to address a more general inquiry (Section 2.2.2). This could have prompted the participants to demonstrate more connections between sources in their LR chapters.

Further, specific requirements of the literature review seem to have been more clearly communicated to the participants than essays, through the DEL courses on writing dissertations and the source use workshop that five participants attended in T3. For example, Fiona and Olivia commented particularly on the usefulness of the DEL courses in highlighting the rhetorical moves involved in the LR chapter, a genre they had written for in undergraduate degrees, but had little understanding of. In this regard, the writing support on the literature review might be more relevant to the participants' actual needs in assessment than the support on assignment writing. This could be because the steps and moves of a literature review have been clearly defined (e.g., Swales, 1990), whereas the rhetorical purposes and moves in essays are very variable. One implication might be that students become more familiar with a range of typical rhetorical relations in essay genres, e.g., problem-solution, cause-effect, challenges-opportunities (in textbooks such as Bailey, 2011), and further consider source use features that are appropriate for these rhetorical relations.

7.6 Enculturation into source use conventions

This section will draw on institutional support, departmental support and students' self-learning to explain the participants' development of source use and their enculturation into source use conventions. As shown in Chapter 6, most learning points of source use came from institutional and departmental input; other learning opportunities were rather limited. The coverage of source use in a range of support included skills for using sources (i.e. plagiarism detection, searching for literature), generic academic language for source use (integral and non-integral citation forms; reporting phrases), and discipline or task-specific language use related to content learning. Sections 7.6.1 to 7.6.3 will discuss the impact of such support on participants' learning of source use, while Section 7.6.4 will further discuss individual students' different extents of engagement with these types of support.

7.6.1 Learning from add-on input

In this study, a significant part of the institutional support was add-on courses that focused on one source use skill, such as how to use text-matching software to check for plagiarism, or how to search for sources in the library system (Section 6.1). The nature of such support conforms to the bolt-on study skills approach to teaching academic literacy (Badenhorst, Moloney, Rosales, Dyer, & Ru, 2015; Wingate, 2006). As criticised in the literature, this approach separates study skills from the learning of subject content, suggesting that students could achieve academic success by merely mastering the skills without an in-depth knowledge of the subject (Wingate, 2006).

The problem of this study skills approach was evident in this study. Although the participants attended the workshops and courses, later on they struggled with applying these skills. For example, Isabel, Elsa, and Jennifer had difficulties in finding the sources they needed (see Section 5.2.1). Isabel recalled course activities on referencing styles but was still criticised for referencing in her T1 essay (see Section 6.1.2; her case report in Appendix 10) and Jennifer perceived to have benefitted little from the Turnitin workshop and she did not use the tool in T1 to check plagiarism (see Section 6.1.4). It could be that the students themselves did not perceive the relevance of these skills, as the courses took place outside degree programme study, a point echoed in many papers on literacy support models (Harris & Ashton, 2011; Kennelly et al., 2010; Wingate, 2006). The effectiveness of such support, though, also depends on individual student's engagement with support, which will be discussed later (Section 7.6.4). Another problem was that the one-off study skills courses mostly took place at the beginning of the programme, when some participants were still navigating their ways into the study system. When they encountered specific problems in their own use, there was little direction toward the help that they could seek.

Focusing on language instead of skills, the in-sessional EAP courses were provided for two hours per week, eight weeks per term. The majority of the programme taught general academic English, with some course materials selected from the Education discipline; yet faculty staff did not participate in designing the materials. This programme can be regarded as a *strong adjunct* model of academic literacy support, as opposed to a *weak* model where no discipline specificity is

involved at all (Harris & Ashton, 2011). To some extent, the participants associated their knowledge gains from the DEL courses with their assignment writing, and the courses played an important role in the participants' acquisition of source use conventions. For example, the fact that nine out of ten participants showed awareness of rhetorical meanings of integral/non-integral citations was very likely to be a direct result of learning the forms from the DEL courses (Section 5.3.1, in which Naomi reported such learning). When commenting on their own use of reporting structures in DBIs, Isabel and Olivia recalled the rhetorical meanings of reporting structures that they learned from DEL courses (Section 6.2.1). Helena learned about the need to construct arguments with citations in DEL courses (Section 6.2.2). This confirms the value of teaching language use for academic writing and it has been argued that students benefit more from teachers' facilitation of form awareness than simply being exposed to academic texts (Hinkel, 2002; Storch & Tapper, 2009). If such explicit support on source use were not provided, the participants would likely become more disoriented by the complexity of discourse conventions.

On the other hand, the DEL courses did not seem to fulfil the potential of language support. It appears that when it came to synthesis and evaluation, two key elements of source use, most participants did not recognise the relevancy of DEL support to their own coursework writing. Although the course materials included some short writing tasks on synthesising and evaluating sources, which even clearly stated "evaluating and synthesising sources to support your arguments" in their task headings (Section 6.2), this does not appear to have made an impact on the participants. What the participants reported tended to be isolated knowledge gains such as categories of reporting structures (Section 6.2.1). Few participants mentioned the need to link sources or evaluate sources as an outcome of learning from the DEL courses (Section 6.2.2). For example, what Lucy learned from the activity of writing synthesis was only that secondary citations need to be avoided. This could in part be due to the weakness of retrospectively recalling knowledge input from courses, as what people recall is likely to be unsystematic and they are most familiar with. However, it was more likely that the scarcity of opportunities to practice synthesis or evaluation in class (see the very few practice tasks in the course materials in Section 6.2) or that the way tutors used these activities did not make participants fully alert to

these conventions outside the EAP classroom. This was further evidenced by participants' citation patterns in their texts. Their percentage of citations containing evaluation was low across three stages, remaining at around 10%, suggesting that the participants, overall, did not transfer the knowledge of evaluation into their writing. This confirms previous literature that EAP support often does not transfer into successful use in students' own coursework writing (Hirvela & Du, 2013; Leki, 2007; Leki & Carson, 1997; Shaw & Pecorari, 2013).

One major reason for the failure in knowledge transfer, as suggested by the literature, is that the exercises in the EAP classroom may be de-contextualised and irrelevant to specific academic programmes (Hirvela & Du, 2013; Leki, 2007; Leki & Carson, 1997). In the EAP course materials in this study, it can be seen that some tips and group discussion activities did not refer to any specific text (Section 6.2), in line with this de-contextuality. However, some sample texts containing source use were also provided for students' noticing of citation forms, which were from Education-related subjects (psychology, citizenship education, and TESOL) that were close to the participants' subject of study (see Appendix 9 for the texts that the materials used). In this sense, the contextualised language devices introduced in DEL courses were in fact relevant to the actual conventions of participants' disciplinary learning. This is different from the common criticism on the detachment of EAP support units from subject disciplines, and that course facilitators predominantly come from language and humanities departments and have little connection with faculties and staff (Russell et al., 2009; Wingate, 2006). Such disconnection may loom larger for hard disciplines in particular, as their rhetorical conventions are very different from the soft disciplines. For example, the requirement of using evaluative reporting structures is more important in soft disciplines than in hard sciences (Hyland, 1999; Ridley, 2012), but evaluative reporting verbs or phrases may be taught in EAP programmes in general.

Nonetheless, the relevancy of course materials to students' subject learning in this study may still be limited, due to the difference between source use in published texts and student coursework. Compared with form-noticing in published texts, source use was even less often addressed in the particular contexts of student coursework

writing (only Fiona and Jennifer's examples of learning source use in their own writing, Section 6.2.2). As de Chazal (2014) observes, in reality it could often be challenging for EAP teachers to gain a full idea of the task types students need to produce in their degree programmes, and thereby building activities of writing authentic tasks into the EAP curriculum. More attention to student genres in such support through collaboration with department staff may further strengthen the relevancy of EAP courses to students' degree programme study.

Therefore, the reason for the limited effect of knowledge transfer in this study was more likely to be, as discussed above, students' lack of awareness of the relevancy of EAP support to coursework writing, which was aggravated by their lack of opportunities to practice source use. In the DEL course materials, there was a very limited number of in-class writing tasks for students to practice synthesis and evaluation skills. These were also much shorter than students' actual assignments, and in-depth arguments could hardly be developed within the time constraints of each session. Even for the mini-assignment that involved the most amount of writing within the DEL course, it was only 500 words. Each student received a very limited 15-minute tutorial with tutors, for which only two participants reported to have received contextualised advice regarding source use (Section 6.2.2). There were also very few opportunities to practice source use in the subject discipline. Only one formative task was usually assigned in T1, which was a 500-word short argument or outline; no formative task was assigned in T2. The students wrote mainly summative tasks of 4000-5000 words, which was a huge jump from their 500-word formative tasks. In total, there were only three summative assignments throughout the whole year, and two took place at the earliest stage (end of T1). The participants did not have sufficient opportunities to apply what they learned from EAP courses into disciplinary writing in the department. Disciplinary support on source use within the department was also limited, which will be discussed in the following section.

7.6.2 Learning from disciplinary input

Arguably, students pay the most attention to their programme tutors, and they are often assessment focused too (Carless, 2006). Gaining knowledge about use sources within the subject disciplines may be another important part of students' literacy

development. Currently in the UK, although some attempts at embedding writing support within degree programme teaching have been reported in various institutions (Harris & Ashton, 2011; Kennelly et al., 2010), discipline-embedded support is still far less frequent than add-on skill courses and general academic language support (Badenhorst et al., 2015; Ganobcsik-Williams, 2004). This study also found that module teaching only addressed specific usage of sources in texts to a limited extent (Section 6.3.3). Even when it was addressed, the lecturers tended to give general advice, perhaps on the basis that it was merely a reminder of what students would know. However, Mina, for example, was actually confused by the general advice given “you can’t just use sources without making your own points”, which indicates the general requirement of avoiding mere description of sources (Section 6.3.1). As shown in previous literature, such limited attention to source use in disciplinary learning might be because subject teachers generally see their role as content teachers, and there is an expectation that support staff work on teaching academic *skills* (Hyland, 2013; Zamel, 1995; Zhu, 2004). Or, although subject lecturers may want more disciplinary support for their students, they do not find the time to do so in their already packed content lecturing time (Wingate, 2012b).

On the other hand, good examples of disciplinary support were more focused, such as the source use workshop provided by an academic in the department (Section 6.1.5). The participants who accessed such support regarded it as beneficial, which either raised awareness of purposeful source use (for Kim, a low-scorer) or provided more examples of source use in context (for Naomi, a high-scorer). One subject lecturer’s demonstration of links between sources within her module (Section 6.3.3) was a unique instance of supporting source use within subject teaching. This example answers to Schmitt’s (2005) suggestion of discussing reading materials in the subject classroom. However, it made different impacts on different participants here. Naomi reported to have benefitted from this and actively made links in her subsequent essays, whereas Helena and Isabel, who attended the same module, did not report this. Nonetheless, if more such context-specific source use support were offered, students may be more likely to pay attention to it and apply those skills in their own writing.

Tutor feedback provides one of the few opportunities for learning more about discipline source use requirements. One might hope or expect feedback to make connections with student knowledge around the quality of sources used, and the way in which they are using them. However, in this study there seems to be little evidence of this. Regarding formative feedback, only one formative task was assigned in the majority of optional modules that the students took in Term 1. Four participants reported becoming more familiar with source use conventions after receiving formative feedback. Three of them reported knowledge gains in managing technical referencing styles, while only one reported understanding the specific requirements of the task. There may be some limitations here for collecting data on formative feedback solely from participants' self-reports of their experience, yet this gave an indication of participants' self-perceived benefits from such feedback. This limited power of formative feedback corresponds with one subject tutor's account in Davis' (2015) study of institutional support on source use. Although the tutor identified the importance of alerting students to avoiding plagiarism, such education could hardly be provided within formative feedback, as there was no scheduled time to do it. This lack of standard expectation of the formative task and its feedback were also observed in this study.

Summative feedback was mostly in the form of electronic reports. Only Naomi and Mina reported to have found question marks and circles on their scripts, which did not really help them to understand and locate specific source use issues in texts. In the analysis of summative feedback reports (Section 6.3.4.1), most feedback comments received by the participants referred to general issues in students' papers, e.g., "Think about currency of sources-the most up to date are the most convincing" (Olivia T1), or "At times you tend to simplify ideas or uncritically accept the sources you had read" (Elsa T1), without referring to specific in-text inferences as evidence of these issues. Such vague comments seemed to do little in helping students realise the concrete problems as they occurred in their writing, and sometimes they impacted participants' motivation to engage with the feedback (as reported by Elsa). This is similar to Poverjuc's (2011) finding that six out of twelve feedback reports for MA students that she collected were short, vague, and general, and the students were not satisfied with the amount of detail on their weaknesses. Students elsewhere have been

found to value *useful* feedback that clearly shows targets for improvement which they could use in future tasks, and become frustrated with feedback that does not clearly identify these targets (Price, Handley, Millar, & O'Donovan, 2010). Moreover, the feedback reports in this study also tended to explain the observable and describable issues, such as misuse of APA formatting, instead of the more complex and abstract issues including criticality and evaluation of sources. The predominance of comments on broad areas and minor technical errors can be due to the time constraints that staff often have for marking and writing up feedback reports (Carless, 2006).

Only a few feedback comments pointed to the analytical and rhetorical aspects of source use, at the same time referring to specific instances in students' writing. For example: "You should focus more on themes for discussion rather than who said what... This is noticeable in your essay through the extensive use of reporting verbs (e.g., As X states/points out; According to Y)" (Jennifer T2). Even in this case, some participants struggled with understanding feedback. This was caused by their limited language proficiency in understanding comments, and their general unfamiliarity with concepts such as *criticality*. This also suggests their general lack of *feedback literacy* or *pedagogic literacy* (Price et al., 2010; Sutton, 2012) as students were rarely engaged with feedback of this type before their university programmes, and may not know how to react to feedback for improvement. This was found to be true in a study of 13 Chinese students studying in a UK university (Tian & Lowe, 2013), where their home learning culture regarding feedback was very different from that of the UK. Their students at first struggled with the feedback they received, both in terms of emotions and language, and gradually changed their perceptions after one semester of engagement with feedback. In the present study as well, of the students who reported that they were confused by any feedback comments, only Mina reported turning to her marker for clarification, although this happened on the premises that she failed the module and needed to re-take the assessment task. Moreover, four participants received criticism on the same source-related issues in both Term 1 and Term 2 (Elsa on over-reliance of sources; Jennifer, Isabel and Helena on superficial analysis of ideas), suggesting their resistance to feedback.

Such resistance was also, in part, due to the superficial nature of the feedback. In order for feedback to have an impact and to *feed forward*, Soden (2013) proposed three concrete steps: 1) the problem needs to be identified; 2) the problem needs to be exemplified by citing specific sections in the student text where the issue occurred; and 3) further explanation may be needed on why the example is problematic. As seen in this study, many summative feedback reports remained at step one, and few went beyond step two. As a result, several participants failed to transform the comments they received into practical improvement in subsequent tasks, echoing findings from a number of studies (e.g., Carless, 2006; Poverjuc, 2011). It is often suggested that opportunities for clarifying feedback be provided, preferably in the format of teacher-student meetings (Carless, 2006) or other types of verbal feedback (Bols & Wicklow, 2013). On the other hand, there were also difficulties in attempting to observe students' improvement due to the feedback, because specific requirements of tasks in subsequent terms may change (Price et al., 2010). Even in the cases of the four participants who received similar criticisms in two terms, the specific issues leading to the appearance of superficial analysis can be different. More specific feedback on these issues might have shed more light on this.

Overall, managing APA style occupied much attention in both institutional support resources and feedback comments, while support on rhetorical use of sources was relatively limited. This was also perceived by a few participants themselves, as seen in Section 6.5.1. This conforms to the criticism that source use guides for students and EAP materials often focus predominantly on the referencing styles, but rarely address the more complex functions of source use and its role in making arguments (Abasi et al., 2006; McCulloch, 2012). It reflects the still prominent focus on study skills in teaching EAP and also subject courses, which only gives attention to surface features of academic writing, and does not really prepare students for building complex academic arguments in their disciplines (Section 2.3). Accordingly, support on the much-needed language devices for students to socialise in the academic discourse (see Section 2.3) was limited. This was evident in the limited opportunities students were given for practicing source use under guidance, and also in the weaknesses of the type of materials learners are often presented (textbooks in Section 2.5.2, and the DEL course materials in this study). More explicit form-noticing of

citation functions combined with more practice may address these limitations, as will be discussed in Section 7.8.

7.6.3 Learning from exposure to texts

All ten participants reported acquiring some source use expressions from reading academic texts. The majority of these instances appeared to have made a positive impact on participants' source use. For example, Elsa, a high-scorer, noticed the expression "the opposed view" for signalling contrasting positions and used it appropriately in her text (Section 6.4.1). Fiona, a high-scorer as well, from Term 1 noticed the use of grouping several sources in brackets to support a position with more strength, and continued to establish links between sources in this way in her writing throughout the study (Section 6.4.1). This in part conforms to previous findings that stronger students often use *literacy-mining strategies* where they pay attention to language expressions found in source texts and consciously make use of the expressions in their own texts (Green, 2013; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015).

However, Kim and Isabel's form-noticing in source texts seemed to have misleading effects. For example, Isabel reported her observation that research articles often group multiple sources. With an intention to imitate expert writing, she also attempted to group sources in her literature review. This grouping however merely linked sources by topics without dealing with specific and in-depth content (Section 4.6.2). This instance indicates her assumption that genre expectations were the same for journal articles and Master's dissertations. In fact, in the limited space of journal articles, *group citations* serve to present information concisely, and they are frequently used, especially in recent years (Hyland & Jiang, 2017). By contrast, student writers need to demonstrate the extent of their subject knowledge (Petrić, 2007), so sometimes they are expected to expand on sources in assignments and empirical dissertations. Adding to this, in Peng's (2019) study of citation use in 20 literature review chapters in Linguistics and Applied Linguistics doctoral theses, low percentages of *group citations* have been found (*generalisation* in her terms), indicating the genre expectation of providing elaborated reviews. Hence, the need to use *group citations* in classroom genres is not the same as in journal articles, and students need to be made aware of the danger of uncritically assuming the uniformity

of this convention. They need to be aware of the multiplicity of conventions across disciplines and genres, and be prepared to tailor their knowledge according to the specific task at hand.

Although most participants attempted to learn the discourse-appropriate expressions by examining published texts, it was clear that such attempts could mislead rather than lead, such as in Isabel's case here, if students were left on their own to negotiate with the complex and opaque conventions of writing (Hathaway, 2015). Therefore, students need to be guided in such form-noticing activities. The in-session EAP courses in this study included some form-noticing activities for citation use (Section 6.2.1), and the participants' self-guided acquisition of citation devices may have been positively influenced by practicing such skills in class. However, genre differences and discipline differences between sub-fields of education do not seem to be sufficiently emphasised in these courses.

7.6.4 Engagement with support: Individual differences and the transitory nature

While the participants all had access to a range of support on source use, it was clear that they engaged with support differently. For example, Naomi, a high-scorer, was sensitive to various types of support, including verbal advice from her supervisor during meetings, her subject lecturer's demonstration of source use, and optional workshops available to her. She also actively sought out further advice on issues she was confused with. In the discourse-based interviews, she often related her source use to the support inputs that she could recall (e.g., her example in Section 5.3.1). In contrast, Isabel's (a low-scorer) recall of input mostly involved recollections of the importance of using referencing styles and form accurately (Section 6.1.2 and Section 6.4.2), a very basic and technical requirement of source use. Regarding the more important requirements, Isabel reported a lecturer's communication of task requirements around source use (Section 6.3.3). However, she misunderstood the tutor's advice "give more details of studies", interpreting it in a superficial and inflexible manner. She eventually used many *extensive citations* in her texts with few evaluative comments and gave the audience an impression of descriptive writing (a weakness pointed out in both T1 and T2 feedback reports). Although she also attempted to understand criticality by reading resource books on academic writing

(Section 6.4.4), she was unable to report in any detail what she had learned there. Perhaps such an effort was doomed to failure, given that such reading could only operate at the level of declarative knowledge. Isabel seemed unable to make connections between different elements involved in academic reading and writing. In fact, she did not associate source use with criticality or arguments, but rather treated the concepts as separate (Section 6.4.4; Section 6.5.2).

It can be seen that Naomi and Isabel differed in terms of the amount of support they could recall, the topics of source use input they focused on, their ability to verbalise their understanding of source use conventions, and evidence of incorporating input in their texts. In all of these areas, Naomi appeared to be a cue-seeker (a term first put forward by Miller & Parlett, 1974), who actively looked for tutors' requirements for source use and applied them in her own contexts. Isabel, on the other hand, focused more on the straightforward rules of referencing formats, and she seemed unable to make the intellectual jump to rhetorical aspects of source use. She misunderstood her lecturer's expectations and made no attempt to clarify these requirements with further support seeking, suggesting a lack of confidence and persistence necessary to be successful. In Miller & Parlett's (1974) terminology, Isabel appeared to be cue-deaf. Perhaps unsurprisingly, with this level of engagement, she did not manage to develop effective source use, resulting in poor scores on her texts. From Naomi and Isabel's cases, it seems that the high-scorer was much more active in seeking support for source use, which was also found in Green's (2013) study of three novice ESL students' literacy development over one year. This suggests the need for students to become aware of their active roles in seeking support from a range of resources (Green, 2013), not simply relying on tutor explanations. Moreover, the different expectations for self-learning in Chinese and UK educational cultures might have played a role here for the less active participants. It has been shown that the traditional learning culture in China is more teacher-centred and teacher-responsible, whereas active participation from students is more expected in the UK context (Gu & Schweisfurth, 2006). In this regard, students coming to a different educational culture for study need to be aware of the learning expectations in the new context.

At the same time, although Naomi and Isabel represented the cue-seeking and the cue-conscious, but often cue-deaf student, not all participants could be neatly assigned to these learner types. As discussed earlier (Section 7.5.1), participants' level of engagement may change due to issues such as general motivation for study, interest in specific subject topics and the time available for completing tasks. For example, in Term 1, Mina was confused about the tutor's requirement for her *authorial voice*, but she did not ask for clarification. However, after receiving a fail mark for her T1 OM, she consulted the tutor to clarify essay requirements. She also paid more attention to task differences in source use at a later stage (Section 6.3.2). Like Mina, most participants' engagement with support was not static, although it was possible to identify a few clearly more (Fiona, Elsa) and less dedicated students (Helena, Kim).

Interestingly, a few biographical features of individual learners were found to be relevant to their learning of source use in this study. Firstly, one might assume that the type of institutions that overseas students attended in their home countries could indicate their academic learning abilities, and might impact further on their learning routines. In this study, information about the participants' undergraduate institutions was collected, to be associated with their performance during the Master's programme (Section 3.5.2). Perhaps unsurprisingly, Kim, the only participant who attended a vocational institution and later transferred to a bachelor's degree program, encountered many difficulties in meeting the demands of reading sources and understanding the requirements of academic writing, and eventually failed to obtain her MA degree. This may be in part attributable to her lack of familiarity with academic conventions, even in her home country. At the same time, one might question whether candidates indicated as far less academically competent in their previous education, as compared with peers, should be admitted onto an academically challenging Master's programme in an overseas university without additional support. In contrast to Kim's case, both Naomi and Isabel attended Tier 1 universities (which presumably were of higher prestige than lower Tiers) for their undergraduate degrees in China. Naomi proved to be a high-scorer and a successful learner of source use, whereas Isabel was a low-scorer and perhaps an unsuccessful learner of source use. It appears that the type of undergraduate institution could, to a limited extent, suggest

the student's overall academic competence at undergraduate level, but it by no means predicts success in, or dedication to, learning at the Master's level.

Also notably, three participants (Kim, Isabel, and Lucy) took the pre-sessional EAP courses prior to their programme of study. One might assume that they had a longer period of enculturation into the academic discourse when compared to other participants who commenced their MA programmes directly. However, as found in the study, Kim and Isabel were both low-scorers, and Lucy was a mid-scorer. In terms of learning source use, they did not appear to show more development than other participants, both in their texts and their understanding of source use. This suggests that attending an eight or four-week pre-sessional programme did not give them observable advantages in assimilating into the source use conventions over the year. One explanation may be their language proficiency, as they attended the pre-sessional course because they fell short of the language requirement necessary for the degree programme, in one IELTS component or overall. It may be that the prolonged period of learning academic writing was not enough to compensate for their limitations in language proficiency, which is also suggested in Trenkic and Warmington's (2017) study of international students' academic success in a UK university.

Overall, it is clear that a complex range of factors influenced students' learning of academic writing. Such factors included the extent of their support seeking, language proficiency, ability to transfer input into practice, previous academic background, practical arrangements of coursework writing, and motivation at a particular time. These findings of individual and temporal differences are in line with Davis' (2013) findings. In her study, a group of students with similar cultural backgrounds showed different patterns of development, mainly due to their sensitivity to input, ability to transfer knowledge, and underlying language proficiency. In studies focused on international non-native English speaking students' adaptation to Anglophone academic study contexts, individual differences in willingness and ability to adapt are also widely found. For example, Wright and Schartner (2013) investigated 20 international postgraduate students' one-year study in the UK, and found a lack of uptake of opportunities to interact with the local community among many students.

7.7 Summaries of themes

This section summarises themes discussed so far, in preparation for the pedagogic conclusions to follow.

7.7.1 Students' development of source use

Drawing on findings from RQ1 and RQ3, several conclusions about the participants' development of source use can be made. First, the participants overall clearly gained more awareness of the need to refer to other sources in support of their arguments, and to avoid unsupported claims by the end of the study. This was evident in an increasing frequency of citations and references, and a decreasing frequency of *no citation* instances in their texts over the year, and their self-reported improvement.

Second, some participants put much focus on referencing styles and reported improvement in this area. This however constituted only a preliminary step of observing disciplinary conventions of source use. In contrast, development of rhetorical aspects of source use was less evident in the participants' texts especially from T1 to T2, as well as in their self-reported development. Using sources rhetorically is more challenging and takes more time to improve than managing referencing styles and attributing sources, but there seemed to be insufficient support on this very crucial aspect of source use. All this development and a lack of development appear to be influenced by how students took part in peripheral participation in the discourse community (Section 2.1.2), including attending courses on writing support and engaging with feedback on their coursework writing.

Overall, this study confirms other studies' findings that novice writers manage referencing styles and attribution of sources sooner and more easily than using sources for rhetorical purposes, which may take more than one year to show development (Cumming et al., 2018; Thompson et al., 2013). Moreover, this study found that the prevalent emphasis on these two areas in institutional support might, to some extent, explain this result. The over emphasis of observable features of referencing styles was understandable, but at the same time it ignored the more important and demanding aspects of constructing arguments with the use of sources, which needs to be taught and demonstrated in specific texts. On the other hand, the participants overall tended towards the use of more links between sources in their LR

chapters, which could be due to their awareness and skills in connecting sources, as well as the differing genre requirements. This might also be explainable by the rather limited amount of contextualised support in EAP courses, departmental optional workshops, and subject modules.

7.7.2 Source use and expertise

Source use was clearly related to the quality of work, and this was more apparent in some aspects than others. Although the quantitative frequencies of citations or references may indicate the extent of supporting arguments with evidence, and the tendency to use integral or non-integral citation forms may suggest the extent of engagement with the literature, how citations and citation forms were used in the texts was more important. In this study, the high-scorers consistently used more sources and more citations than mid/low-scorers over the year. In terms of essays or full papers, this trend is consistent with two other studies' findings of novice and more advanced writers' citation density (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Swales, 2014). However, in terms of LR chapters, some studies found that citation density did not distinguish high and low-scorers (Petrić, 2007; Schembri, 2013). It appears that citation density alone reveals little about how citations are used in texts. Similarly, in this study, the percentages of integral/non-integral forms did not distinguish high and low-scorers overall, but some particular use in specific contexts was found to be inappropriate.

In contrast, using a wider range of rhetorical functions tends to be a feature of high-scorers. This was found in this study and in several other studies looking at rhetorical use of sources. On the other hand, conforming to Petric's (2007) finding, this study also found that more demanding rhetorical functions (i.e. links between sources and evaluation) could also be used through surface forms without real purposes in the text, or imported from secondary sources. Again, such uses need to be carefully examined in their rhetorical context.

When comparing this study's percentages of rhetorical functions with other studies on student and expert source use, it seems that using more links between sources and evaluation is also a feature of expert or more advanced writing as opposed to novice writing. Other studies have suggested that expert writers make

more links between sources and signpost their evaluative stances more frequently and more clearly than student writers (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Mori, 2017). On the other hand, the constructs used in these studies are very different, especially for the evaluative stance, making it difficult to compare among studies.

7.7.3 Disciplinary and genre differences

Genre difference was found to have some impact on participants' source use patterns in texts and their understanding of source use. As discussed, LR chapters may require evidence of some in-depth analysis of individual studies, whereas essays require wide and general knowledge of the topic. This can impact the expected tendency to use integral or non-integral forms, the amount of details needed in the description of single sources, and the tendency to use *group citations*. Meanwhile, there were also different requirements among essays. In this study, there was some self-reported evidence of the sub-disciplinary differences in TESOL-related subjects between modules that tended more towards language sciences and those that tended more towards teaching practices. This was also evident from the description of modules in the department handbook (Section 3.2.2).

Genre and task differences clearly add to challenges students face in managing effective source use. They need to observe the overall conventions of academic writing and student writing, i.e. the general context of the educational culture (Section 2.1.1). At the same time, they also need to pay attention to particularities of modules and tasks, i.e. the specific context of the situation (Section 2.1.1).

7.7.4 Awareness of and difficulties in rhetorical source use

From the participants' self-reported intentions for using citation features, it can be seen that almost all participants were aware of the importance of referencing to support their own arguments, and to use multiple sources to strengthen the arguments. Such awareness tended to appear at earlier stages. At the same time, a majority of participants reported intentions to contrast different sources' views and to evaluate sources with explicit comments or reporting structures, in order to fulfil the expectation of criticality in their academic writing. This requirement of criticality was strongly emphasised in institutional writing support, but the participants, at times, still struggled with understanding the concept of criticality, acquiring specific citation

devices to achieve it, and having the basis for criticality through sound grasp of domain knowledge. These mostly confirm the findings of previous literature on L2 novice student writing.

In particular, language still seemed to be an issue for this group of relatively proficient language learners. This was evident in their unfamiliarity with a range of citation devices that convey various rhetorical meanings, and their primary focus on grammatical accuracy instead of rhetorical meanings. On the other hand, difficulties in understanding source content due to limited language proficiency was only reported by one low-scorer, but two other participants' texts further suggest their misunderstanding of source authors' stances, due to a lack of attention to particular rhetorical devices. This suggests that for these relatively proficient language users, the main problem in language was not general proficiency per se, but more related to unfamiliarity with, and a lack of attention to, rhetorical use of language. Further, organising sources for use in writing was also reported as a difficulty, which suggests that participants lacked literacy skills. This was compensated for by a few high-scorers' coping strategies towards the later stages, such as understanding concepts from reading multiple sources and using a grid to organise relationships between sources.

7.7.5 Support on source use

As in the discussion of previous themes, institutional and departmental support clearly played an important role in participants' understanding of writing requirements overall and induction into source use conventions. At the institutional level, there tended to be more support for study skills than on using sources rhetorically. Even when activities were aimed at helping them practicing rhetorical source use, the participants were not able to identify such purposes, and focused more on superficial features such as avoiding secondary citations.

Further, within disciplinary learning, support dedicated to source use was even less plentiful. The majority of disciplinary support was general advice, and there were few examples of input located in specific texts. This was also evident in the feedback reports that lecturers provided to the participants where general comments surpassed specific comments that quote students' actual use. All this suggests a limited amount

of support on rhetorical source use in specific contexts, which is commonly depicted in the literature.

As a result, participants' transfer of knowledge from such support into their own writing was limited, as confirmed by their limited use of links between sources and evaluation in their texts over the year. On the other hand, participants such as Naomi were able to actively seek support from any available sources, and individual differences clearly existed in participants' engagement with support.

7.8 Pedagogic implications

A number of implications for supporting students' source use have been referred to at different points in the above sections, and these will be considered in more depth here. The assumption that teaching always leads to successful acquisition cannot be made (Shaw & Pecorari, 2013) and students themselves must take responsibility for their learning. Students' individual motivations and abilities to learn have been shown to vary and motivation, in particular, is clearly not static, but this should not preclude attempts to improve the types of support that can be provided in this area. On the basis of these case studies, this section will explore the types of support from a range of resources which might best provide instruction and help for students to develop source use.

Generally, there have been debates around whether a more general or specific approach to EAP support better suits the needs of particular student groups. As identified earlier, one dominant position encourages specificity in EAP teaching, as we can now make use of the research in disciplinary language, and this would benefit students' motivation for learning if they are able to make use of it in their own degree programmes (Hyland, 2016a). In contrast, authors such as de Chazal (2012) highlight the benefits of a general EAP approach, because within one parent discipline there are often many sub-subjects in which conventions and language expectations are different. He also proposed that students should assume the main responsibility for exploring and acquiring subject-specific language, and EAP teachers can only make them aware of genre differences and guide them through this process. Clearly, the extent of specificity needed for EAP courses is controversial: too general support may

be irrelevant to students' degree learning and demotivate them in terms of their interest, too specific support can be confined within one particular discipline context and thus equally become irrelevant when students face challenges outside of this context.

University support units need to be made aware of the more precise problems students face in developing source use, so that they can in turn raise novice students' awareness of the importance of source use in academic writing assessment. However, such awareness raising may not be successful if it is only in the form of *bolt on* skills courses. Source use should be taught as an integral part of academic writing, and its centrality to criticality needs to be highlighted (Wingate, 2012a). A major finding of this study has been the lack of real development in this group of participants' writing in terms of the more sophisticated use of rhetorical functions of source use. This leads clearly to the conclusion that many researchers have already come to, that citations are not only about avoiding plagiarism and following a referencing style correctly, but also about engagement with the literature through synthesis and evaluation (Davis, 2013; McCulloch, 2012; Pecorari, 2013).

It is also clear from the cases here that students need to be made more aware of the relationship between citation form and function. While they need to ensure grammatical accuracy, they also need to consider communicative stance, which is vital to the quality of writing and overall argument. In other words, students should not pursue accuracy at the expense of rhetorical stance. Similarly, misconceptions around language expectations need to be avoided. One example of this is the danger of presenting a phrasebook list approach to citation devices and forms that can lead students to see variation of forms as an end itself. As pointed out in the literature, any linguistic device can have different meanings in different rhetorical contexts (Hyland, 2016a). Only by encouraging students to marry forms to meanings can they be taught to be linguistically competent writers. Currently, there are several well-intended pedagogic materials that focus on both the forms and the meanings. For example, in a lesson idea by Mott-Smith et al. (2017), students are asked to analyse sample sentences containing reporting structures, and categorise them into verbs that suggest "agreement" or "doubt", and verbs that "vary depending on context" (p.52). However,

the variety of meanings within each category is not addressed. Van Geyte (2013) takes this further by showing example sentences using reporting structures and giving detailed commentary on their rhetorical meanings. The book then explicitly alerts students to the variety in meanings of reporting verbs and phrases: “Some students try to avoid repeating themselves by using these verbs as synonyms. However, they have different meanings. Although it is important to vary your language, it is more important to express yourself correctly” (p.122). Such an approach can be more widely applied to EAP course designs.

The above awareness raising needs to be accompanied with explicit teaching of source use in specific texts, a point repeatedly advocated in previous research literature (McCulloch, 2012; Wingate, 2012a). Students need to become familiar with a range of rhetorical effects that citations can perform and master the usage of a range of language devices. Based on the cases in this study, some examples of classroom activities seem appropriate for facilitating such students’ source use development, as presented below.

First, functions of integral and non-integral citations need to be explained fully and then accompanied by example extracts in use. For example, the use of integral citations tends to highlight that a statement belongs to one particular author, usually because of the specificity of this statement; the use of non-integral citations suggests that the statement is not uniquely proposed by one particular author, but widely accepted knowledge. It has been shown in this study that six out of ten participants only had partial understanding of the citation forms, and consequently a few instances of inappropriate use were found (Section 7.2.2).

Second, the feature *extensive citations* deserves particular attention in teaching, as novice students are likely to describe single sources extensively in texts without consideration of its necessity. With a particular sample paragraph, students can be invited to discuss the effects *extensive citations* bring to the overall argument, and whether the amount of description is appropriate. It has been shown in this study that citing the same source over several consecutive sentences can be necessary in some contexts, but less so in others (Section 5.2); therefore, discussion in specific contexts is needed.

Third, reporting verbs and phrases need to be addressed in specific contexts. Instead of teaching reporting structures on their own or within short sentences, as found in the in-session EAP materials used in this study, they would better be taught within a paragraph of argument. Students can be shown how changing a few words in surrounding texts may change the rhetorical meanings.

Finally, together with such explicit teaching, students should also be encouraged to note rhetorical devices in their own reading outside the EAP classroom. Tutors can alert students to the fact that appropriate source use depends on the discipline and specific task requirement, and that they need to adapt to the specific context. In this study, Isabel adopted the form of *group citations* from journal articles into her literature review writing, which fell short of the expectation that particular studies be scrutinised in the chapter (Section 7.5.3).

All these source use skills need to be consolidated, and we cannot expect that students would be able to manage such skills with only one relevant activity in the EAP classroom. In on-going support programmes, tutors may have the opportunity to revisit some areas of source use at a later point. This is in line with Davis' (2015) call for more continuous EAP support that extends to the end of students' dissertation stage in order for them to have the confidence to deal with the challenges of source use. In this study, the Education students were fortunate to have EAP courses that continued to the dissertation stage, but it was known from the interview with Tutor A that EAP support for other departments in the Northern University mostly covers only the first term (see Section 6.2). Continuous support is critical for all students who face difficulties in academic writing and source use.

A dedicated programme may also adopt a *spiral curriculum* (Humphrey & Economou, 2015), where the more basic functions of source use (e.g., *attribution*, to support an argument) are dealt with at the beginning, and more advanced functions of source use (e.g., synthesis of sources, critical evaluation of sources) are practiced later as one step forward to basic *attribution*, as students proceed in their degree programme. To some extent, the EAP provision in this study already adopted this feature, but the amount of activities, especially at the more advanced level, did not raise sufficient awareness from the participants.

Apart from the citation skills per se, students also need to pay attention to the relationship between reading and writing. It has been shown that considerable difficulties in using sources effectively in writing came from the ineffective reading of source texts (Section 7.3.3). The participants' ability to synthesise was sometimes constrained by a lack of domain knowledge due to a limited amount of reading (e.g., Elsa), and their deficiency in communicating authorial stance may be due to a misunderstanding of the author's stance in the first place (e.g., Helena). Unfortunately, many current strands of EAP support on writing focus on the final products, e.g., the genre approach to teaching writing, instead of the whole process of extracting positions from source texts and building arguments (Dovey, 2010). Although many EAP textbooks give substantial space to reading skills on their own, such as skimming and scanning (Section 2.5.2), the process of transforming reading into writing could be shown more explicitly. Reading skills (e.g., reading for gist, rhetorical reading to grasp author stance) can and should be facilitated in the context of writing a specific task, so that the purpose of reading and writing is clearly defined (Grabe, 2003). Scaffolding activities can be designed, starting from the very beginning step of selecting source texts, to organising, summarising, and paraphrasing the relevant information in a new context. A successful attempt at integrating reading and writing in teaching source use was reported by Dovey (2010). She designed and implemented a 13-week compulsory module on writing the literature review, which involved recursive literature searching, reading, discussion of the topic, drafting, and feedback on drafting. In particular, she taught the technique of making a graphic organiser: each source listed in a table together with its main arguments in a range of aspects, so that arguments from different sources on the same aspect can be compared. The project saw improvement in students' final products in terms of avoiding patchwriting and coherence. Such concrete techniques in facilitating reading and organising are much needed in the current product-focused pedagogy.

More importantly, students need substantial and recursive practice in order to master these reading-for-writing skills in their own contexts. One suggestion may be that students be encouraged to build reading into their routine learning outside the EAP classroom, using materials from their disciplinary learning. Cooperative reading groups may contribute to this end, as students can seek support from each other to

understand source content and develop reading abilities. In this study, only Kim, a low-scorer, created opportunities similar to cooperative reading and learned from her peers' content knowledge, whereas most participants did not engage with cooperative learning in reading and writing in their subject courses (Section 6.4.2).

Following the year in which this project took place, within the education department of the Northern University, an EAP tutor piloted group reading sessions for particular subject modules. Four or five students, as a group, were invited to discuss any aspect of one source in the core reading list, and a PhD student was present simply as a facilitator to only intervene if communications broke down. Preliminary outcomes were that the students reported to have benefitted from such experiences in terms of content knowledge and overall confidence in the subject. Currently, few such attempts have been researched in the context of international students in higher education; such efforts could be piloted more widely, and empirical studies could be conducted on the power and value of organising such sessions.

This study has highlighted the need for academic literacy to be considered as an important part of the subject lecturers' role. Lecturers, as discipline insiders, need to be aware that novice students are not likely to be familiar with the academic culture of the particular module, and therefore the conventions need to be explained to the students (Chanock, 2008). In this study, participants' access to source use requirements in essays was limited, in the form of very limited assessment criteria in the programme handbook (very vaguely "sources need to be well integrated into arguments"), inconsistent verbal advice from module lecturers which sometimes caused misunderstanding rather than understanding (e.g., Mina's T1 OM), and the end summative feedback reports. The weakness here was that the conventions were often stated rather than demonstrated, but the participants clearly lacked the resources to really understand abstract concepts such as criticality and argumentation. A more effective approach could be showing exemplar extracts of student essays from previous cohorts, together with lecturers' comments on the strengths and weaknesses of each. For example, Wingate (2014) reported on the designing and teaching of such materials for MA Applied Linguistics students and found that the students revised their own writing as a result of learning these genre requirements from such support.

At the institutional level, it can be expected, and it has been found in this study, the timing of assignments and dissertations may be challenging for some students, particularly those unfamiliar with the educational conventions and possessing low English language proficiency. In a study conducted in a similar educational context, Trenkic and Warmington (2017) found that English language and literacy ability accounted for almost half of the factors contributing to academic success among Chinese Masters' students, whereas English literacy was barely a predictor of academic success among home British students. The non-native speaking students were found to be systematically disadvantaged in assessments when compared with home British students, due to their limited language proficiency. In order to give international and low-proficiency students a fair chance to be assessed on the same basis as other students, institutions may consider an extension period for such students, so that they can take more time in reading and writing. However, granting extensions to students of low language level but not to students of high language levels may be problematic.

In terms of the overall programme, it is clear that the one-year degree is limited for students' literacy development, both in terms of the duration and the assessment system. Using sources for rhetorical purposes takes considerable time and experience to master, and students lacked these necessary opportunities to learn and progress. To some extent, many of the feedback comments from lecturers failed to explain particular issues in the participants' writing, but both the students and lecturers also seemed to be confined within a modular system with few opportunities for formative feedback. End summative feedback reports could hardly locate the specific issues in text, and in-text comments were often not an option due to the legibility of handwriting and the fact that students often do not collect written scripts. In order for feedback to propel them forward, students need more opportunities to communicate with lecturers and EAP staff to understand exactly where their writing falls short and to take actions to bridge these gaps. On the other hand, the notions of avoiding plagiarism and following a referencing style seem manageable within one year, but it is clear that an effective pedagogic focus must extend beyond such basic requirements. After all, facilitating critical thinking skills in reading and writing has long been a central aim in higher education, and it cannot be achieved if too great a

focus is put upon technical realisation of conventions and the integrity debate on avoiding misconduct.

Chapter 8 Conclusion

This study began from a personal interest in understanding novice writers' use of sources. It looked at ten Chinese MA students' practice of using citations and sources over their one-year taught degree in a UK university, using a case study approach. The study aimed at addressing three research questions focused on students' patterns of citation use in texts, their reasons for using these citation features, and the support they received on source use. The study conducted qualitative discourse analysis of participants' texts, and further confirmed participants' intentions behind their citations through discourse-based interviews. It also investigated artefacts related to support on source use, and interviewed participants about their perceptions of such support. In this way, through triangulation of the data some conclusions have been made about what the participants reported and their actual use in texts, and interview data were used to explain textual tendencies.

This chapter will summarise the main findings of the study, its contribution to the research territory of source use, limitations of this study, and implications for further research.

8.1 Main conclusions

This section will conclude the key findings of this study, and their relationships with previous studies' findings. This will be organised according to themes deriving from the research questions of this study: students' overall patterns of citation use, comparison of citation use among high and mid/low-scorers, development of source use over the year, awareness of and constraints in using sources rhetorically, and the role of institutional and departmental support in students' development of source use.

8.1.1 Overall patterns of citation use

This study confirms previous findings and assumptions that novice student writers use citations for a limited range of purposes. Similar to previous research (Lee et al., 2018; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; McCulloch, 2012; Petrić, 2007; Tamano & Guimba, 2016), this study also found that the participants tended to use citations simply for attribution. In contrast, they less often established links between sources. This is in line with other studies' findings of novice writers' tendency to cite single

sources rather than to synthesise multiple sources (Howard et al., 2010; Li & Casanave, 2012; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; McCulloch, 2012; Wette, 2017). The participants also less often evaluated sources, confirming previous findings that novice writers tend to show a neutral stance towards sources and far less often show their agreement or disagreement with sources (Cumming et al., 2018; Lee et al., 2018; Wette, 2017; Xie, 2016). This is in contrast to expert writers' tendency to indicate their authorial stance with the use of evaluative reporting structures or other evaluative devices or comments in the surrounding co-texts (Bloch, 2010; Brezina, 2012; Sawaki, 2014).

On the other hand, although most of these studies presented frequencies or percentages of novice writers' citation features in text, the extent to which they tend to simply attribute sources without showing links between them or evaluation is not easily comparable among the studies. This is because different text analysis instruments were used, and students wrote different genres in these contexts. This is perhaps a limitation in the research done to date using text analysis, as different constructs make it difficult to compare the findings.

8.1.2 Comparison of citation use among high and mid/low-scorers

There were some clear cross-sectional differences between the high and mid/low-scoring participants' citation use in this study. First, high-scorers used more references and more citations than mid/low-scorers. This is in line with some of the previous studies that compared novice and more advanced writers' citation density (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Swales, 2014), but different from the findings of other studies that investigated the relationship between citation density and the mark the work received (Petrić, 2007; Schembri, 2013). This suggests that the extent of using evidence as support for arguments may have an impact on the quality of work, but source and citation densities are only one possible indicator of good source use.

Second, and more importantly, high-scorers used a wider range of rhetorical functions in their texts than mid/low-scorers. Further, qualitative analysis of a few high and low-scorers' examples revealed that even when both groups used links between sources and evaluation, the high-scorers' use appeared more purposive than the low-scorers' (Section 4.6). Both the quantitative and qualitative findings here

confirm Petrić's (2007) findings. This is also in line with Davis' (2014) findings that competent source users tended to show more engagement with sources in their use of integral citations and evaluative phrases than less competent users.

Third, participants' self-reports of their intentions behind citations in part confirmed that stronger students tended to use citations for rhetorical purposes that contributed to their overall arguments, doing so more often than weaker students who tended to use citations without particular purposes and principles (e.g., the cases of Naomi vs Isabel). High-scorers' purposeful use in this study is in part similar to that in Petrić and Harwood's (2013) case study of a successful student's intentions to use sources for a range of purposes in different tasks. However, exceptions were also prevalent in this study as high-scorers did not always pay attention to rhetorical messages and vice versa for mid/low-scorers, as found in their self-reported rationale for using a range of citation features (see Chapter 5).

8.1.3 Development of source use over the year

Longitudinal development of the use of citation features was investigated in all ten students as a whole group due to the limited sample size. First, it was found that the participants used more references and more citations in their coursework as the study progressed, showing a greater extent of support for their arguments (Section 4.1). This is similar to Cumming et al.'s (2018) finding that undergraduate and postgraduate students used more citations in their second year than in their first year. Accordingly, the frequencies of *no citation* in the participants' texts (i.e. omitting citations when they are expected) also decreased as the study progressed (Section 4.3), suggesting that they paid more attention to acknowledging sources. The interviews further confirmed the *support* function as participants' main rationale for attributing sources (Section 5.1.1.1), which four participants confidently reported as an improvement over the year (Section 6.5.2).

Second, in terms of rhetorical functions, the percentages of most functions remained similar in T1 and T2, but in the literature review chapter the participants made considerably more links between sources (Section 4.4). This could be because of the specific requirement in the literature review chapter to provide an overview of the field and a rationale for the participants' own studies, as well as participants'

increased skills and experiences in source use by the dissertation stage. On the other hand, their frequencies of evaluation of sources remained similar at all three stages, showing no observable development. This suggests that establishing links between sources may be less linguistically and cognitively demanding than evaluation. This finding is similar to Cumming et al.'s (2018) finding where their postgraduate students' uses of the *agreement* and *disagreement* functions were of similar frequencies in Year One and Year Two as little change was observable in their evaluation of sources over the two years.

Third, from the participants' self-reports, they regarded managing the referencing style and having awareness of the need to attribute sources as one major area of development (Section 6.5.2). These two areas have also been reported as areas of improvement by students in Thompson et al.'s (2013) and Cumming et al.'s (2018) longitudinal studies. This suggests that mastering referencing styles and acknowledging sources tend to be aspects of source use more easily developed within one year of study than rhetorical use of sources. It may also be that development in referencing styles and acknowledging sources is more salient for students than development in rhetorical aspects of source use.

At the same time, developmental trends of each individual student were different. Two participants' texts contained a decreasing percentage of the simple *attribution* function over the year, while other participants showed no such tendency (Section 4.4). This was also complicated by the fact that not all participants produced the same number of texts over the year, and that they did not always write the same types of tasks. Such findings confirm previous longitudinal studies' findings that students develop their source use in different ways within the same educational context (Davis, 2013; Dong, 1996).

8.1.4 Awareness of and constraints in using sources rhetorically

Complex factors and reasons behind participants' use of citations and sources were found. Participants' self-reports revealed both their awareness of using sources rhetorically and constraints in achieving that use. In this study, unawareness of the

functions of citations was only an issue for a few participants⁹ but not for the majority. Most participants reported an awareness of the need to use sources as evidence (Section 5.1.1.1), to connect multiple sources (Section 5.4), and to show criticality in using sources (Section 5.3 and Section 5.5), on several occasions during the year. This is in contrast to some previous studies' conclusions that novice writers tend to have little awareness of the purposes of citations in constructing their arguments (Angéllil-Carter, 2000; McCulloch, 2012). At the same time, while the participants' awareness of concepts such as criticality was evident, their understanding was occasionally shown to be incomplete (Section 7.3.3.3), a common finding in previous studies on students' academic writing (Wingate, 2012a).

However, several constraints limited the participants' potential to use sources rhetorically, despite their awareness of the purposes. First, linguistic difficulties were an important factor. It was found that the participants had limited knowledge of a range of citation devices and structures, such as the various ways of integrating citations and reporting structures into their texts (Section 7.4.1). As a result, they tended to use citation expressions that were more familiar to them at the expense of rhetorical stance. Another facet of the problem was the participants' focus on sentence accuracy, rather than rhetorical functions (Section 7.4.2). Participants in this study also often simply intended to vary their use of citation devices and saw it as an end in itself (Section 7.4.2), which has also been regarded as a novice writer feature in previous literature (Bloch, 2010; Pecorari, 2008a).

Second, participants' source use was also influenced by their reading. Although difficulties in understanding the content of sources was an issue, only one participant reported this as the main difficulty (Section 7.4.3). It seems that the relatively high language proficiency of the group eliminated some problems in general understanding of texts. However, problems in grasping author stance due to unfamiliarity with a range of citation devices, and in appropriate reading strategies for

⁹ For example, Kim was not able to report the intention to use citations as support for her arguments, or the rhetorical functions of citation forms, showing her lack of awareness of the purposes of source use.

writing purposes, still remained (Section 7.4.3). Such difficulties in reading have also been reported as a cause of ineffective source use in other studies (Jamieson & Howard, 2013; Thompson et al., 2013; Wette, 2010). However, several high-scorers in this study did report the use of strategies to address these difficulties, such as triangulating their understanding from reading various sources, and applying a grid structure to note relationships between sources. Such strategies have also been reported as a feature of successful students in other studies (McCulloch, 2013; Plakans, 2009; Solé et al., 2013).

Third, besides the immediate context of reading and writing, further constraints were found in the particular settings of coursework writing. A few participants reported time pressure on completing tasks, a common issue in student writing (Chirkov et al., 2007; Pittam et al., 2009), which occasionally limited their rhetorical consideration of source use (Section 7.5.2). It was also found that the participants devoted more or less effort in completing coursework, which was inconsistent at different stages over the year (Section 7.5.1). Further, only a few participants reported evidence of task differences in assignments, in contrast to other studies' findings of students' adaptation to differing task requirements (Petrić & Harwood, 2013; Thompson et al., 2013). This shows the existence of task and disciplinary differences even within the same department, but also that task differences may be more relevant to some students than others.

8.1.5 The role of support in students' development of source use

The add-on support courses and disciplinary guidance were clearly important for participants' basic understanding of source use, though they were however insufficient overall for further development of rhetorical source use. First, several types of add-on support in the institution investigated featured a study skills approach to teaching literacy (Badenhorst et al., 2015; Wingate, 2006), and the participants often did not regard such support as relevant to their degree learning, a point echoed in previous literature (Harris & Ashton, 2011; Kennelly et al., 2010; Wingate, 2006).

Second, the dedicated EAP programme that ran through three terms appeared to be the major source of explicit input on source use, which demonstrated features of an academic socialisation approach to literacy support (Lea & Street, 1998). While the

course materials covered a wide range of topics, from formulating in-text citations to showing writer stance in arguments, what the participants reported tended to be de-contextualised knowledge gains on surface features, instead of techniques of rhetorical source use in specific texts. One reason was that insufficient activities on using sources in real contexts of writing coursework were included in the EAP programme materials.

Third, disciplinary support within subject learning in the department, another important component of academic socialisation, was also insufficient. From the participants' self-report, subject courses rarely addressed issues related to source use in writing, confirming the limited attention to academic language in the subject classroom as depicted in the literature (Hyland, 2013; Zamel, 1995; Zhu, 2004). Written feedback on coursework was an important opportunity to clarify discipline- and task-specific requirements of source use, but the summative feedback reports on assignments tended to contain general rather than specific comments, and explanation of the issues was often limited. In contrast, marginal feedback on dissertation drafts occasionally succeeded in clarifying issues in context, but participants had various reactions to this.

It can be concluded that participants' learning about source use from a range of support did not always transform into mastery of the skills in authentic writing contexts, confirming previous literature (Hirvela & Du, 2013; Leki, 2007; Shaw & Pecorari, 2013). Further, several high-scorers actively sought support from a variety of resources, while most low-scorers showed a limited extent of cue-seeking (Section 7.6.4). However, not every student could be assigned to these two learner types, as motivation to learn often fluctuated, and few assumptions could be made about one particular student.

8.2 Contribution to source use research

This study has made several contributions to the existing research into students' source use. First, regarding methodological designs, many of the previous studies only focused on one method; they either only analysed citations in texts as final products (Lee et al., 2018; Petrić, 2007), interviewed students for their general perceptions of

source use without referring to specific usages in their texts (Thompson et al., 2013), or only investigated students' self-reported intentions of their citation use without analysis of their texts (Petrić & Harwood, 2013). In contrast, this study brought together the researcher's citation analysis and students' self-reported intentions, which strengthened the types of evidence showing students' experience of using sources. Further, this study collected data from three stages over one taught Master's programme. Such longitudinal case studies using multiple data collection methods are still uncommon in the current literature (only Davis, 2013; Dong, 1996).

Second, this study focused on the role of institutional and departmental support in students' source use experience as one of the main research questions. Support is an important factor for students' development of source use, but few previous studies have investigated this in depth. In this study, through participants' self-reports and the researcher's analysis of artefact data, a range of types of support have been found, and their impact on students' source use development has been discussed. It was found that more support was available on surface features of source use than on more abstract techniques of using citations to construct arguments; there were limited opportunities to practice rhetorical source use and to receive feedback on it, and the participants often did not realise their relevance to their degree learning. Clearly, for development to take place EAP courses and departmental learning need to jointly provide more such opportunities. Several pedagogic implications were made on how this could be achieved.

Third, in terms of categories of citation features, this study included *no citation* and *extensive citations* as two additional constructs in its text analysis framework, constructs that, to the researcher's knowledge, no previous studies have used. Quantification of the *no citation* feature revealed that the participants learned to avoid unacknowledged source use as the study progressed, and that on average high-scorers were more cautious in attributing sources than mid/low-scorers. Analysis of the *extensive citations* feature and the participants' self-reported reasons for using it revealed that long descriptions of single sources could be purely descriptive or purposeful, depending on the particular requirement of tasks and sub-sections of genres. Learning to select relevant details from source texts and to avoid description

of irrelevant ideas are also important parts of source use ability. The inclusion of these two citation features adds to existing frameworks of citation forms and rhetorical functions.

Finally, in terms of findings, one key addition to previous studies is that students' intentions do not always correspond to their actual citation practices. This study found that using citations for a limited range of purposes was not necessarily caused by a lack of awareness of the functions, but due to complex factors in implementing them in coursework writing contexts. Therefore, it is not enough to simply raise students' awareness of the rhetorical functions of citations, but also expose them to substantial example extracts of their use in authentic texts and provide opportunities to practice such use. On the other hand, the evidence of participants' awareness of source use purposes may be related to their rather high general English language proficiency, hence the likelihood that they would be able to understand the conventions from courses and reading materials, which might not be the case for L2 students in other contexts.

8.3 Limitations of the study

Some limitations of this study have been recognised. There were a few challenges in conducting source use research in this naturalistic setting of a group of students studying in an academic department. Firstly, the sample size was rather small for generating quantitative tendencies, as only ten participants in the department were willing to commit to this longitudinal study. This means that those students not interested in the study in the first place were not represented in this sample. Secondly, for the data available, some variation existed in the nature of the participants' texts. There was lack of data for two participants, who did not produce texts at one stage of the study; the task types two participants wrote in T2 were slightly different from those of the other participants. Such variation resulted in limitations in the generalisation of participants' citation patterns. However, for such a longitudinal study in naturalistic context, it was difficult to predict and control these variables before the study commenced. For example, the researcher could not know which modules and tasks these participants would take when they were recruited. Later on, it was not considered sensible to exclude due to those selections and lose any participants.

After all data were collected, the researcher categorised the participants into high, mid, and low-scoring groups. This grouping was slightly different to the marking bands used in the department, which was done on purpose to make reasonable comparison between participant groups. Also, arguably, there could be limitations of analytical rigour in investigating the development of students' source use from their assignments and the literature review chapters of the dissertation, as they are two different genres. However, given the programme setting of the one-year Master's degree, this seems to be the only feasible design to look at development at three different points of the year. This study attributed students' patterns of change in source use to both genre differences and participants' development. Unfortunately, due to the limited scope of the study, the interviews with students did not explore their perception of genre or task differences in depth. All these decisions arguably have limitations, but they were made based on flexibility in the design and data analysis approach of naturalistic studies, and these must be adjusted according to the data available.

For the use of discourse-based interviews, it is acknowledged that recalling seven weeks after composing could be challenging, a point also put forward in Harwood's (2009) study of expert authors' intentions behind citations. For example, the participants' common response that they had no consideration of their citation use could be due to the difficulty in recalling. During the interviews, some participants' first response to their written texts was that they forgot what they wrote previously. However, the researcher mitigated this difficulty by allowing sufficient time for participants to read the co-text around the citation in question, and if further difficulties are perceived, by reading co-text aloud with translation into Chinese. In this way, there was an effort to familiarising participants with their context of writing several weeks prior. The decision to interview participants several weeks after composing was mainly an ethical concern, to prevent the researcher from raising their anxiety by talking about their texts while they were still waiting for the marks.

The investigation of support for source use mainly involved participants' self-reports of their learning experiences. Again, given that the timing of the interview might have been several weeks after them receiving input, some comments and

attitudes might have been lost. If possible, asking participants to keep journals of their learning process might generate more prompt records. However, in this study, such methods were considered to be too demanding, especially for those low-scorers who already struggled with a heavy workload, studying subjects and writing. Further, attempts were made in collecting artefacts to triangulate with participants' self-reports, but it is acknowledged that the quantity of artefacts collected in this study was limited, and that not all physical evidence of teaching or support could be collected.

8.4 Implications for further research

Some implications for further research can be drawn from this study's methods and limitations. Firstly, for longitudinal studies of academic writing in naturalistic contexts, a persistent issue is the factor of genre and task type at different stages. It is unlikely that students would be required to write the same type of genre over a longitudinal period. Therefore, any changes observed in the students' textual patterns over the period would likely be a combination of genre effects and students' development in academic writing, and it would be difficult to separate genre effects from development. Such designs involving mixed genres should be legitimised due to the value longitudinal naturalist studies can bring to understanding writing in current higher education settings. To mitigate the weakness in investigating mixed genres, students and module lecturers can be invited to comment more on the expectations of tasks, so that more information is available to account for changes in students' textual patterns.

Regarding the cross-sectional comparison of source use, the comparison of high and mid/low-scorers seemed productive in this study, as some features of stronger and weaker students were found. However, it was more difficult to compare students' source use in this specific context with those in other studies conducted at different levels of expertise. For example, although an attempt was made in Chapter 7 to conclude novice and mature writers' features, it is acknowledged that they might not be comparable due to the different genres they need to write and the different overall purposes of these genres. It can be argued that student writers are not expected to use sources in the same ways as experts, and findings of difference between student and expert may not suggest student writers have immature or problematic use.

However, currently comparisons are often made between student writers and expert writers, and it is often concluded that student writers should imitate expert writing features, even in their student genres (e.g., Lee & Swales, 2006; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). For future cross-sectional studies, it might be more reasonable to compare students within similar educational settings, such as undergraduate Year One students with Year Two students.

There were some implications for citation analysis in texts. Considerable diversity exists in rhetorical contexts of each sentence and each task, and therefore caution must be taken in interpreting numerical frequencies of citation features. In this study, the issue was the most prominent in the counting of integral and non-integral forms, which revealed few explainable patterns. Genre requirements clearly had an impact on the tendency to use either citation form, aggregated by the fact that the participants did not always pay attention to the rhetorical differences with every choice of the citation form. This all made it difficult to interpret the raw frequency of integral and non-integral citation forms which clearly needs to be supported by qualitative analysis of usages in specific texts. Regarding rhetorical functions, even though both stronger and weaker students employed links between sources and evaluation, qualitative analysis revealed that they used such functions very differently. Similarly, the analysis of reporting structures' stance was at times difficult, because a particular verb does not always communicate its assumed stance, which is especially the case for student writers. This all points to the need to carefully look at citations in specific contexts and investigate writers' intentions, not simply drawing on overall percentages. On the other hand, it could be labour-intensive to closely analyse the contexts of each citation, so the amount of texts analysed needs to be carefully balanced with the scope of the study. For example, a study focusing on one particular feature of citation can sample more texts than a study investigating a range of source use features.

Overall, future research into students' source use practice would be more powerful when located in specific naturalistic settings of students' degree programmes, because learning and practising source use takes place far beyond the EAP or subject classrooms. More attention needs to be paid to the use of citations

within specific rhetorical contexts. Future research needs to take into account contextual issues such as particular task requirements in student genres, the particular institutional settings of degree programmes, and the students' previous experience with source use.

Appendices

Appendix 1 Excerpts of EAP textbooks reviewed, for Section 2.5.2

Attribution

Craswell and Poore, 2012, p. 62-63

Distinguishing source material and comment

Plagiarism may also be suspected if you do not make clear whether the ideas being discussed belong to another or are your own comment. Take the text below, where in the original version it is impossible to determine which ideas belong to X (the source) and which to the writer:

Original text:

X's critique of truth [reference] is based on his analysis of discursive procedures. The relation between truth and power is one between truth and discursive practice. Truth is not a stable and independent entity.

Amended text:

X's critique of truth [reference] is based on his analysis of discursive procedures. The relation between truth and power is **[seen by him as]** one between truth and discursive practice. **[This suggests]** that truth is not a stable and independent entity.

Essentials of academic writing

It is clear from the inserted material shown in bold type in the amended text that the ideas in the first two sentences belong to the source (X), on whom the writer is drawing, and that the writer herself is interpolating her own comment in the third sentence.

Nor is placing a reference at the end of a succession of paragraphs a sound practice. If all the ideas in a paragraph are being taken from a single source and you are not interpolating any comments of your own, then simply phrase your lead sentences to indicate that this will be so, as in these hypothetical examples:

1. The following discussion draws on an empirical study undertaken by X (2009).
2. Further support for this type of intervention is found in X's argument (2006), as now discussed.
3. The extent of military interference in the political process is attested to in an extensive study undertaken by X, Y and Z (2000).

As lead sentences in paragraphs, sentences of this type would set up reader-expectation that all that follows in that paragraph is taken from the nominated source.

Language-related aspects

Gillet et al.2009, p. 187-188

Summarising

- Are you summarising to support your points? or
 - Are you summarising so you can criticise the work before you introduce your main points?
- 3 Select the relevant information. This depends on your purpose.
 - 4 Find the important ideas (words and phrases) and mark them in some way or list them elsewhere.
 - Distinguish between main and subsidiary information.
 - Delete most details and examples, unimportant information, anecdotes, examples, illustrations, data, etc.
 - 5 Find synonyms or alternative phrases for those words (a thesaurus would help). You do not need to change specialised vocabulary.
 - 6 Change the structure of the text. This includes:
 - changing adjectives to adverbs and nouns to verbs
 - breaking up long sentences and combining short sentences
 - identifying the relationships between words and ideas and expressing them in a different way. (Be careful you do not change the meaning.)
 - 7 Once you have completed the above steps, you can begin to rewrite the main ideas in complete sentences combining your notes into a piece of continuous writing. Use conjunctions and adverbs such as 'therefore', 'however', 'although', 'since', to show the connections between the ideas.
 - 8 Check your work.

TIP Make sure:

- *your purpose is clear*
- *you have not copied any text (unless you are quoting)*
- *you do not misinterpret the original*
- *the length of your text is shorter*
- *the style of writing is your own*
- *you acknowledge other people's work.*

Activity 10.5 Evaluating summarised text

Read the following extract and the two summaries that follow it. Which text is a better summary and why? Remember to take into account the summarising points above.

Fossil fuel continues to be the main source of energy. Moreover, the developing world, which consists of about five sixths of humankind, will increase its population and its fossil fuel burning for many years after the rich countries have stabilised and decreased their dependency on fossil fuels. Some poor countries have neither fossil fuels nor any other supply of energy, and so cannot develop. Even fuel-wood is in short supply.



10 Working with other people's ideas and voices

Nuclear power was developed enthusiastically by many countries in the 1950s, and 29 countries were running 437 nuclear power plants by 1998. Early optimism about development of an energy economy from nuclear fission faded following nuclear accidents and leakages such as Chernobyl in the USSR (now in the Russia Federation) in 1986. Many environmentalists believe that the risks that are inherent in nuclear fission are quite unacceptable. Power from nuclear fission is very expensive, once the costs of handling radioactive waste and decommissioning old power stations are taken into account. Despite all this, many governments are in favour of continuing and even expanding their nuclear power programmes, and for many it is the only practical way to reduce carbon emissions. (Holden, 2008: 612–13)

Summary 1

Currently, fossil fuel remains the main energy source and whereas rich countries will be in a position to turn to alternative forms of fuel in the future, developing countries will become more dependent on it. Alternative forms such as nuclear power seemed a likely alternative in the 1950s but its development in the 40 years that followed had some disastrous results. Although environmentalists view it as risky and expensive, certain governments are continuing to pursue nuclear power programmes and for many there are no other practical alternatives of reducing carbon emissions. (Holden, 2008)

Summary 2

Fossil fuel remains the main energy source. Rich countries will reduce their reliance on fossil fuel in the future, whereas developing countries which make up about five sixths of humankind will become more dependent on it. Some poor countries will not develop due to a lack of energy supplies as even fuel-wood is decreasing.

Nuclear power was exploited by many countries in the 1950s, and 29 countries were running 437 nuclear power plants by 1998. However nuclear accidents and leakages such as Chernobyl in the USSR in 1986 have led to a decrease in its development. This is further supported by environmentalists' views that the risks are too high in addition to the high cost of developing power from nuclear fission. In spite of the negative evidence, many governments are continuing and in certain cases expanding their nuclear power programmes. For many governments nuclear power is the only practical way to reduce carbon emissions. (Holden, 2008)

Activity 10.6 Summarising short texts

Using the information provided in this chapter, summarise the following short text. Use the summarising tips on page 187 to check your work.

Home detention curfews were introduced by the Crime and Disorder Act 1998. Prisoners sentenced to between three months' and four years' imprisonment can be released early (usually 60 days early) on a licence that includes a curfew condition. This requires the released prisoners to remain at a certain address at set times, during which period they will be subjected to electronic monitoring. Most curfews are set for 12 hours between 7 pm and

Evaluation and evaluative phrases

Creame and Lea, 2008, p.122-123

Activity Twenty-nine

Read Extract A.

How many writers can you identify in this text?

What is telling you who these different writers are?

Can you identify one or two examples of the 'voice' of the student who wrote this essay?

Extract A

During the 1930s and 1940s Benjamin Whorf wrote various papers concerning the connection between the structure of individual languages and their speakers' perception of reality. He suggested that the way in which humans view the world is constrained by the language available to them. In this way, measurable differences in world view could be discerned between speakers of different languages (Whorf, cited in Carroll 1956). This view of the connection between language structure and social reality is referred to as 'linguistic determinism' and has been largely discredited by linguists during the last forty years. Working primarily with the contrasting features of the language of the Hopi Indians and what he called Standard Average European languages, Whorf concluded that our perception of 'time' and 'matter' is determined by the language available to us. His work with the Hopi language suggested that there was no distinction between present, past and future and therefore its speakers could not conceptualize time in the same way as a speaker of a Standard European Language. Whorf went further than simply making a connection between language and reality to suggest that the thought processes of the individual were actually linguistically determined: 'The background linguistic system of each language is not merely a reproducing instrument for voicing ideas but rather is itself the shaper of ideas, the program and guide for the individual's mental activity' (Carroll 1956 p. 25).

Looking critically at Whorf's writings, linguists have found it difficult to verify much that he hypothesized and in some instances have been able to provide evidence that refutes his work, for example, that he was incorrect in asserting that Eskimos have many different words for snow (Pulham, source unknown, quoted by D. Hargreaves in University of Wessex seminar). Coupled with the fact that in America, in the 1950s and 1960s, Whorf's work was used in the debate which regarded black people as inferior to white and the contradictory evidence regarding 'linguistic determinism', his work became regarded by most linguists as having little validity. Taken to its logical conclusion such a hypothesis would not allow the possibility of successful translation between languages, a suggestion that is clearly absurd.

Modern linguistics has often been more concerned with identifying similarities between languages rather than differences, particularly influenced

by work on language universals (Chomsky 1965). Although there may be little place for 'linguistic determinism' in modern day linguistics, since Whorf was writing there has been both continued and renewed interest in the issue of 'linguistic relativity'. How far can language be said to shape world view and what are the connections between language and the culture in which the language is spoken? 'Linguistic relativity' is a much weaker version of the determinist position suggesting a connection between an individual's language and their own perception of reality but not suggesting the severity of constraints on reality that a purely determinist position would imply. Within this relativist position the individual is seen as having a perception of the world which is in some way limited by the language available to her. On the other hand, implicit in this position is that she can use this language to construct other interpretations of the world. There is no suggestion that the language system is so fixed that only one world view is possible. The principle of 'linguistic relativity' seems to be most useful for linguists in consideration of the ways in which culture is mediated through language. Rather than looking at contrast between languages, as Whorf did, the modern linguist often appears more concerned with language use within one culture, or one nation state, where speakers are identified as generally speaking the same language.

Language cannot be viewed in isolation from the culture in which it is spoken. As Hymes (1974) identified, what is important is the communicative event, the circumstances in which language use takes place, who says what to whom and how meanings are interpreted by the participants within any communicative event. Linguists have long made the distinction between the language system and language use in the tradition of Saussure's (cited in Cameron 1985) dichotomy between 'langue' and 'parole'. Chomsky (1965) distinguishes language 'competence' from language 'performance'. From a theoretical perspective linguists have looked closely at what may constitute a system of language, identifying elements of language in a grammatical framework that could be regarded as language universals. At the same time, sociolinguists have concentrated on language use rather than system, seeing system as a purely theoretical construct since language cannot be identified outside the circumstances in which it is being used.

Discussion

In relation to Activity Twenty-nine (above) we have identified nine obvious writers in this extract, including all those authors cited as primary, secondary or personal sources: Whorf, Carroll, Pulham, Hargreaves, Chomsky, Hymes, Saussure, Cameron and the student writer herself. We were able to recognize the authors the student had drawn on because she made appropriate reference, either directly to their work, to the work of another author who had cited the original work, e.g. 'Whorf, cited in Carroll 1956', or to a personal source,

EVALUATING STATEMENTS

You can evaluate your statements and show your attitude in either a positive or a negative way, depending on how true you want your claim to be.

Compare:

Poor driving conditions lead to accidents.

with

Poor driving conditions frequently lead to accidents.

Or

Malnutrition causes death.

with

Malnutrition is a frequent cause of death.

You can modify your claims using the following words and phrases:

Adjectives	e.g. important, misguided, wrong, inaccurate, incorrect, remarkable, surprising
The major cognitive impairment in Alzheimer's disease is memory loss.	(Martin <i>et al.</i> , 2007: 495)
Intelligence testing has a long and controversial history.	(Martin <i>et al.</i> , 2007: 474)
The needs of the environmental manager are simple.	(Holden, 2008: 687)
Many definitions of the environment are somewhat limited.	(Holden, 2008: 680)
Infiltration is the process of water entry into the surface of a soil and it plays a key role in surface runoff.	(Holden, 2008: 361)

11 Finding your own voice

Adverbs	e.g. accurately, unsatisfactorily, unfortunately, hopefully
Such drugs often have been inappropriately prescribed and also have been used in the overdose.	
Nouns	e.g. difficulty, problem, crisis, shortcoming, assumption
The main shortcoming of these early classifications is that the emphasis on geological inheritance and sea-level history leaves only limited concern for the hydrodynamic process. (Holden, 2008: 482)	
There are two problems with this approach. (Holden, 2008: 9)	
But what is important about these disagreements is the shared assumption that it was good for Scotland.	
Frequency adjectives	e.g. probable, possible, frequent
Malnutrition is a frequent cause of death.	
Frequency adverbs	e.g. probably, possibly, frequently
Poor driving conditions frequently lead to accidents.	

Activity 11.7 Identifying evaluative statements

Identify the words and phrases in the following sentences that show how the writer evaluates statements.

Often a 'tsunami' is referred to as a 'tidal wave'. However, this term is inappropriate because tides and tsunami differ from each other in many respects. (Holden, 2008: 481)

The practice has grown up in recent years of referring, however inaccurately, to a mistress as a 'common law wife'.

There is also the danger that R & D and engineering may become focused on the product for the product's sake. (Brassington and Pettitt, 2006: 26)

Services often depend on people to perform them, creating and delivering the product as the customer waits. (Brassington and Pettitt, 2006: 31)

The difficulty lay in the fact it was characterised as classless and free of exploitation.

TIP *Whenever you are writing, make sure that you evaluate the statements you make.*

Now notice the italicized verb forms in these sample sentences.

The author *should have provided* more data about her sample.

Although this is an interesting and important paper, the authors *could have given* more attention to the fact that their model of consumer choice is based entirely on U.S. data.

Notice that *should* expresses a strongly negative comment, while *could* is less strong. *Should have* is a criticism, *could have* is more a suggestion, and *might have* is a weak suggestion. The use of *could* and *might* in unreal conditionals also reminds us that it is important to make your points with an appropriate amount of strength. Criticisms that are too strong and lack support will not help you position yourself, nor will evaluative comments that are expressed in too weak a manner.



Language Focus: Evaluative Language Revisited

As you already know, the different parts of speech can be used for evaluation.

Nouns:	<i>success</i>	<i>failure</i>
Verbs:	<i>succeed</i>	<i>fail</i>
Adjectives:	<i>successful</i>	<i>unsuccessful</i>
Adverbs:	<i>successfully</i>	<i>unsuccessfully</i>

For instance, you could write variations of these two claims.

Verbs

The article *succeeds in* demonstrating how bio-gas has improved daily life in Nepal.

The article *fails to* serve teachers who clearly need to make much more complex judgments about their students than the four stage model implies.

Adverbs

The article *successfully* demonstrates how bio-gas has improved daily life in Nepal.

Early papers *unsuccessfully* attempted to use cross-section distributions of accident counts to distinguish between true and spurious state dependence.

Adjectives

The protocol described in the paper is *successful* at accurately tracking randomly moving targets over a wide range of speed.

The article is *unsuccessful* at convincing readers of the benefits of new taxes on all-electric vehicles to compensate for short-falls in the federal highway budget.

Note the difference in the strength of claim in these two versions.

Early papers *unsuccessfully* attempted to use cross-section distributions of accident counts to distinguish between true and spurious state dependence.

Early papers *failed* to use cross-section distributions of accident counts to distinguish between true and spurious state dependence.

Sometimes, we can make contrasting pairs of adjectives. The pairing of a positive and a negative can certainly soften the criticism.

In this *ambitious, but flawed* study, the authors attempt to show that domesticated animals are in some way just as responsible as automobiles for our current CO₂ imbalance.

In this *flawed, but ambitious* study, the authors attempt to show that domesticated animals are in some way just as responsible as automobiles for our current CO₂ imbalance.

Notice how the emphasis changes depending on the information you place first. Can you create three other suitable combinations?

In addition to pairing adjectives, you can also make other pairings using other linking words and phrases, especially those used to express adversativity (see Unit One).

Although the author suggests that journal articles written in languages other than English may have limited impact, he fails to recognize that they may be important at the regional level.

The author suggests that journal articles written in languages other than English may have limited impact; *however*, he fails to recognize that they may be important at the regional level.

Despite the many interesting citations in support of his view, the citations are dated and are not likely meaningful today.

TASK FOURTEEN

Rate the adjectives using the scale. Use the sample sentence to guide your decision.

++ very positive + positive 0 neutral/ambiguous – negative -- very negative

In this _____ study, the authors attempt to show that domesticated animals are in some way just as responsible as automobiles for our current CO₂ imbalance.

___ unusual	___ limited	___ ambitious	___ modest
___ small	___ restricted	___ important	___ flawed
___ useful	___ significant	___ innovative	___ interesting
___ careful	___ competent	___ impressive	___ elegant
___ simple	___ traditional	___ complex	___ small scale
___ exploratory	___ remarkable	___ preliminary	___ unsatisfactory

Evaluative Adjectives across Disciplines

Classes composed of students from several disciplines do not always agree about these adjectives listed in Task Fourteen. This is fully understandable. Take the case of the *simple/complex* contrast. Students in the sciences and medicine, for example, think of *simple* as a positive and *complex* as a negative. For such students, *simple* equals “well planned” or “clearly designed,” and *complex* equals “confused” or “messy.” In contrast, social scientists equate *simple* with “unsophisticated” and *complex* with “sophisticated.”

In an interesting study (note the evaluative adjective!), Becher (1987) surveyed adjectives of praise and blame among historians, sociologists, and physicists in Britain and the United States. He found considerable differences among the three groups. Although the preferences listed in Table 17 only indicate general tendencies, they are quite revealing.

Reporting structures

Oshima and Hogue, 2005, p.43-44

Reporting Verbs and Phrases

To introduce borrowed information—direct quotations, indirect quotations, or statistics—use the phrase *according to* or a reporting verb such as the following:

assert	insist	report	suggest
claim	maintain	say	write
declare	mention	state	

¹Herper, Matthew. "Olympics: Performance Drugs Outrun Olympics." *Forbes* 15 Feb. 2002. 30 Mar. 2004 <<http://www.forbes.com/2002/02/15/0215ped.html>>.

The form of this in-text citation shows that the words in quotation marks are from paragraph 4 of an online article written by a person whose last name is Herper.

²Bamberger, Michael, and Don Yaeger. "Over the Edge." *Sports Illustrated* 14 Apr. 1997: 60–86.

The form of this citation means that the words in quotation marks were spoken by Dr. Michael Karsten and were quoted on page 62 of an article written by two people named Bamberger and Yaeger.

Here are some rules for their use.

1. Reporting verbs can appear before, in the middle of, or after borrowed information. The reporting phrase *according to* usually appears before or after but not in the middle.

One young bicyclist **says**, "To win in world-class competition, you have to take drugs" (Jones).

"To win in world-class competition," **says** one young bicyclist, "you have to take drugs" (Jones).

"To win in world-class competition, you have to take drugs," **says** one young bicyclist (Jones).

According to one young bicyclist, athletes have to take drugs to win (Jones).

Athletes have to take drugs to win, **according to** one young bicyclist (Jones).

2. Reporting verbs can be used either with or without the subordinator *as*.

As one writer **says** when discussing the case of an Olympic medallist who unknowingly took a banned drug, "The human body, of course, doesn't distinguish intentional use from inadvertent exposure. Neither does the IOC [International Olympic Committee]" (Kidder, par. 5).

One writer **says** when discussing the case of an Olympic medallist who unknowingly took a banned drug, "The human body, of course, doesn't distinguish intentional use from inadvertent exposure. Neither does the IOC [International Olympic Committee]" (Kidder, par. 5).

3. Reporting verbs can be in any tense. However, be aware that a past tense reporting verb may cause changes in verbs, pronouns, and time expressions in an indirect quotation. (See Sequence of Tenses Rules on page 48.)

Some critics **claim/have claimed** that the International Olympic Committee has been lax on enforcement of drug bans ("2000 Olympics," par. 6).

Some critics **claimed** that the International Olympic Committee had been lax on enforcement of drug bans ("2000 Olympics," par. 6).

4. Including the source of the borrowed information with the reporting expression gives authority to your writing because it lets your reader know immediately that your information is from a credible source.

The Institute of Global Ethics warns, "The Olympics could well become just another money-drenched media promotion in which contestants will be motivated less by athletic glory than by lucrative future contracts" (Kidder, par. 7).

Gillet et al. 2009, p.209-210:

Showing the strength of your claim

You can show your attitude to the viewpoints, sources or the evidence that you have presented. The word that you choose in these two examples will alter the strength of the claim you are making about the relationship.

Compare

Research **suggests** that we possess at least four forms of memory.
(Martin *et al.*, 2007: 304)

with

Research **proves** that we possess at least four forms of memory.
(Martin *et al.*, 2007: 304)

Or

Nowadays the urinary symptoms **are** of a lower order.

with

Nowadays the urinary symptoms **appear to be** of a lower order.

As you can see, you can choose to use another word or phrase instead of the highlighted word, depending on how strongly you want to make your point. Remember always to support your points with evidence.

11 Finding your own voice

You could choose one of the following expressions:

X	indicates suggests proves	that ...
---	---------------------------------	----------

For example:

The evidence discussed so far **indicates** that cognitive ability, especially certain types of memory, declines with age. (Martin *et al.*, 2007: 491)

In the following sentences, you have similar choices and you can choose one of the following phrases.

X	seems appears is believed is thought is presumed is assumed is known	to ...
---	--	--------

For example:

The reported figures for incidence of disease **are thought** to represent 1 per cent of the true numbers.

Alternatively, when you are explicitly **reporting** the work of others, you have a choice of reporting verb:

X	believes suggests found argued discovered shows confirmed proved	that ...
---	---	----------

For example:

Within the food sector, Bolton (1989) **found** that whereas coffee brands and convenience foods are very price elastic, certain types of fresh fruit and vegetables are price inelastic. (Brassington and Pettitt, 2006: 448)

Harré (2002) **suggested** that there were 12 uses of an experiment. (Holden, 2008: 14)

In fact Lane (2001) **argued** that one of the ways science moves forward is by trying to solve disagreements between one set of findings and another set of findings that have been produced by a different method. (Holden, 2008: 14)

In all cases, try changing the phrase and see what effect it has.

De Chazal and Moore, 2013, p. 79

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Citations (5) Introducing citations

Most writers use a range of structures to introduce citations, to fit with the meaning, flow, and emphasis of the text. Using a variety of structures will improve the sophistication of your writing.

Verbs Choose a verb to report the idea of the author you are citing, and select one which appropriately reflects their argument.

- Using a **reporting verb** in an active form, typically in a present tense, is a common way of putting focus on the author(s):
argue, highlight, note, observe, suggest, warn
*Fourcassié and Traniello (1994) **suggest** two possible extrinsic mechanisms.*
- Evidence from research is reported using active verbs, typically in the past simple:
confirmed, demonstrated, found, showed, studied, tested, used
*Later work by Mewaldt (1964) **confirmed** the navigational ability in adult migrants.*
- Different reporting verbs tend to be followed by specific language patterns:
*Smith **argues / explains / states that** ...*
*This approach **is shown to** have two weaknesses ...*
*Smith **suggests** two possible reasons (= noun phrase) ...*
*Smith **suggests** focusing on (= -ing form) ...*

Nouns Use nouns, which describe specific ideas or work, to introduce citations:
argument, explanation, claim, definition, theory, model

- author focus:
*Whitehead and Dahlgren (1991) use a **definition** of health inequalities which ...*
- content focus:
*One **explanation** of health inequalities is ... (Whitehead & Dahlgren, 1991).*

TASK 4 Varying reporting structures

1 Choose the best verb to use with the noun in bold.

- 1 Bussi eres (1994) *put / proposed / did* a **model** of water import in tomato fruit.
- 2 Funding agencies are *placing / giving / making* increasing **emphasis** on cross-disciplinary approaches to research questions.
- 3 Charles Darwin *created / made / developed* the modern **theory** of evolution.
- 4 He also *made / did / took* detailed **observations** of the behaviour of primates.
- 5 This model *makes / provides / puts* a general **explanation** of erosion.
- 6 Observers *gave / did / proposed* differing **descriptions** of the initial earth tremors.
- 7 Merrick (1988:3) *offers / makes / puts* the following **definition** of demographics ...
- 8 Coleman (1991) *presented / did / placed* a further **argument** for this approach.

2 Use meaning and language patterns to match 1-6 with a-f.

- 1 Males with better memory abilities were **found / shown**
 - 2 Holt (2001) **explains / describes / illustrates**
 - 3 Morgan and Moss (1965) **argued**
 - 4 As long ago as the 1970s, scientists were **warning**
 - 5 The report (Jacobs, 2002) **emphasizes / highlights / stresses**
 - 6 Ormerod *et al.* (2009) **noted / observed**
- a for an ecological approach, drawing parallels between communities.
b to have larger home ranges.
c the importance of aquatic ecosystem health for fisheries.
d of the possible adverse effects of ozone depletion.
e how plants' particular characteristics affect their dispersal potential.
f that conserving the habitat of one endangered species increased biodiversity.

Integral/non-integral citation forms

Gillet et al. 2009, p.185:

2 Reporting

This simply means reporting the other writer's ideas *in your own words* and the best method to use is summary. There are two main ways of showing that you have used another writer's ideas – integral or non-integral – depending on whether or not the name of the cited author occurs within the cited sentence or in brackets.

Integral (author as part of sentence)

According to Davies (2006) it is essential that pupils learn how to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses.

The importance of pupils learning how to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses was stressed by Davies (2006).

Non-integral (author in brackets)

Evidence from classroom learning (Davies, 2006) suggests that it is essential for pupils to learn how to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses.

It is important that pupils learn how to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses (Davies, 2006).

At the end of the essay, the reference list will state:

Davies, S. (2006) *The Essential Guide to Teaching*. Harlow: Pearson Education.

De Chazal and Moore, 2013, p.76

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Citations (4) Focus on author or content

A writer's choice of citation style depends on what they want to emphasize.

Author-content Where the author or source of a citation is considered significant, the author's name is given first, followed by the content. This style is used to present arguments, theories, or definitions that were put forward by particular authors.

- author + reporting verb (e.g. *argue, claim, mention, note, observe, point out, report, say, state*):
Fahey (2007) argues for the development of an EU-wide measure ...
- author + noun (*argument, definition, model, observation, theory*):
Townsend's (1979) definition of poverty as ...

Content-author Where the content is more important than the individual author(s), then the reference can be shown in brackets at the end. In this case, the citations provide support (from other authors or research) for an idea being put forward by the writer:

Reductions in average annual working hours have also been achieved (Bosch et al., 1994).

This style is particularly used when citing evidence for the same idea from several different sources:

Women's time allocation to employment during the 'working years' has increased since the 1960s (Blossfeld & Hakim, 1997; Rubery et al., 1999; Blossfeld & Drobnič, 2001).

In some cases, one style or another is more appropriate. Sometimes, either style could be used. An in-text reference is always given to identify the source of the citation.

Combining sources

Hewings and Thaine, 2012, p.33-34

Writing

7 Writing summaries from multiple sources

In many of the academic texts you write, you will need to summarise information you have found from a number of sources.

- 7.1 a You have been asked to write an essay with the title 'Choose a recent invention and outline its social and economic impacts'. You have decided to focus on the mobile phone. You want to include a paragraph on its impact in developing countries and have found the following extracts from a number of sources. First, follow steps 1–4 in Unit 1, 10.1 for extracts A–D. As an example, in A, the main points are underlined and notes on these points are included.

Extract A

The past decade has seen a rapid expansion of mobile telephony in developing countries. In 2006, it was estimated that 56% of individuals in low-income countries were covered by one or several mobile networks, and 22% actually subscribed to such services, up from virtually zero at the end of the 1990s. With less than 5% of the population having access to a landline phone, mobile phones have made telecommunications available for the first time to hundreds of millions of people, either through the ownership of personal handsets or as users of rented phones in public access points.

mobile phone use - substantial increase - since 2000

landlines inaccessible for vast majority - so mobiles have made telecoms available to many for first time

Barberousse, G., Bernard, T. & Pescatori, V. (2009). The economic impact of the development of mobile telephony: results from a case study in Haiti. *Private Sector Development*, 4, 26.

Extract B

Mobile communications have a particularly important impact in rural areas, which are home to nearly one-half of the world's population and 75% of the world's poor (World Bank 2007). The mobility, ease of use, flexible deployment and relatively low and declining rollout costs of wireless technologies enable them to reach rural populations with low levels of income and literacy. An important use of mobile phones in rural areas is to access market information. TradeNet, a Ghana-based trading platform, allows users to sign up for short message service (SMS) alerts for commodities and markets of their choice and receive instant alerts for offers to buy or sell when anyone else on the network has submitted an offer by mobile phone. In India, access to market information through mobile phones has allowed fishermen to respond faster to market demand and has increased their profits (Jensen 2007).

Khalil, M., Dongler, P. & Qiang, Z.W.C. (2009). Overview. *Information and Communications for Development 2009: Extending Reach and Increasing Impact*. The World Bank, p 4.

Extract C

However, all these positive impacts must not obscure the problems posed by the mobile phone industry in developing countries. One particular problem is that mobile phone services represent a major expense item in the budgets of the poorest households which may then be inclined to reduce expenses for their basic needs (education, health, food, clothing).

Lefilleur, J. (2009). Lessons-learned from this issue (What are the economic or social impacts of the mobile phone sector in developing countries?). *Private Sector Development*, 4, 3

Extract D

The main unprompted impact identified by the surveys related to easier contact with family and friends. In both Tanzania and South Africa, many people move away from their home to find work, and mobile phones are now an important means of keeping in touch with families. A number of respondents also used mobile phones to contact schools and universities. For example, mobile phones are used by the students in Kw. Phake, to correspond with various tertiary institutions such as UNISA (University of South Africa). Instead of having to travel to these institutions they can easily access information they need using a mobile phone.

Vodafone (2005). *Africa: The Impact of Mobile Phones*. The Vodafone Policy Paper Series, 3, March 2005, p

b Now write a summary which includes information from all four extracts in no more than 100 words.

There has been a substantial increase in the use of mobile phones in developing countries since 2000 (Barberousse et al., 2009). ...

c Compare your summaries in pairs and make any necessary improvements.

8 Reference lists

At the end of every academic text you write, you will normally be expected to give a reference list (i.e. a list giving details of all the books, articles, websites, etc. that you mentioned). It is important to become familiar with the conventions used in writing reference lists. Note that some people use the term 'bibliography' to mean reference list. However, this can also mean list of publications on a particular subject, not necessarily publications that you have read or mentioned.

8.1 a Look at the reference list on page 35 from a student's essay. What type (1-13) is each source (A-M) in the reference list?

- 1 book with a single author
- 2 book with two or more authors
- 3 edited book
- 4 publication without a named author
- 5 article in a journal
- 6 paper in an edited book
- 7 article in a magazine or newspaper

TASK FOURTEEN

Students in an Acoustics course were asked to write a paper on unpleasant sounds, one section of which was required to discuss why certain sounds are considered highly unpleasant. This, of course, required the use of previous studies. Read this first draft of the section and mark the instructor comments on pages 222–223 as reasonable (R) or unreasonable (U). If you are unsure, indicate this with a question mark (?).

1. ❶ In 1986 Halpern, Blake, and Hillenbrand investigated how people respond to different terrible sounds. ❷ In one experiment, listeners rated the unpleasantness of different sounds. ❸ Participants generally agreed that the worst sound was that of a garden tool scraped on a piece of slate shaped into a roofing tile, which sounds similar to fingernails scraped on a traditional blackboard. ❹ The researchers found that the negative reaction to the sound could mainly be found in a band of 2–4 kHz.
 - ❺ Also in 1986, Blake did a study of a scraping noise, comparing its sound wave with that of monkey warning cries.
 - ❻ The waveforms of the two were quite similar. ❼ Because of this similarity, Blake concluded that humans react negatively to scraping noises because they still have some innate reaction

mechanism from their ancient ancestors. ⑧ In other words, humans still have the same response mechanism as monkeys who hear a warning cry.

⑨ McDermott and Hauser in 2004 explored reactions of humans and a type of monkey known as a tamarin to scraping sounds and screeching, respectively. ⑩ They also examined their reactions to some white noise. ⑪ The humans clearly preferred white noise to scraping, while the tamarins reacted to this noise as negatively as they did to screeching.

⑫ In 2008 Cox conducted an experiment of scraping sounds in which participants had both audio and visual inputs. ⑬ The goal was to determine whether the sound and visualizing how it feels to make the sound were in some way related. ⑭ Cox found that the sound of scraping fingernails on a blackboard was perceived as much worse when participants were shown a picture of a hand on a blackboard. ⑮ He concluded that visualizing the making of the sound, a process that is unpleasant, is a significant factor in the perception of unpleasantness.

Instructor Comments

I think you have a good start here, but I think you can do more to explain where the current thinking is on the issue.

- *1. You have discussed three studies only. Are there others that you could include?*
- *2. The discussion deals with the studies in chronological order. I don't find this to be a particularly useful strategy because you don't make any connections among the studies.*
- *3. Overall, I am not sure what your point is. You seem to be discussing the past work only because you know you are supposed to talk about what others have done. But discussing what others have done should not stand in place of making a point. Do you have a point to make?*

- 4. *I am not getting a sense that you understand where the field stands as to why certain sounds are considered really unpleasant. Can you revise to reflect your understanding?*
- 5. *What is the upshot of McDermott and Hauser's study? What is the larger implication?*
- 6. *Does the study by Cox mean that the frequency of a sound is not a factor? Can you comment on this?*

Now read this second draft and discuss with a partner how it differs from the previous one. Has the author positioned herself as knowledgeable and capable? Explain your conclusion.

2. ❶ The acoustic environment contains many sounds that are considered extremely unpleasant. ❷ To understand why these sounds are characterized in this way a small number of studies have been carried out. ❸ Interestingly, all of these have investigated scraping sounds and within this category the sound of fingernails scraped on a blackboard has been of considerable interest (Halpern, Blake, and Hillenbrand, 1986; Blake, 1986; McDermott and Hauser, 2004; Cox, 2008). ❹ Studies of scraping sounds have shown that the negative reaction to the sound could mainly be found in a band of 2–4 kHz (Halpern, Blake and Hillenbrand, 1986; Kumar et al., 2008). ❺ This differs from very early research suggesting that high frequencies create the unpleasant quality of this and other scraping sounds (Boyd, 1959; Ely, 1975). ❻ Other research has looked beyond frequency, seeking to understand whether there might be some vestigial reasons for the perceived unpleasantness and using data collected from monkeys (Blake, 1986; McDermott and Hauser, 2004). ❼ For instance, Blake (1986) compared scraping sound waves with those of monkey warning cries and found that the waveforms of the two were quite similar. ❽ Because of this similarity, Blake concluded that humans react negatively to scraping noises because they still have some innate reaction

mechanism from their ancient ancestors. 9 In other words, humans still have the same response mechanism as monkeys who hear a warning cry. 10 In related research, McDermott and Hauser (2004) explored reactions of humans and a type of monkey known as a tamarin to blackboard scraping sounds and screeching, respectively, as well as their reactions to some white noise. 11 Both humans and tamarins had similar reactions to the unpleasant sounds. 12 However, they differed considerably in their perceptions of white noise. 13 While humans clearly preferred white noise to blackboard scraping, the tamarins reacted to this noise as negatively as they did to screeching. 14 These findings call into question Blake's theory that primates, both human and non-human, have the same underlying mechanism for reacting to sounds.

15 Unlike studies exploring a biological basis for perceptions of sound, Cox proposed that humans may find certain sounds highly unpleasant when they can visualize creating those sounds. 16 Cox found that the sound of fingernails scraping on a blackboard was perceived as much worse when participants were shown a picture of a hand on a blackboard. 17 He concluded that the visualization of and possible tactile association with making a sound, particularly one that is unpleasant, are significant factors in the perception of the degree of unpleasantness. 18 Thus, the frequency of a sound may be somewhat less important than previously thought. 19 Given the small number of studies, however, it remains unclear why certain sounds, particularly scraping sounds, are almost universally perceived as extremely unpleasant, suggesting the need for more research.

As you noticed, the first text in Task Fourteen, while accurate in terms of content, fails to highlight the similarities and/or differences among the different studies. As such, it is difficult to see what point is being developed. The author has missed the opportunity to reveal a broader understanding, causing the reader more work to find the important information on his or her own. In the second text, the writer has revealed an ability to see connec-

tions, overlapping views, and important differences in the research. This is accomplished because the author has organized the discussion in terms of the topics addressed, rather than according to the studies at hand. It is difficult enough deciding what information to include in a summary of one article, but when working with two or more sources, clearly your job becomes even more complicated.

If you are writing a comparative summary or a discussion of two or more texts, to begin you may want to set up a chart, table, diagram, or even spreadsheet that includes your articles and the key points they address. Once you have all of your key information before you, you may have an easier time “eyeballing” the literature, making connections, and, most importantly, finding enough common threads. In short, you may be able to “see things that have not quite been seen before” and display this understanding to your reader (Feak and Swales, 2009).

When working with multiple sources you may find it useful to incorporate some common language of comparison and contrast.

Language Focus: Showing Similarities and Differences

To Show Similarity

<i>Similarly,</i>	According to Macey (2011), the average four-year-old in the U.S. watches approximately four hours of TV each day. Similarly, those in Australia view about 3.5 hours of TV daily (Smuda, 2010).
<i>Similar to</i>	Similar to Kim (2008), Macey (2011) found that the average four-year-old in the U.S. watches four hours of TV each day (Smuda, 2010).
<i>Likewise, . . .</i>	Macey (2011) found that the average four-year-old in the U.S. watches four hours of TV each day. Likewise, in Australia four-year-olds watch several hours of TV daily.
<i>As in X, in Y. . .</i>	As in Australia, the average four-year-old in the U.S. watches more than three hours of TV each day (Macey, 2011).

<i>Like X, Y . . .</i>	Like in the U.S., the average four-year-old in Australia watches several hours of TV daily.
<i>the same . . .</i>	According to Macey (2011), the average four-year-old in the U.S. watches approximately four hours of TV each day. Four-year-olds in Australia view about the same number hours of TV daily (Smuda, 2010).
<i>as well</i>	Macey (2011) interviewed 250 parents of young children. Kim (2010) interviewed a similar number of parents as well.

To Show Contrast

<i>In contrast, . . .</i>	In contrast to Nigerians, 28% of whom have internet access, Liberians have very limited opportunities to connect to the internet.
<i>Unlike X, Y . . .</i>	Unlike Indonesians who have limited access to the internet, the majority of Japanese have easy access.
<i>In contrast to . . .</i>	In contrast to the U.K. where internet access is widespread, less than 10 percent of the population in India can connect to the internet.
<i>On the other hand, . . .</i>	In developed countries internet access is viewed as a necessity. In most African countries, on the other hand, it is a luxury.
<i>. . . ; however, . . .</i>	Overall, just over 30% of the world's population has internet access; however, only 11% of Africans have this same opportunity.
<i>. . . . However, . . .</i>	
<i>, but . . .</i>	Nearly 45% of the Turkish population can easily access the internet, but in nearby Syria this is possible for only 20% of the population.
<i>Whereas . . . , . . .</i>	Whereas 16% of Argentinians have internet access, only 8% of Columbians do.
<i>. . . , whereas . . .</i>	
<i>While . . . , . . .</i>	While 87% of South Koreans consider themselves to be frequent internet users, 50% of Brazilians do so (Lee, 2011).
<i>. . . , while . . .</i>	

Other Expressions of Similarity and Contrast

To Show Similarity

to be similar to

to resemble

to be comparable to

to correspond to

The conclusion that emerges from this study is similar to that in Lee et al. (2010).

To Show Contrast

to differ from

to contrast with

to be different from

The conclusion in this study differs from that in Barber et al. (2011).

Take a look at the second discussion in Task Fourteen. Find the devices used by the author to highlight similarity or difference.

TASK FIFTEEN

Review and respond to the task you created for yourself in Task Thirteen (Item 5). Alternatively, come up with a yes-no question on a topic in your field that you are interested in exploring. Find three or four published journal articles that you can use to respond to your question. Using the articles you have chosen, write up your response to your question. Note that your response may in fact resemble a brief literature review. For a more in-depth exploration of writing literature reviews, you may want to consult *Telling a Research Story: Writing a Literature Review*, which is published by the University of Michigan Press (Feak and Swales, 2009).

Appendix 2 Grade descriptors for assignments and dissertations

Excerpts from *Education department handbook for full-time MA programmes*, p.45-50

“Grade descriptors refer to broad descriptions of the characteristics expected for each of our three categories of pass; distinguished, merit and satisfactory. The precise mark you will be given for a formally assessed assignment will depend on the relative quality with which you have met each of the criteria for a pass. Some criteria, however, are more important than others. In addition, doing very well on one criterion can often offset doing less well on another.

The key criterion is the overall intellectual scholarship displayed in your writing. This is reflected in your understanding of the topic you are writing about, and your critical sensitivity to and awareness of the key ideas involved. As such, for example, displaying a poor grasp of the key ideas in your assignment is such a serious shortcoming, that even if you addressed several of the other criteria very well, your overall mark would be unlikely to reach the level of distinguished.

Markers will assess your work using a set of criteria called ‘descriptors’. You are strongly advised to plan your written work with these descriptors in mind. Different sets of descriptors are used to assess the assignments and the dissertation. These are set out on the following page.”

Assignment Grade Descriptors for MA Programmes	
<p>Distinguished 80 – 100</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Excellent command of the topic, perceptive and insightful, all suggesting that the work is of publishable quality in an academic forum; (ii) Outstanding selection that makes a substantial contribution to academic debate; (iii) Outstanding use of source material; (iv) Excellent argument that is of the highest academic quality; (v) Critical distance and outstanding analysis of the question; (vi) Referencing impeccable using appropriate APA conventions; (vii) Virtually no errors in grammar/syntax. 	<p>Distinguished 70 - 79</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Demonstrates command of the topic by showing a high level of perception and insight – a serious contribution to academic debate; (ii) Outstanding selection from a wide, relevant and innovative range of perspectives and sources; (iii) Sources very well-integrated into the overall argument; (iv) Clear, well-structured argument that is well crafted and cogent; (v) Critical distance and outstanding analysis of the question; (vi) Referencing clear and accurate using appropriate APA conventions; (vii) Virtually no errors in grammar/spelling/syntax.
<p>Merit 60 – 69</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Demonstrates a good command of the topic by showing perception and insight; (ii) Selection from a wide and relevant range of perspectives and sources that draws upon contemporary academic debate; (iii) Sources well-integrated into the overall argument; (iv) Clear, cogent and well-structured argument; (v) Critical distance and sound analysis of the question; (vi) References clear and accurate using appropriate APA conventions; (vii) Near perfect grammar/spelling/syntax. 	<p>Satisfactory 50 – 59</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Shows understanding of contemporary academic debate; (ii) Relevant selection from a relevant range of perspectives and sources; (iii) Sources mostly well-integrated into the overall argument; (iv) Mostly clear and well-structured argument; (v) Demonstrates criticality and reasonable level of analysis; (vi) Referencing clear and mostly accurate using appropriate APA conventions; (vii) Satisfactory level of grammar/spelling/syntax with some errors.
<p>Marginal Fail 40 – 49</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Demonstrating reasonable understanding but largely descriptive; (ii) Relevant but not wide selection of resources; (iii) Sources sometimes not properly integrated into the argument; (iv) Some attempt at presenting argument coherently; (v) Some successful analysis but has a tendency to accept the source material at face value; (vi) References adequate but clearer and/or more references needed; (vii) Reasonable grammar/spelling/syntax but with several errors. 	<p>Fail 0 – 39</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (i) Limited/poor understanding demonstrated, and irrelevant material included; (ii) Some/minimal relevant sources and limited topic coverage; (iii) Sources only occasionally/not at all integrated into the argument; (iv) Some/minimal structure and argument present; (v) Limited/analysis and criticality; merely describes sources; (vi) References limited/inappropriate; (vii) Many errors in grammar/spelling/syntax making it difficult/impossible to read.

Dissertation Grade Descriptors for MA Programmes

The tables below set out the descriptors which are used in assessing and marking the MA dissertation. The column headings identify five key aspects of the dissertation which are taken into account in the marking process. The entries in each column then describe the characteristics of a dissertation which would be placed in each mark band on that aspect.

The overall mark awarded is not arrived at by awarding a mark for each aspect individually and aggregating these. **The five aspects are not of equal importance. Rather markers use the descriptors to reach a view on the overall quality of the dissertation and award a mark accordingly.**

The descriptors in the table below are intended not only to give guidance to markers of dissertations but also to help students as they plan, implement and write up their research study by highlighting the learning outcomes which the MA dissertation is designed to assess and the features of the dissertation that provide evidence that these learning outcomes have been attained. When assessing dissertations on topics such as critical literature reviews, systematic reviews of research evidence or document analysis, markers will exercise their academic judgement regarding the relevance of the descriptors to the dissertation topic/ approach.

1. Demonstrating an understanding of existing literature on the research, which is linked to the present project

100 - 86	An outstanding grasp of relevant literature, issues and debates is demonstrated and new insights are generated about the topic at hand. Relevant concepts are capably explained and details about relevant previous research are discussed critically, without bias. The literature review is clearly linked to the rationale for conducting the study and literature support is fully integrated into the overall argument. Outstanding critical distance is maintained throughout.
85 - 70	An excellent grasp of relevant literature, issues and debates is demonstrated. This is explicitly linked to the rationale for conducting the study. Relevant concepts are explained well and details about relevant previous research are discussed critically. Literature support is fully integrated into the overall argument and critical distance is maintained throughout.
69 - 60	A good grasp of relevant literature is demonstrated and the literature reviewed is occasionally linked to the rationale for the research conducted, though the relevance of some sections may be unclear. Relevant concepts are explained and some details about relevant previous research are discussed. Literature support is integrated into the overall argument to an extent. A good level of criticality is demonstrated, although there may be occasional lapses.
59 - 50	A fair account of relevant literature is included, although some concepts may be omitted or misrepresented. Details about previous relevant research are included to a limited extent. The link between the literature reviewed and the study conducted are not explicitly stated, and literature support may not be integrated into the overall argument. Some criticality is present, although this may be limited and the literature may be taken at face value.
49 - 40	Some relevant literature is discussed superficially and/ or descriptively. The links between the literature review and the research conducted are not clear. There may be significant misinterpretations or misunderstandings of the literature.
39 - 0	Very little relevant literature is cited and the links between this literature and the research conducted are not clear. There may be significant misinterpretations or misunderstandings.

Appendix 3 Baseline Interview Protocol

This interview is to know more about your background information. This will include: your general information, your education background, your language learning background. The data will be kept confidential and only accessible to Qingyang Sun.

Question sheet for participants to complete before the interview:

你的年龄 (your age) _____
曾就读本科院校属于 (Type of undergraduate institution in China):
<input type="checkbox"/> 985/ 211 (Higher Tier One) <input type="checkbox"/> 其他一本 (Other Tier One) <input type="checkbox"/> 二本 (Tier Two)
<input type="checkbox"/> 三本 (Tier Three) <input type="checkbox"/> 高职专科 (Vocational)
<input type="checkbox"/> 海外高校 (Overseas universities) <input type="checkbox"/> 其他(Other): _____
你的本科专业是 (Undergraduate degree programme) _____
现在的专业是 (MA degree programme) _____
你最高和最低的雅思成绩(总分和写作)是多少, 以及何时参加的考试(请用 MM/YY 标明年月)?
(What was your highest and lowest IELTS score? Please specify the time you took the test with MM/YY)
最高总分 (Highest Overall score): _____ / _____
最高写作分 (Highest Writing score): _____ / _____
最低总分 (Lowest Overall score): _____ / _____
最低写作分 (Lowest Writing Score): _____ / _____
对于接下来的学术写作任务, 按照 1-6 打分的话, 你有多少信心?
On a scale of 1-6, how confident are you with your upcoming English academic writing tasks? (1 stands for least confident and 6 for most confident)?
<input type="checkbox"/> 1 完全没信心 (Not at all confident) <input type="checkbox"/> 2 比较担心 (Quite concerned)
<input type="checkbox"/> 3 有点担心 (A little concerned) <input type="checkbox"/> 4 比较有信心 (Quite confident)
<input type="checkbox"/> 5 有信心 (Confident) <input type="checkbox"/> 6 很有信心 (Very confident)

Interview Questions:

1.你为什么来英国读硕士?

Why are you studying a Masters degree in the UK?

2.目前对 MA 学习感觉怎样? (你喜欢/不喜欢哪些内容, 对哪些感兴趣, 有什么困难, 哪些你觉得会有用, 为什么?)

What do you feel about your MA study so far? (What do you like/dislike, which aspects are you interested in, what difficulties do you face, what do you find useful, why?)

#关于本硕方向: 如果不同, 为什么做此选择, 目前感觉如何?

If your MA and undergraduate degree are not in the same field of study, could you explain why you made the choice and how you feel about it so far?

3.你有和英语相关的工作经验吗？是什么，多久？

Do you have any working experiences related to English language? If yes, what is it, for how long?

4.你写过哪些类型的英语写作？多久写一次？

What types of English compositions have you written before? How often did you write them?

5.你认为学术写作是什么？（有哪些特点-和其他类型有什么区别，目的是什么）

What is your understanding of academic writing? (What features does it have, what is its difference from other types, what is its purpose)

6.你用英语写过学术性的东西吗？多久写一次？要求有哪些？

Have you written any academic texts in English? How often? What were the requirements?

-你认为雅思写作和学术写作有多相似或不同，为什么？

-From your perspective, how similar or different is IELTS writing to academic writing, why?

-你认为你本科时写的东西和学术写作有多相似或不同，为什么？

- From your perspective, how similar or different is your undergraduate writing to academic writing, why?

7.你这学期是否写过期中作业？是怎样的类型？对文献引用的要求如何？

-Have you written any formative task this term? What type of task is it? What is its requirement of source use?

8. 你之前的写作中用过文献吗（包括中文）？以怎样的形式？（reference 里的东西是否必须在文章中出现？一般引什么类型的文献？有怎样的监督？）

Have you used references in any of your previous writing? (including in Chinese)

How? (whether in the format of bibliography or proper reference list, what kind of sources they used, how was it supervised/checked upon)

9. 你对引用文献有什么看法？

What is your understanding of source use?

-这样的看法来自哪里？是中国的教育还是在来英国后产生的？

-Where does such understanding comes from?

10.（针对问卷中关于信心的问题）为什么你选择了这个选项？

(For the question about confidence level of academic tasks in the question sheet) Why do you choose this confidence level?

Appendix 4 Main study interview protocol

Semi-structured interview questions

Q1 Since the last interview, what new things have you known/mastered/learned about citation?

- Where from, whom, what it is, how, what's the influence on you?
- (probe) How about – the module tutor, your supervisor, the handbook, DEL courses, other support in the university (writing centre, lectures), friends, the Internet, books about citation; learning from expert writing?

Q2 Now what's your view on citing sources, in relation to the last interview?

Q3 What was your approach to writing this assignment? Can you briefly comment on the following:

- When did you start and when did you finish
- Assignment planning
- Reading approach (note taking, sequence of reading, ways of finding sources; selecting sources based on what principle)

Discourse-based questions

(I underlined citations to look at beforehand) Why did you use this citation in this way? Please comment on any concerns you had except for the content of the citation.

-probe 1 (if they don't know what to comment on): Why did you choose to cite in this way instead of another? What kind of message did you want to convey apart from the content? How would citing in this way be different from putting a bracket at the end, for example?

- probe 2 (optional): where did you get this perception from? How did you master this type of citation? What do you think of this type of citation?

On feedback related to citation/source use (highlight beforehand)

What's your view on this?

-What do you think it talks about? Do you think it's a fair comment? Would you change anything next time based on this?/How useful is this?

Appendix 5 Interview protocol for EAP programme leader

1. How important is the role of 'source use' in academic writing?
2. Which aspects of sources use do you think provide most difficulty for PG international students? Do you think these aspects are important as well?
3. How does source use fit into the curriculum for teaching academic writing in EAP pre-sessional or in-sessional support courses?
 - How much time in a typical EAP support course do you spend on teaching 'source use'? e.g. in the Department English Courses, 8 weeks for T1 and T2; 5 weeks for T3
4. What are the aspects of source use that you teach in your EAP classes?
 - How do you teach these aspects?
5. Are there any difficulties in teaching source use to PG international students?
 - Are there any particular constraints which limit the effectiveness of your teaching of source use to PG international students? [institutional/ curriculum / time /nature of EAP programmes]
 - What would you say about the nature of the in-sessional EAP programme?
 - -What role do you think EAP teachers play in relation to the degree programmes that students study?
6. To what extent do you think the students you have taught are able to meet the challenges of achieving successful source use in their MA programmes? In terms of which aspects?

Appendix 6 Sample Interview transcripts

Elsa T2 SSI

(the beginning 15 minutes)

QS: Thanks for attending this interview. Can I first ask you, what have you learnt about source use since the last time we met?

Elsa: (going through her assignment script) For example, the references, finally there are many sources, how to sequence them. You need to put surname first, and then here seems to be a middle name, here's the name. I mainly use journal articles, because it's easy. Its format is very easy to find. Books are also ok. But others, like the module tutor's doctoral thesis, I don't know where to look for its format. I don't know whether my referencing on this is correct. Another topic is reporting verbs, I know a little more about than last time, during exercises, because I found using one verb all the time would appear strange. And direct quoting. But I won't use secondary referencing, because I find it rather effort-consuming. It's not as good as directly finding the original source, that would be better.

QS: So like for formatting, from where did you learn about that?

Elsa: Mainly in daily life when I look at reading lists, I'd pay some attention to that. When I wrote the assignment, I read many books, that time I would look carefully how they use these things and acquire slowly.

QS: What about for reporting verbs? Where did you learn about that?

Elsa: It's also from what I read. I didn't learn about reporting verbs on purpose... The DEL course covered it a bit, but very little.

QS: You just mentioned exercises in the DEL courses a while ago, were there exercises on reporting verbs?

Elsa: Yes, we had exercises to do in class, but only for about 10 minutes. It feels like touching a bit but stopping there. And some of them, you need to think carefully, like the use of claim, it's still not the same as others. the teacher said you use it only when you don't agree with the source, and you can't use other common reporting verbs to replace it. And like "argued"- there are certain set expressions. And also, you can change them, like I put the person first and the verb after, then when I find this pattern is too frequent, I change it and say sth is done by sb. I just want to change the sentence pattern some time. This is also something I wouldn't do before.

QS: Can you comment a bit more on what kind of exercise you did?

Elsa: I think we matched verbs with some categories...but can't remember much detail now.

QS: OK...what else have you learned about source use during this period?

Elsa: I have a problem, that is I often used one person's source for a whole paragraph. That's a problem. On one hand, the sources on the theory were hard to find, I mean in the field I wrote about. And the lecturer also said we need to carefully, make full use of the source. Another reason was that I didn't know how to separate the points from the source into different parts of my writing. So, for the whole paragraph I use one, or two persons' words, and that's a disadvantage. For them, you'd better put different authors' words together in a paragraph, that's maybe more convincing to them. And I would try to find current sources, especially those recommended by the lecturers. I start literature searching from there. I won't go find dated sources. When searching, I don't use google scholar much, but like EBESCO under library subject guide, and library, those more official databases. And for the reference list, at first, I just manually typed in the references, but only later I knew that google scholar can form that automatically clicking on "cite". This was told by a roommate, who is a foreigner. This point I feel is rather useful, I've learnt something.

QS: So you talked about that while you were writing...

Elsa: I told my roommate that I need long time to do the reference list since I need to type each one by hand, then he/she told me in this way is easier. And it indeed was very fast.

QS: We've covered quite a lot of topics...so overall, what were the means through which you learned about all these things about source use?

Elsa: The means to learn these things...in DEL course I learned about many new things. Mainly I think is myself reading many things. Like for direct quoting, there's a handbook which is very useful, APA style (university). I think looking at that is enough. There are many examples, as long as you're not citing too strange things, it can almost help with all problems. Another source is the departmental MA handbook, so both of them. I think these two are enough, about how to use sources.

QS: So then I'll go through some types of support that I thought might involve source use...I'll ask about each of them. Just let me know if there was something about source use in that type of support.

Elsa: OK.

QS: So what about the modules you took in Term 1? Was there anything about using sources?

Elsa: In the last session of teaching/assessing writing module, source use was very briefly mentioned. In all other modules no teacher talked about this. All was about the academic content. These things, you should look yourself, just feeling like this is a very easy thing.

QS: You mean, you feel that they think this is easy?

Elsa: Yes, I mean that the teachers think this is easy. Like, many people ended up with poor referencing styles, and the teachers feel very hard to understand, why it is in handbooks but you don't look them up?

QS: Where did you hear about that?

Elsa: When we got the feedback, we discussed together, and see what is your marker's focus. Some classmates said their markers focus on referencing. When they see the formats are poor, the quantity is small, and most sources are outdated, then your mark definitely will not go up. But some markers wouldn't mind that so much, right?

QS: So some of your classmates were criticised for that...

Elsa: Yes. And we found it really was the case, especially Tutor Y. The mark wouldn't go up if the impression is poor.

QS: Right...so have you known about anything of source use from your supervisor?

Elsa: No...He/she didn't mention it. Every time our meeting time was short in the first place. Only 30 minutes, wouldn't go to much detail.

QS: Like what would you talk about, generally?

Elsa: Recently it's about writing the proposal. Before writing this assignment, he/she told us what we needed to do. Because he/she is in charge of plagiarism issues, he/she said specifically, don't copy. Quite a lot was said about this. He/she told us that, anything that appears in your text, if it's not your own idea, you'll need to make a reference to it. That's a recursive topic.

QS: Did he/she just talked about that? Or did you...

Elsa: He/she said this is a very serious matter. We discussed what counts as plagiarism in our meeting. Much was said on that. On this matter, though, we also had a tutorial, showing you examples of what counts as plagiarism and what not, using ...turnitin.

QS: Hmm...can you talk about this tutorial a bit more? What else have you learned?

Elsa: I also learnt that similarity index percentage does not mean whether you've plagiarized or not, but some places if you don't use quotation marks when you quote, that's a very fatal instance. Even 7% could mean plagiarism if it's fatal. This knowledge I think is quite important.

QS: About the DEL courses, how much of the courses were about source use, do you think?

Elsa: ...in later sessions each time 10-20 minutes are allocated to source use to talk about that generally, but it's very abstract.

QS: What do you mean by abstract?

Elsa: Many things they talked about were put in some texts, and you look at the texts. They asked us to analyse a sentence, whether they are the thoughts of this author or another. But I guess wrongly every time. I am still not clear whether something is this or another author's thoughts.

QS: So how did this help you, do you think?

Elsa: I feel, at that time I could understand, but later I forgot all these things. When I'm writing I would no longer look at those materials.

QS: What else did you learn in the DEL courses?

Elsa: They taught us how to write introductions and conclusions. But when we asked them if there's any model to use, they just said that's up to you. They didn't give us any model, we just wrote according to our feelings of how it should be done.

QS: OK...our university has a writing centre...

Elsa: The writing centre was a great help to me. They gave me much feedback. They just said you over rely on each source, which is not convincing. The feedback from tutor also said too much description and not enough analysis. The writing centre appointment taught me how to do critical analysis. But because source was not a big problem in my feedback report, those from the writing centre did not talk too much about that. They said the main problem was on searching sources. You need to find out many sources, and put them together in a paragraph.

QS: ...so you visited them after you got the feedback?

Elsa: Yes, I then booked an appointment. They talked about this rather clearly.

QS: Like how do you do it in a paragraph...

Elsa: They also gave me some steps: first you write the topic sentence, and then you explain it using different people's accounts. Then you do critical analysis: among

these people’s thoughts, which you agree and disagree, and why. And then your own point and a little conclusion of the paragraph. This, I feel, is very clearly explained and useful.

Elsa T2 DBI about T1 CM assignment

(the extracts here are 6 minutes)

QS: OK, now let’s look at your assignment. I’ve underlined some citations in your text. For each of them, I would like to know, why did you put that citation in that way, was there any reason for doing that. It’s also Ok if you didn’t really think about that. Just let me know. Is that Ok?

Elsa: Yes.

Elsa’s text	DBI
<p>Introduction</p> <p><u>The research studies on academic writing have gained a lot of attention from teachers and researchers (Zhu, 2004).</u> During the past few decades, a wide range of teaching approaches to writing has gradually become available for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers to draw on (Badger & White, 2000). There are three leading approaches: product, process, and genre approaches. Product approaches were traditional orthodoxies adopted by instructors long years ago and have played a crucial role in some countries. As Long and Doughty (2009) notes, Asian countries (China, Japan and Korea) still prefer the traditional pedagogy because of the pressing need to assist learners to pass high-stakes tests. In addition, multiple practical issues such as heavy workload on teachers, limited English competence of learners and large class size make it almost unlikely to employ process approaches. During the 1970s and 1980s, process approaches emerged as new pedagogies in the field of second language (L2) writing (Myskow & Gordon, 2010). Writing,</p>	<p>QS: Like for this one. Was there any reason for using it that way?</p> <p>Elsa: For this one, when I counted the reference item number, I only had 19, but 20 was required. So I wanted to find another one. This would better be said generally, better about background knowledge. So I happened to find this Zhu 2004 source. And what is said here is some rather empty saying, I think I can make up a reference number with this. And putting this here doesn’t harm the overall coherence. Sayings like this, everyone would talk about a little bit about such topics, so I picked this source.</p>

proposed by Hayes and Flower (1983), is considered as a process instead of a product. They highlight the act of writing, exploring what writers think and do while performing writing tasks. Unlike process-oriented approaches, the third genre approaches highlight the importance of readers and purposes in terms of writing (Hyland, 2009). Teachers are expected to help students regarding how and what to write to reach the expectations of potential readers. Since all three approaches have profound meaning in writing pedagogies, teachers need to know and fully comprehend the theories grounded on the three approaches before deciding the process-genre pedagogies to achieve the best effectiveness in the second language (L2) writing classroom.

This essay seeks to analyse the theoretical underpinnings of product, process and genre approaches in detail. Through elaborative investigation in different theories behind those approaches, it puts forward that process- genre pedagogies are likely to obtain the most effective outcome in the L2 writing classroom. The first section will provide the definitions and

overview of product, process, genre approaches and effective writing instruction. The second section will clarify the theoretical foundations behind those approaches and how they affect writing instruction. The first one is the analysis of grammatical theory behind the product approach. The second one is the examination of the cognitive process theory behind process approaches. The third one is the investigation of the genre approach with three traditions and intercultural contrastive rhetoric. The fourth one is the significance of process-genre pedagogies with effective writing instruction in the L2 classroom.

<p>1.Overview of product, process and genre approaches and effective teaching</p> <p>1.1 Text-focused product approaches in writing teaching</p> <p>The product-based model focuses on the product of writing instead of its process (Long & Doughty, 2009). Put simply, teachers devote more of their energy to figure out how to explicitly analyse texts and induct learners into the production of the final output. There are mainly four stages making up the product instruction <u>noted by Badger and White (2000): “familiarization; controlled writing; guided writing and free writing” (P.153). First, in a typical writing class, instructors will provide some model texts in the early stages and analyse the linguistic knowledge in detail, including cohesive devices contributing to the organization of texts. After learners having familiarized themselves with common expressions and linguistic features, they are provided with relative exercises to strengthen their understanding and apply what they have been taught into practice in controlled and guided writing phases. Finally, the optimal situation of free writing comes when they are ready to produce their own texts. In this sense, writing is considered as merely associated with language forms and writers are expected to develop their writing skills via the imitation of samples offered by teachers.</u> This traditional approach has both its strengths and weaknesses. Basic knowledge of linguistic features and forms are given sufficient attention and learners attend to them constantly when they mimic a text template. However, they ignore how writers conduct their writing , for instance, how to plan initially and generate ideas about the tasks. In addition, the cultural background and the skills</p>	<p>QS: This Badge and White source, was there any consideration for using it like this?</p> <p>Elsa: This source has been repeatedly mentioned in the other module I took. I think the steps are well said, so I paraphrased the steps. The direct quoted part is because these are jargons and cannot be paraphrased, so I just quoted directly.</p> <p>QS: So what was your consideration when you were describing this bit in a detailed way?</p> <p>Elsa: I feel a dilemma, because you can't say this in a too simple way, right? For foreigners, you have to explain it very clearly. But when being clear, it becomes too detailed. It's very hard to balance this degree. And maybe the command of language is still not good enough. Like the meaning maybe can be said in a more concise way, but because your language is not good enough, you can only use very tedious language to explain this thing. So that's this long. Another point is, maybe markers feel this is very tedious, but for those at the writing centre they feel this is good since they don't know very much about this matter. They say only if you explain this so detailed can I</p>
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<p>learners have brought to the classroom are given little role (<u>Badger & White, 2000</u>).</p> <p>1.2 Writer-driven process approaches in writing teaching</p> <p>In the process-driven approach, Hayes and Flower (1981) perceive writing process “as a series of decisions and choices” (p.365). They underline writers’ initiative and capabilities. <u>As Badger and White (2000) point out</u>, there exist four stages in the process-driven writing classroom. In the prewriting stage, learners are inspired to brainstorm on a given topic and endeavour to generate ideas. Teachers just provide language support to them instead of pointing out their grammatical errors. They may jot down the main items which they think are useful and meaningful. When the selected points are made, they then plan to apply them into the first draft, working in pairs or in groups. In the revising phase, groups exchange their drafts with each other or discuss their drafts within the group, uncovering errors, mostly on content and organization, and revising them accordingly. Finally, attention is mainly paid to the language</p>	<p>understand it. So, at the time I was also a bit hesitant about what to do.</p> <p>QS: And you used ‘noted’ as the reporting verb, which is in its passive voice. Do you have any consideration about that?</p> <p>Elsa: Because the subject is the stages, and I wanted to change, so it could only be used as passive. Because previously this it was mainly who said what, but here I changed the sequence on purpose. ... is this grammar a bit strange? But it’s past perfect tense.</p> <p>QS: And here you used ‘point out’, why did you use this?</p> <p>Elsa: I think ‘note’ and ‘point out’ have similar meanings, they both point to something. But still to avoid repetition, I changed into another word.</p>
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features such as spelling, punctuation in the editing or proof-reading stage (Badger & White, 2000).

The process-centred model is aimed at aiding writers to perform successful prose through various class activities. The teacher's main role is to supervise learners and provide help whenever possible, and learners are expected to discover solutions individually or through discussion with peers. They are given full freedom to express their own initiatives and creativity. Nevertheless, some critics contend that the instructions within this pedagogy seem to be vaguely defined and not clear. Furthermore, it lacks emphasis on language features, which is significant for the finished output (Long & Doughty, 2009).

1.3 Reader-centred genre approaches in writing teaching

Genre being introduced to classroom instruction is influenced by communitive approaches which began in the 1970s, when the communicative purposes of texts were emphasized (Hyland, 2007). He defines genres as “abstract, socially recognized ways of using language” (p.149). It seems that people belonging to the same discourse community usually find it relatively easy to understand each other, and this is mainly because they can predict and infer the interlocutors' intentions by repetitively experiencing the same context. Martin (2009) further identifies genres as “a staged goal-oriented social process” (p.10). It is apparent that he highlights the important purpose of genres embedded within specific social contexts. Genre-based approaches are based on genre theories and deal with writing in various social conditions. There are a wide range of different kinds of writing, such as cover sheets, complaint letters, academic essays, etc. Each kind of genre serves different purposes

QS: Here, you first said what Hyland said, explained and then ‘Martin further identifies’. What was your consideration for doing this?

Elsa: Because definition cannot be only said by one person. So I wanted to find two or three people to say this definition from different viewpoints, that would be better. But the definitions here, the language is very concise and it's not good to paraphrase. These two persons were also mentioned in class. The tutor used them to make explanation. So I just

<p>and concerns with distinct readers (Badger & White, 2000). For example, complaint letters are produced to express some unsatisfactory feelings and readers might be the relative departmental staff who are in charge of those letters.</p>	<p>used them. I didn't search for other definitions myself.</p> <p>QS: How about the word 'further'?</p> <p>Elsa: Umm...because this is 2009, the first one is 2007, so Martin added one step further to point out. Maybe this Martin has also seen Hyland's explanation, but he has some different ideas. But it seems not used correctly...further should be said by the same person, shouldn't be different people. I didn't think about so much at the time.</p> <p>QS: Why do you think that 'further' should be the same person?</p> <p>Elsa: Like, this person at first thinks of this in this way, and then after some time they say no maybe I haven't explained about this clearly enough. Yes should be the same person I think.</p>
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Appendix 7 Full report of the pilot study

Piloting the information sheet / baseline interview protocols

It is useful to know about the participants' demographic information and past experience on academic writing. These issues can possibly be related to, or even be explanatory of, their later performance in source use during the year. For this purpose, I initially drafted a survey type information sheet, with items inspired by similar studies. The sheet contained 14 questions, 10 of which were closed questions. These included ranking options for students' motivation of study, start age of learning English language and number of academic writing pieces. For example, the question on writing experience asked: "Have you written course-related essays in English before starting your MA degree? How often?" and the options were "never", "had 2 or 3 such experiences", "had 4 or 5 such experiences" and so on. Later, I found that I could not make much use of such data in terms of interpreting findings. The answers were numerical/categorical, which could not tell much detail about the participants. This ran contrary to the constructivist paradigm of this study. I thus decided to change such questions into the interview type for the main study, so that I could ask further about the details of such experiences, e.g. "On what occasion were you asked to do the piece of academic writing?"; "What was its requirement on source use?".

The 4 open-ended items also did not achieve ideal outcomes. I left two lines for participants to fill in for questions like "Did you take the pre-session course before the MA programme? If yes, for how long? How useful do you find it?". For this question, Alice and Cara who did not take the course simply wrote "No" on the lines provided, while Dorothy who took the course wrote "Yes. Provide examples. Give feedback. Useful expression." This gave some ideas of the aspects that Dorothy found useful of the course, but not enough detail was given. Asking this question in interview could again probe more details. Similarly, the final question on the sheet asked "Is there anything else you would like me to know about your background?". Alice and Dorothy left the lines blank. When I asked the participants' feeling about the questions, Alice told me that she felt at a loss with such questions, and would usually skip them. Cara wrote "20 hours' IELTS writing class", but whether it referred to teaching or learning experience could not be known. Overall, the open-ended questions tended to gather either no answer or very short answers, due to participants'

tendency to avoid writing long answers on paper and the limited space for writing. Therefore, I asked these questions as well in interviews with participants in the main study. A baseline interview separate from the discourse-based interviews seemed very necessary for probing detailed background information about participants.

Some of the factual information, however, was effectively gathered when written on the paper. I decided to keep a paper form information sheet in the main study baseline interview. This contained only 5 items from the original design: Age, type of undergraduate university, past and current degree programmes, highest and lowest IELTS score, and confidence level about the upcoming academic writing tasks. Main study participants were asked to fill in the sheet at the beginning of the baseline interviews. In the interview, I then asked their rationale for ticking the according option in confidence level. Other questions were kept open-ended. After consulting with my supervisor and modifying the protocol several times, I reached a final version for the main study baseline interview (Appendix 3). 20 minutes was the average amount of time in total for the baseline interviews.

Piloting the semi-structured interviews

I piloted the main interviews on assignments and dissertations, which were intended for the main study at the end of Term 2, the end of Term 3, and summer vacation. As discussed in the previous section, the main interview involves two components - a semi-structured component and a discourse-based component. In this section, I report piloting of the semi-structured part, which does not involve yet data about specific source use instances in the texts.

I began the main interviews with questions on academic writing input, the writing process, attitude towards source use, and students' attitudes of the mark they received. For example: "During this term, what have you learned in English courses about citation use?"; "When did you start writing the assignment and when did you finish?" and "Are you happy with the mark and the feedback?" These were to understand the overall context of students' composing and learning of source use, which could contribute to RQ3 (contextual influences on source use). Some of these questions, however, turned out to elicit less relevant data. The question about the attitude towards received marks usually led to themes other than source use. Alice, for

example, commented, “I think the mark compliments me a bit too much. Maybe the teacher wants to encourage us who write essays for the first time. But actually, I wrote it in a hurry and it had many grammar mistakes”. This was too general, and the topic “motivation - encouragement” implied in the comment referred more to grammar issues than source use. Such answers could hardly be helpful for data interpretation. I decided to eliminate such questions in the main study protocol. Further, instead of having a set of questions with dispersed ideas to focus on, I decided to have some main overarching questions with sub-questions/prompts to follow. This was to prevent the participants from mental overload.

The lack of probing when needed was found to be a prevalent problem in my interviewing technique. Probes need to be prepared in advance to elicit detailed information (e.g. Rubin & Rubin, 2012). Otherwise, the data might fail to connect with research purpose. For example:

QS: During the Term 1, what did you learn outside the modules, for example from EAP courses about source use?

Alice (Pilot Participant 1): There was one such course ... Term one...Mainly from paragraph level I would say. We wrote a short essay of 500 words. They taught from the beginning, how to analyse a task topic, how to look for sources, how to write introduction etc. Referencing sources was also mentioned. In the optional module I took, since it's on writing, the module tutor made a small videoclip on source use.

Here, although the student mentioned source use in the experience of writing the 500-essay and watching the video clip in the optional module, little could be known about what specifically was addressed in the teaching, and how. I should have followed with elaboration probes (Rubin & Rubin, 2012) , e.g. “Which aspect of source use are you referring to here?”, “How did it take place? What did the teacher do? Were you able to use what you learned in your own writing?” This could have generated more detailed data, e.g. whether “how to look for sources” was addressed by the teacher demonstrating the process using google scholar, or by recommending a few websites containing tips on source searching. Such elicited data about the specific format of teaching could be vital to RQ3.

Another problem was about the way of eliciting students' answers. I found it hard to balance between prompting students towards more detailed answers and over-

leading students to produce biased answers. For example, when asking participants' overall attitude towards sources, I prepared some keywords on a prompt card for the worry that students would not know how to answer this question. The keywords were: authoritative, things I use to get marks, boring, some studies done by researchers, strong, weak. I presented them with the card and asked them: "What do you think about sources? This card is just to give some ideas, but please answer whatever you think." In the end, all the three participants acknowledged that sources are not always authoritative, and that there are stronger and weaker sources. In my reflection, I considered this as an instance of leading question, because the keywords here were too detailed and they encouraged the type of answer with both the strong and weak side of sources. However, this does not mean that suggesting keywords should always be avoided. For example, Dorothy answered to the question:

"I think authoritative is one factor. And this, gain marks, is also important. I don't feel they are boring, in contrast, they are quite interesting. And strong, not weak....But some sources are also weak. Yes. Because when I was writing the proposal, my supervisor said that I shouldn't use one particular source because it only researched one student. Only at that point did I realise that even with published sources, you need to judge whether it can be used."

In this answer, at first the student seemed to merely repeat the keywords on the card, with some linking words to connect them and some simple yes/no judgement about the keywords. This seemed an intuitive reaction to the prompt card, without much information about the students' real thoughts. This showed the disadvantage of over-leading prompts. At the latter half of the answer, however, the keyword 'strong and weak' seemed to stimulate Dorothy's recall of one particular incident when she learned about the quality of sources. It was difficult to imagine whether Dorothy would have reported this incident when simply asked about institutional support on source use, or overall attitude of source use. To avoid over-leading, a better approach here would be to suggest keywords only when the student had difficulty answering the question. The keyword used also needs to be neutral and not suggesting any direction. For example, if the student does not know how to answer the question, I could prompt with: "What kind of difficulty did you have in using sources?" This replaced the abstract question with more specific instances of students' experiences, which should be easier to answer. This topic about authoritativeness of sources could

also be subtly asked within the reading/writing process question. For example, when students report their process of searching the sources, I could ask, “How did you decide on the sources you want to use?” This could elicit judgement of stronger and weaker sources.

Piloting the discourse-based interview

For the discourse-based part, I intended to ask the students about their awareness of source use in their own texts, matching with categories in the citation framework. These included questions on citation form, reporting verbs and rhetorical functions categories. Since there was not enough time to question every single citation, I selectively asked about some instances and listed the questions in marginal comments of students’ texts beforehand.

The lack of clear criteria for selecting citation instances at the pilot staged turned out to be a problem in terms of generating informative data. For example, when I asked Cara, “What’s the purpose of using this citation here?” for several citation instances in her text, she answered mostly “because they coincide with what I want to express”. Such answers somehow showed her lack of purpose in citing besides acknowledging the author, which matches with the definition of ‘attribution’ in the text analysis framework. However, the citations on which I questioned had only the ‘attribution’ function from the discourse analysis perspective in the first place. Asking about such instances of citation was not likely to elicit useful information other than the purpose of acknowledging the source. Therefore, it was decided in main study interviews to pick out mostly citations that seem more than merely attribution. To allow this, the interviews should take place after some preliminary analysis of the texts.

Leading questions were again found to be problematic for the discourse-based part. Because I intended to know about students’ awareness matching with items in the citation framework, I sometimes asked in the direction of the category I had in mind. During the interview with Alice, I asked leading questions that would possibly change her answer, such as “You used a definition here. What were you trying to show?” This lead the informant into explaining the rationale for using the “define” function (this was included as one rhetorical function category for text analysis at the

time) while her real intention might be different. This should be replaced by an open question, such as “What was your purpose of using this citation here?”. In other occasions, using the term in the literature might also cause the participants to misunderstand the question. It is important to use the terms students can understand. I therefore used the term e.g. ‘citations in brackets’ instead of ‘non-integral citations’.

Questions based on integral /non-integral citation forms in combination with potential functions in the text seemed to have addressed RQ2 well. The pilot participants all had something to say about the citation form, perhaps because most of them learned about it during the programme of their study. Such questions on the same issue of citation form allowed comparison among participants. For example, see the two interview excerpts below:

The student’s text	Excerpt from the discourse-based interview
(Dorothy did not use any integral citation in one of her 4500-word assignment)	<p>QS: You didn’t use any citation out of brackets in your writing. Why is that?</p> <p><i>Dorothy:</i> If you say “according to”, that’s emphasizing the author; but in brackets you are emphasizing the content. Am I right? But I’m just not sure when should I emphasise the author. I didn’t use it because I’m not sure whether it’s the correct way to use... I personally think putting it in brackets is somehow safer, I don’t know why.</p>
(Cara Literature Reivew) Very few empirical research had been conducted until 1990s when <u>Berne (1995)</u> started ...Gradually, an increasing number of studies were published, such as the research conducted <u>by Chang and Read in 2007; Chang in 2007; Jafari and Hashim in 2012; and Alavi and Janbaz in 2014.</u> These studies, ... including TP, QP, VP and RI.	<p>QS: Why did you put Berne (source) separately but put the other sources altogether in a bracket?</p> <p><i>Cara:</i> Before Berne(1995), very few empirical studies have been done on this. So I feel maybe this person is like a landmark, this is like a beginning point, from then on there were more and more studies. So I feel this is quite important, and put it seperately. Then these other studies, they either compared TP and RP, or some were only on VP, or some compared all 4 of them, so I feel they’re alike in the nature of the study, so I rallied them up here.</p>

These two excerpts show the two participants’ different understanding towards the issue of integral/non-integral citation, and their different level of grasping the source material content. In excerpt 1, Dorothy showed her understanding of the difference between the two forms, but did not seem to successfully apply the knowledge in her own work. In excerpt 2, Cara, on the other hand, could identify the difference between sources and show this with the use of different citation forms. This difference cannot

be detected by merely the fact that Dorothy used only integral citation in her writing while Cara used both.

In particular, I also tested instances of the additional categories not belonging to the citation form, reporting verbs or rhetorical function frameworks. These were *no citation* and *extensive citations*. The two categories seemed to elicit important data on students' reasons for source use (RQ2) as well, with an indication of institutional support (RQ3). For example, see the below examples of *extensive citations*:

The student's text	Excerpt from the discourse-based interview
<p>(Dorothy T1A1) Wang (1999) has conducted a 5-year longitudinal research from 1993 to 1998 at Huadong Normal University. The research... In the study, the experimental group... In the experimental group, ...(Wang,1999). In the controlled group, traditional methods were used... (Wang,1999). The results of the study showed that both methods have their strengths and limitations. In the experimental group, students were able to speak freely and spontaneously... (Wang,1999). (272 words in total)</p>	<p>QS: Here these paragraphs are all about the Wang 1999 source. What do you think is its function here? Dorothy: Just to introduce this context. To explain clearly where it was, in what kind of context. But I know this kind of citation is not very good. QS: Why? Dorothy: Is it that if you use a lot of words on one source you might plagiarise? Or would it look like you haven't read enough?... But I wanted to say some of the things I indeed read from this context, which was also useful for my essay.</p>
<p>(Cara T2A) ..., a further exploration had been done by Cutler and Carter (1987) to discover the characteristics of English spoken language lexical items. In the study, they analyzed ...The data ... (12% of monosyllables, 50% of polysyllables ...), indicating that ...However, since the focus here is to find the characteristics of English spoken speech, it is less convincing unless more precise and persuasive evidence can be showed to prove that majority of English lexical items used by native English speakers in their daily life also begin with strong syllables. (312 words in total)</p>	<p>QS: Here you explained the whole study in this paragraph. Why? What was your consideration? Cara: Yes. First of all I think this study is very important. The tutor said, if you're to mention any empirical study, the more details you give, the better. Because she didn't read all those studies. If you just put forward a viewpoint, she wouldn't know why you select it, why it is convincing enough to be used in your essay.</p>

Dorothy associated negative terms and doubts, or a lack of confidence, with describing a single source for a long stretch of text, although she in fact did so. Her association of long description of one source with plagiarism seemed to point to an over emphasis on plagiarism in institutional academic support (RQ3) and her unclear understanding about the expectations. Her comment on 'read enough' showed her awareness of source use in terms of knowledge demonstration, and her dilemma between the ideal (not writing too long on one source) and the reality (showing a

thorough knowledge of the source). In the second instance, Cara was able to explain and justify her strategy of describing research procedure (contributing to RQ2). She also revealed how what teacher said influenced her citing behaviour (RQ3) in this instance. Cara's justification could also be exactly what Dorothy intended but could not articulate. This pointed to students' different perceptions on the same source use item.

Appendix 8 Department guide to assignments and dissertation

Excerpts from Department of Education- *Masters Student guide to Assignments and dissertation*, p. 8-9

1.6 Giving an opinion, quoting and not plagiarising

We want an argument running through the assignment, from the Introduction to the Conclusion. **It should be in your own words and not be the words of other writers.**

You will often need to give some sort of opinion or critical comment. This should normally be unemotional, not too conversational and not extreme. This is an important point, as it means you need to learn which words are poetic ("Smith's haunting argument enriches us all with its exquisitely tingling suggestions"), which are street slang ("Gibbs is a great guy") and which are extreme ("Relevance Theory is quite boring and useless"; "task-based learning is stupid, totally untrue and completely wrong"). Never ever write like this.

The sort of comment we want generally focuses on detail that you can show the reader. It may be that Smith (or his theory) "seems to have overlooked the importance of motivation", or that he (it) "cannot account for recent data on women under 30". You might want to use words like "the problem is essentially that the theory only applies to men".

Use quotes sparingly. Quoting refers to presenting word-for-word something you have read and putting this in quotation marks. Only quote where you have a good reason (e.g., Smith (2003) defines 'communicative' in a specific way, or you are about to disagree strongly with a particular expression that Smith used). **Do not use hundreds**

of quotes as a way to avoid having to think of your own words.
When we mark your assignments, we mostly mark what comes *between* the quotes – i.e. your comments!

Setting out a quote. Short quotations are part of the body of the text and are in double inverted commas. If you need to have a quote inside a quote, then use single inverted commas; for example “ ‘...’ ”. BUT, if you are quoting 40 or more words, make the quotation a separate paragraph, single spaced, with a blank line before it and after it. Indent the quote one tab stop left and right (or approximately 0.5 cm). Remember to add the reference at the end, like “(Smith, 2004, p. 34)”.

In-text citations

Remember to put the year directly after the name of the researcher. Do not wait and put it at the end of the sentence. The following sentence is correct:

Kramsch (1998) argues for the connection between language and culture.

Always integrate quotations into your argument. (Why is that quotation important? How is it helping your argument? What do you want your reader to concentrate on?) Don't just insert a quotation and move on to a different idea, expecting the reader or the quotation itself to do the work for you.

Use appropriate reporting verbs. Avoid “Smith (2002) says ...” or “Smith (2002) tells us that ...”. There are several reasons for this. First, *say* and *tell* are weak words and do not suggest *why* you need to quote Smith. It is better to use verbs like *Smith notes that, points out that, comments that, suggests that, concludes that, or argues that*. Second, *tells us* is ordering the reader around again; the marker is told that s/he *must* accept Smith's words – even though s/he may be a world expert and know far more about the topic than Smith.

Avoid 'claim' when reviewing the literature, unless you disagree with the point in question. Stating that “Smith claims X” implies you disagree with Smith and you need to give reasons for your disagreement.

If you use Smith's words, ideas, arguments or points of view, always acknowledge him/her. You can do this directly “(Smith, 2002, p. 33)” or indirectly, “as Smith (1989) put it, 'task' means anything to anyone”. If you copy, paste or 'steal' Smith's words and pretend they are yours, you are committing plagiarism – which is a serious offence in the UK. You can be asked to leave the Masters if you are found plagiarising. Be warned. Even a harmless-looking sentence in your text like “In short, there is no evidence for the Interaction Theory (Lakoff & Turner, 1989, p.133)” can be plagiarism – if you have copied the exact words from Lakoff and Turner's book or from another source discussing Lakoff and Turner's book. Remember to read the section on Academic Misconduct in your MA/MSc Student Handbook.

3 GUIDANCE ON REFERENCING FOR ASSIGNMENTS AND THE DISSERTATION

The Department has adopted the APA system of referencing. Examples of this system are given in all the student handbooks. For more detailed examples, you can consult either one of the several hard copies of the APA Publication Manual held in the University Library (B 0.02 AME), or websites such as the following:

<http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/560/01/>

<http://referencing.laerd.com/>

<http://www.apastyle.org/learn/tutorials/index.aspx>

Please remember that the *APA Publication Manual* is the official guide to the APA system of referencing. All other sources may contain errors.

Key Examples

A book

Hallam, S., & Rogers, L. (2008). *Improving behaviour and attendance at school*. Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

Kyriacou, C. (2007). *Essential teaching skills* (3rd ed.). Cheltenham, UK: Nelson Thornes.

Woolfolk, A., Hughes, M., & Walkup, V. (2008). *Psychology in education*. Harlow, UK: Pearson.

An edited book

Aronson, J. (Ed.). (2002). *Improving academic achievement: Impact of psychological factors on education*. London, UK: Academic Press.

Capel, S., Leask, M., & Turner, T. (Eds.). (2005). *Learning to teach in the secondary school: A companion to school experience* (4th ed.). London, UK: Routledge.

Crossley, M., & Vulliamy, G. (Eds.). (1997). *Qualitative educational research in developing countries: Current perspectives*. New York: Garland.

A chapter in an edited book

Dweck, C. S. (2002). Messages that motivate: How praise molds students' beliefs, motivation, and performance (in surprising ways). In J. Aronson (Ed.), *Improving academic achievement: Impact of psychological factors on education* (pp. 37-60). London, UK: Academic Press.

Dyson, A. (2006). Beyond the school gates: Context, disadvantage and 'urban schools'. In M. Ainscow & M. West (Eds.), *Improving urban schools: Leadership and collaboration* (pp. 117- 129). Maidenhead, UK: Open University Press.

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Appendix 9 Selected materials from the DEL courses

Language for citing sources: Using Reporting Verbs

Common reporting verbs

Task

a) Look at the reporting verbs used in your source texts, and in text extracts in these materials.

- · Which verbs are used?
- · What are they used for?
- · What do you notice about tense use?

b) What would you use the following verbs for? Can you add any others to the categories below?

states	demonstrates	assumes	shows
claims	points out		
observes	proposes	argues	suggests
considers	explains		

- ▷ Reporting authors' ideas
- ▷ Reporting research evidence
- ▷ Reporting a claim
- ▷ Reporting a tentative claim:

Using reporting verbs correctly: examples of structures

These structures are frequently used in academic writing: note the grammar and punctuation.

Curriculum development needs to reflect advances in technology more closely (Jones, 2012).

Jones (2012) states that curriculum development needs to reflect advances in technology more closely.

As Jones (2012) states, curriculum development needs to reflect advances in technology more closely.

Which of the three structures above is often preferred, and why?

Synthesising Sources in Critical Writing Extract from Lee (2002)

Task

Analyse the following extract.

A: What is the writer's argument? Underline any parts which express any points in the argument and how it develops.

B: Synthesising sources: notice how citation of each source is integrated into the writer's argument

1. Underline each source cited
2. Does the writer indicate agreement or disagreement with each?
3. How is this suggested or shown? Put notes below.
4. How does the writer synthesise these citations in this extract? Annotate the text to show links between sources, also contrast/comparison, and integration into the argument.

**Notes on each
source**

Crucial to an interactional theory of coherence is a pragmatic view of discourse predicated on [Grice's \(1975\)](#) Co-operative Principle — that is, that the writer has a benign intention in writing and the reader intends to co-operate (also see [Grundy, 1995](#); [Hatch, 1992](#)). Coherence is based on the writers' "intentionality" and the readers' "acceptance" — that is, text producers' and receivers' attitudes and assumptions play a significant part in determining whether a text is coherent. Coherence, therefore, is not dependent on the properties of the texts but on "the extent to which effort is required to construct a reasonable plan to attribute to the text producer in producing the text" ([Green, 1996](#), p. 107). [Gernsbacher and Givon \(1995\)](#) maintain that "coherence" is a mental entity, which is a property of the mind that interprets the text rather than a property of the text. This view of coherence is supported by the Theory of Relevance proposed by [Sperber and Wilson \(1986\)](#), which is predicated on the assumption that the readers attempt to seek relevance in texts by comparing the information from texts to other information, thus creating new information or rejecting old information ([Verschuereen, 1999](#)). Therefore, the reader can be regarded as an important contributor to "coherence." From a non-linguistic perspective, "coherence" can be said to be internal to the reader.

Extract From Lee (2002, p. 138) Teaching Coherence to ESL students

Notes

Crucial to an interactional theory of coherence is a pragmatic view of discourse predicated on Grice's (1975) Co-operative Principle — that is, that the writer has a benign intention in writing and the reader intends to co-operate (also see Grundy, 1995; Hatch, 1992). Coherence is based on the writers' "intentionality" and the readers' "acceptance" — that is, text producers' and receivers' attitudes and assumptions play a significant part in determining whether a text is coherent. Coherence, therefore, is not dependent on the properties of the texts but on "the extent to which effort is required to construct a reasonable plan to attribute to the text producer in producing the text" (Green, 1996, p. 107). Gernsbacher and Givon (1995) maintain that "coherence" is a mental entity, which is a property of the mind that interprets the text rather than a property of the text. This view of coherence is supported by the Theory of Relevance proposed by Sperber and Wilson (1986), which is predicated on the assumption that the readers attempt to seek relevance in texts by comparing the information from texts to other information, thus creating new information or rejecting old information (Verschueren, 1999). Therefore, the reader can be regarded as an important contributor to "coherence." From a non-linguistic perspective, "coherence" can be said to be internal to the reader.

Crucial to an interactional theory of discourse is... predicated on Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle

...(also see ...)

Coherence, therefore is... (Green, 1996.)

Gernsbacher and Givon maintain that coherence is...

This view of coherence is supported by the Theory of Relevance..... (Sperber and Wilson 1986)

...readers attempt to seek relevance in texts by..., thus creating new information or rejecting old information (Verschueren, 1999).

Appendix 10 Synopses of individual case reports

This section presents six individual students' cases of development and links to relevant incidents that could have influenced their development. Each case outlines the following information of the student:

- Marks for written assessment received during the year, including those not included in text analysis
- Consistently and significantly higher or lower uses of citation features as compared with the average at all three stages
- Particularly high or low uses of citation features/marks in one stage compared with the student's other two stages
- Consistent increase or decrease of citation features across three stages
- Supplementary analysis of textual items that can support the developmental trend of citation features outlined
- Snapshots of participants' self-reported incidents from the interviews, and feedback entries that are relevant to the above

With this description of key trends found in text analysis across three stages and key incidents of each student, I intend to re-construct each individual student's story of source use during the year. I will bring in contextual input that might have influenced their use in order to explain the development. I also intend to interpret the link between marks and noticeable source use features. The six cases (four high-scorers, one mid-scorer and one low-scorer) are sequenced according to the perceived success they showed in learning and acquiring source use. Naomi (Case No.1) can be considered the most dedicated and successful source use learner, whereas Isabel (Case No.6) showed the least level of dedication and can be regarded as among the least successful learners.

1. Naomi – a dedicated learner

Naomi graduated from a higher Tier 1 institution for bachelor's degree in China. During her MA study, she was a consistent high scorer for written assessments. She achieved two merit marks in T1, and distinction marks in T2 and DS. At all three stages, she used an above average number of sources and citations, which was particularly high in T2 (both at least 1 SD above average). She used 30 sources in T1

(M=27.63), 48 in T2 (M = 30.50) and 43 in DS (M=45.00). She used 65 citations in T1 (M=59.13), 100 in T2 (M=60.75) and 102 in DS (M=85.50). For writing T2 assignment, for which she was awarded a high distinction mark (85), she reported to have put in extra hard work due to the expected difficulty of the task. She reported to have spent about one month in reading and writing for the task, with about 8 hours each day, while the majority of participant spent about 10 to 15 days.

Naomi paid attention to various input on source use. During Term 1, she developed her understanding of source quality, citation formats, tense for reporting sources and the need to use sources as supporting evidence, which she did not have from her previous education. These were learned from mainly the formative assignment in T1 OM and EAP courses. She was able to apply such knowledge in her assignment writing. Her percentages of simple attribution function decreased steadily from T1 to DS – 76.92% in T1, 70.00% in T2 to 48.94% in LR. This shows that she learned to use a wider range of rhetorical functions as the year progressed.

Naomi showed strong ability to establish links between sources, which contributed to analysis of ideas. Naomi’s use of links under three categories were constantly higher than the average (see table). Her use of compare and contrast were much higher than the average at all three stages of the study, which was also constantly increasing. Her use of *exemplification/further reference* also showed similar trend and was particularly high in DS. This suggests her ability to identify examples from a larger body of sources, which was perhaps most prominent in dissertation writing. Regarding *group citations*, the number was not particularly high in T1, but it soared higher in T2 and DS. As another piece of evidence for increased analysis ability, she also showed less reliance on a few sources as the year progressed. Her use of extensive citations decreased from above average in T1 (8 instances, M = 4.63) to being at same level with the average in T2 (2 instances, M = 2.63) and DS (4 instances, M=2.25).

Links between sources	T1		T2		LR	
	Naomi’s use	Mean value	Naomi’s use	Mean value	Naomi’s use	Mean value
Group citations	5	5.50	18	7.00	19	18.38

Compare/contrast	9	4.00	11	2.75	18	9.50
Exemplification/further reference	7	3.38	6	2.75	17	3.63

All aspects of such analytical approaches were likely to have been influenced by her grasp of available input. Naomi reported to have benefitted from a supervision meeting at the end of T1. The supervisor mentioned the need to make links in order to move beyond description of sources and pointed out one instance of long description in her writing. Naomi made some adjustments accordingly for T1 assignment, as she added in some points of analysis. The increased links became more prominent in her T2 assignment, as she reported to have learned link making in specific contexts of writing from T2 OM. Her structured approach to note-taking also seemed to have benefitted her identification of links between sources. This trend continued into her literature review writing. Her final dissertation report commented very positively on her ability to synthesise sources in the literature review: “There was critical thinking present in the chapter and the student showed a good knowledge of the competing ideas in L2 writing.” This praise on criticality could be due to the source network that Naomi constructed by using a wide range of rhetorical functions to link between sources.

Some interesting trends were shown regarding evaluation on sources. Naomi’s use of positive evaluation was higher in T2, while remaining at similar level as the average in the other two stages (5 in T1, M= 4.75; 11 in T2, M=6.0; 4 in DS, M=4.25). This could be because of her enhanced awareness to show evaluation in T2. Also noticeable was her implicit indication of evaluation when she described research studies in T2, e.g. “a longitudinal study”, “an early study”, which was confirmed by her DBI comments. For DS, although her use of positive reporting verbs was not many, she predominantly used research act verbs such as “found”, “identified” and “categorised” to put emphasis on researchers’ doing without imposing personal stance on it. It could be seen as an act of remaining objective in narrating research procedure and findings. Interestingly, her texts contained no instance of direct negative evaluation on sources in any stage, although some judgement could be inferred after a comparison of sources.

To sum up, Naomi was attentive to various types of input on source use, and actively reacted to input in her writing. This was shown by her increased number of sources, links between sources and less reliance on particular sources, especially from Term 2 onwards. Her particularly high commitment to assignment writing in T2 also played an important role in her success at that stage. Her use of explicit evaluation on sources were as few as the other participants, except for T2 where she used more citations. However, she showed evaluation in subtle ways of narrating details of research procedure.

2. Fiona – attention to input

Fiona had worked as a teacher of IELTS and TOEFL writing preparation courses for three years by the start of the programme. She was the only participant studying the MA Applied Linguistics programme and wrote 4 assignments in total as required by her programme, as opposed to 3 assignments for TESOL programme. Three of her assignments achieved distinction marks (additional CM1-72, OM1-73, additional OM2 in T2-72), while one only achieved higher pass (OM3 in T2 - 57). Her dissertation achieved 63 – a lower merit mark. Her generally high marks for assignments could be attributed to her relatively high use of references. She used the highest number of references among the participants in T1 (63 sources, M=27.63) and T2 (55 sources, M=30.50), and a slightly above-average amount in DS (48 sources, M=45.00). This means that she generally consulted more sources than her peers. Meanwhile, her in-text mentioning times per reference were lower than the average in T1 and T2 but slightly higher in DS, which means that she generally did not make use of each source as much as her peers.

Noticeably, at all three stages, her uses of links between sources under four categories were also generally higher than the average (see table below). In particular, her use of compare and contrast were more than twice the amount of the average at all three stages. The *exemplification/further reference* function also occurred more than twice the average in her T1 and T2 texts. It can be seen that Fiona made more active connections between sources than her peers and identified typical sources from a wider range of sources (exemplification). Her DS text used fewer *exemplification/further reference* function, possibly due to the relatively lower

number of sources used at DS and the predominance of synthesis and *compare/contrast* functions.

Links between sources	T1		T2		DS	
	Fiona's use	Mean value	Fiona's use	Mean value	Fiona's use	Mean value
Group citations	6	5.50	7	7.00	24	18.38
Compare/contrast	11	4.00	7	2.75	20	9.50
Exemplification/further reference	9	3.38	12	2.75	2	3.63

Further, her higher use of links between sources was because of her awareness and ability to make links, and not necessarily due to her greater number of sources used. This is because Fiona's amount of other functions (including attribution and evaluation) were at similar level as the average. A few instances of input could explain such awareness and ability. During T1, Fiona reported to learn that a point can be followed by several sources from reading journal articles. In T2, Fiona asked advice from her EAP course tutor on her assignment. The tutor suggested that instead of using one definition, she could summarise common grounds for a number of definitions. Fiona followed this advice. It can be said that Fiona was responsive to the input she received. She quickly became aware of the need to make links between sources at the beginning of the study and continued this habit as the year progressed.

For the evaluation function, Fiona was one of the few participants who reported to have intentionally chosen reporting verbs according to a list of verbs provided by EAP courses. She intended to choose the most 'accurate' verbs, matching with her stance. However, her use of the evaluation function was only slightly higher than the average (6 in T1, M=5.13, 7 in T2, M=5.88, 6 in LR, M=5.63). This suggests that, even with the intention to show writer's stance, Fiona's evaluation in texts was in fact not very prominent.

Fiona's lower mark for T2 OM assignment was unexpected, given her generally high marks. In this assignment, a high number of sources were still evident. Higher than averages links between sources were also made, consistent with Fiona's other texts. The main problem, as indicated by the feedback, was that she only partial addressed the topic. Fiona commented about the complexity of the task, which asked

for theories, empirical research and teaching practice. In the assignment, she expanded on 6 theories in 6 sections, and found relevant studies to support the theories. Her use of empirical research was rather condensed, with most of the individual studies concluded within one sentence. In the end, practice was briefly addressed. Fiona also admitted that she did not pay much attention to the practice part, since it was at the end and not much room was left for argument. The feedback pointed to lack of empirical research, and the need for more practice materials. This feedback might have influenced her source use in DS, as she used more empirical research (which was also the requirement for the dissertation genre). Fiona also commented that structuring was much easier for dissertation writing than for T2 assignment, because the dissertation genre has fixed sections.

To sum up, Fiona took on board the available input to develop some aspects of source use. Fiona used consistently high number of sources and high number of links between sources. However, this did not always guarantee an exceptional mark, mainly because of her failure to address all parts of the task in T2. She intended to match reporting verbs with her stance, which however resulted in similar trends in evaluation as her peers.

3. Elsa – a careful reader

Elsa had been a teacher for one year in China before the start of the degree programme. In T1 and T2, she achieved consistent merit marks (T1 CM – 64, T1 additional¹⁰ OM -64, T2 OM - 63), unlike most of the participants who showed considerable increases or decreases in the marks from T1 to T2. Her dissertation mark was higher (72). Interestingly, she was one of the few students who achieved above average marks with a below-average amount of source use. She used fewer sources than the average at all three stages (21 sources in T1, Mean=27.63; 25 sources in T2, M=30.50; 32 sources in DS, M=45.00). This contradiction between a low amount of source use and good marks could be attributed to her careful reading and note-taking of key texts. She reported taking long, detailed notes of each tutor-recommended

¹⁰ “additional” means the module assignment was not included in the text analysis

source to understand the meaning thoroughly. The already paraphrased notes then became useful in writing up. On the other hand, such intensive reading of sources also resulted in over reliance on certain sources, especially at early stages. In T1, 9 instances of extensive citations (consecutive sentences on one single source over 100 words) were found in her text. This issue was pointed out in T1 feedback, and Elsa also gained more understanding about it by visiting the writing centre. Perhaps influenced by such inputs, the number of extensive citations decreased steadily in T2 (5 instances) and DS (3 instances).

Besides relying on key texts, her lack of synthesis on commonality and differences between sources was also prominent. While on average, the participants' use of *group citations* increased from T1 to DS, Elsa's use remained very low throughout (0 instance in T1, 1 in T2, 0 in DS). This could be because of her focus on reading individual sources, and not enough extracting of similar points from several sources. Elsa explained in T2 SSI her difficulty in synthesising various sources, since every author departs from a different angle. Another reason was to show that she had indeed carefully read the sources one by one. This showed her intention to perform as a careful reader in front of the marker, as well as her only partial understanding of source use expectations. On the other hand, Elsa compensated this by using more compare/ contrast (articulating the similarity and differences of two sources - 3 instances in T1, 3 in T2, 9 in T3) towards the later stages. Overall, it can be concluded that Elsa showed improvement in linking sources. However, this was limited to comparing aspects of individual sources, but not generalising a statement from a body of sources.

Elsa's evaluation on sources were more prominent in the T1 and T2 than DS. In both T1 and T2, her uses of positive evaluation were higher than the average, amounting to 8 in T1 (M=4.38) and 11 in T2 (M=5.25). These were consisted of factive reporting verbs (those presenting the content as true) such as 'point out' and 'propose' (K. Hyland, 1999), as well as positive comments, such as 'Author X reveals some crucial problems', 'Y proposed by Author Z is a very useful skill'. Such verbal comments on sources were uncommon among other participants. In contrast, instances of negative evaluation were as rare as the other participants. This showed

her tendency to endorse the cited texts, possibly because of her reliance on tutor recommended key texts. In DS, however, the instances of positive evaluation decreased to 3. There were also far more neutral reporting verbs compared to the first two stages (e.g. 8 instances of ‘according to’ in DS, as compared to 2 instances each in T1 and T2), even when introducing studies that inspired her own research design. Given that stance of reporting verbs was taught in T2 EAP courses, this could indicate attrition of knowledge as time progressed. Another possibility was that the texts were no longer recommended by tutors¹¹, and thus Elsa might be unsure about their authority.

To sum up, Elsa was made aware of her over reliance on sources and improved on this aspect during the year. Her synthesis from a number of sources remained low throughout the year, although she used more meaning connected links and *compare/contrast* towards the end of the year. She generally endorsed the sources’ authority but became more neutral in reporting at DS.

4. Jennifer – struggle for criticality

Jennifer studied Translation as her undergraduate major in China and had no teaching-related work experience before coming to the UK. She achieved a mark of 71 for T1 OM, 68 for T1 additional CM, and 58 for T2 OM. Like Fiona, she was one of the few participants who experienced a considerable drop in mark from T1 to T2. At all stages, her number of sources used was similar to the average (28 sources in T1, M=27.63; 26 in T2, M=30.50; 54 in DS, M=45.00), but on average she mentioned each reference far more frequently than her peers at all three stages (5.2 times in T1, M=2.50; 5.1 in T2, M=2.25; 4.1 in DS, M=2.46). This means that Jennifer made far more use of each source in her texts than her peers, although with a similar number of sources. This sometimes appeared in the text as a tendency to cite more than necessary, i.e. over citation to avoid danger of plagiarism (Davis, 2013; Harwood & Petrić, 2012; Schmitt, 2005), typically when the same source was referenced several

¹¹ For DS, Elsa did not mention any source text recommended by her supervisor, while two other participants supervised by the same supervisor as Elsa’s reported to have been recommended some important sources.

times in the same paragraph. However, Jennifer's over citation here did not seem to indicate problems. None of the feedback entries criticised such use. Nor was Jennifer relying on certain sources, as evidenced by low instances of extensive citations at three stages (0 instance in T1, 2 in T2, 1 in T3).

Jennifer was the only other participant, besides Naomi, that showed a consistent decrease of attribution percentages from T1 to DS. Her use of simple attribution was 69.42% in T1, 58.41% in T2 and 44.21% in LR. Her use of *group citations* (25 in T1, M=5.50; 22 in T2, M=7.00; 48 in DS, M=18.38) was consistently and significantly higher than the average. Jennifer reported to have gained her awareness of having purposes for each citation use from a writing clinic with her EAP tutor (Section 6.2.2). The large amount of *group citations* might also be related to her approach to reading. She started reading with an outline and aspects to look for in mind. She then noted down the references for points she wanted to make, which could be incorporated later into her writing. Interestingly, she did not make any *compare/contrast* in T1 (M=4.00) and T2 (M=2.75), but used some in DS (6 instances, M=9.50). This indicates that Jennifer's use of links were mainly grouping of several sources in brackets and links in meaning of consecutive sentences, but not active comparison of similarities and differences in sources. This was in contrast to Elsa's tendencies above. Perhaps because of the nature of the dissertation genre, she began to employ such use in DS, which was still lower than the average at this stage.

Although having had high marks in T1, Jennifer received feedback on her lack of criticality in both T1 and T2. T1 feedback referred to this as "black and white summaries" while T2 feedback commented "some critical discussion is evident, but much is taken at surface value". T2 feedback then pointed to her use of author prominent citation forms and neutral reporting verbs sometimes replacing her own voice. Indeed, in T2, Jennifer's use of integral citations accounted for 54.0% of all citations, while this was only 36.4% in T1. Jennifer also used predominantly positive evaluation with the use of integral citations. There were 10 instances of positive evaluation in T1 (M=4.38) and 16 instances in T2 (M=5.25), which was far higher than the average. Jennifer commented in the interviews that with most of these reporting verbs, she intended to show agreement with the sources. It was perhaps

because of her tendency to use factive verbs that actually resulted in a loss of evaluation from the marker's view. In DS, Jennifer used less positive evaluation (5 instances), perhaps as a result of T2 feedback. Another noticeable feature was that Jennifer used significantly more direct quotations than the average in T1 (22 quotes, M= 6.88) and T2 (12, M=3.75), but only 1 instance in DS. This shows that Jennifer at first relied on original words but decreased the use throughout the year.

For the big gap between Jennifer's T1 and T2 marks, task requirement and student motivation again seemed to play a role. T1 asked for argumentation of a statement, and T2 asked for discussion of a language feature in naturalistic language use. Jennifer commented that the topic of T2 was more difficult for her, and she was rather confused about the content during the course. She also changed her assignment task from one to another after writing a formative outline in T2, and thus could not benefit much from the formative feedback. Jennifer also reported to have spent far less time in writing in T2 (4 days on reading, 3 days on writing) than in T1 (2 weeks on reading, 1 week on writing), and she went back home in China during T2 assignment time.

To sum up, Jennifer made the most use of each source referenced. This sometimes suggested over citation, but also enabled her to make more links between sources. The issue of using integral forms for replacing writer's voice only became problematic in T2, as this did not appear so prominent in T1. Contradiction was also evident between what the marker perceived of her use of reporting verbs and her own intention. At DS, she adjusted her use of reporting verbs according to T2 feedback. She also reduced her use of direct quotes significantly from T1 to DS.

5. Helena – inconsistent source user

Before the programme, Helena seemed to have received slightly more support from her undergraduate institution in China on academic writing than the other participants, including a dedicated course on thesis writing. She expressed strong motivation to do well on the thesis but did not manage to achieve this in the end. Different from the other participants' vague description of undergraduate thesis writing, Helena remembered being questioned on what theoretical basis the thesis was based upon in the examination process. This tension between theories and original ideas somehow

continued during her MA programme in the UK. In T1 and T2, Helena received two lower pass marks (T1 additional OM – 53, T2 OM -54) and one lower merit mark (T1 CM - 64). In the light of these earlier marks, her dissertation somehow surprisingly achieved a distinction mark of 74. Her number of sources used increased steadily from T1 to DS, similar to the general trend of all participants.

As shown earlier, Helena's use of integral and non-integral citation forms was particularly inconsistent from T1 to DS. She changed from using predominantly integral forms in T1 (81.3% of all citations) to using them rarely in T2 (10.0% of all citations), and then using integral forms more again in DS (32.7%). In the Discourse Based Interviews, she explained that her main perception on the two citation forms was a need to alternate their use. In T2 semi-structured interview on T1 assignment, she reported to be less concerned about the forms, but more with the need to finish the essay. In T2, her contradictory high use of integral forms seemed to be problematic, and perhaps partly explains the low pass mark. For this assignment, most of the sources used were empirical research. Helena's use of predominantly non-integral forms resulted in a sense of representing research findings as uncontested facts and making inappropriate generalisation, which was indicated in the feedback. Interestingly, Helena did not understand the comment at first without my explanation (see Section 6.3.4.1). Because of the limited use of integral forms, she also did not make much evaluation on the sources with the use of reporting verbs (3 instances of evaluation in T1, M= 5.13; 1 instance in T2, M=5.88). In DS, her sudden increase of integral forms perhaps indicates her increased awareness of the rhetorical undertones of these two forms.

In T1 and T2, her use of links between sources overall was rather low among the participants, particularly for the *group citations* category (0 in T1, M=5.50; 2 in T2, M=7.00, 3 in DS, M=18.38). The lack of link between sources in the first two terms were reflected in both term's feedback. T1 feedback referred to this as 'controversial claims...how does X relate to Y discussed earlier?', and T2 feedback referred to this as 'try to work on finding links between points'. The feedback entries here perhaps not only point to the immediate links between two sources, but also links between

bodies of theories and studies. These were perhaps part of the reasons inhibiting Helena from higher marks in the first two terms.

On the other hand, Helena's T1 mark (64) was still much higher than T2 (54) despite a fewer number of sources (20 sources in T1 and 31 in T2). This might be because of the difference in task requirement and Helena's interest in the tasks. T1 assignment asked for analysis of English teaching elements in textbook materials, and therefore a small number of sources with sufficient identification of the teaching elements might well produce a strong assignment. The T2 assignment asked for discussion on the difference between two types of readers, with empirical evidence. This task is likely to require more sources as support in order to reach a conclusion about the statement. Helena also reported that she was more interested in the T1 topic, as she could suggest modification to the teaching materials.

To sum up, Helena's use of integral/non-integral forms see-sawed in the first two terms from one extreme to the other. In T1, the predominant non-integral form became problematic and she was made aware of it. Her use of the forms became more balanced at DS, when she got a much higher mark. She was criticised for not showing links between points discussed in both T1 and T2, but she gained a higher mark in T1 perhaps because of the different task expectation and her interest in the topic.

6. Isabel – seeking simple solutions

Isabel had received support on thesis writing during undergraduate study, which mentioned citation styles and focused much on avoiding plagiarism. She had short intern experience as teaching assistant before coming to the UK. During the MA programme, her marks were relatively low among the participants, and she showed no improvement in terms of marks (45 in T1 OM, 54 in T1 CM, 52 in T2 OM and 42 for DS). For T1 assignment, Isabel admitted having spent only three days on writing it, while the majority of participants reported a minimum of 10 days. She also admitted having only scribbled down the references during writing, and she tried to tidy up the citation formats after finishing the essays. This resulted in frequent mistakes in referencing, which, as indicated by the feedback, partly explained the marginal fail (feedback: "A more careful work with references is necessary to reach a passable standard"). In T2, the issue of citation formats seemed improved, as the feedback

commented “a good attempt to follow the APA referencing style”. Isabel used an increasing number of sources from T1 to DS, from the lowest among the participants (18 sources in T1, M=27.63) to being among the highest in DS (55 sources, M=45.00).

One problem about her source use throughout the year was the unclear boundary between source content and her own comments. This issue was pointed out in T1 feedback, but not in T2 feedback. After knowing about this problem from discussing with a senior PhD student about her T1 assignment writing, Isabel attempted to remedy this problem in T2 by marking the reference at the end of the paragraph, if the whole paragraph was from that source. This resulted in low percentages of integral citations in T2 (12.2%) and DS (10.0%). Isabel explained this in terms of her convenience, that she would not need to think of referencing while writing the paragraph and could have a more fluent flow of thoughts. This indicated her emphasis on writer convenience instead of readability. The act of providing one reference for the whole paragraph also showed her over reliance on sources, which was evident in her 8 instances of extensive citations in T1 and 7 instances in T2. In DS, though, only one instance was found. Relying on single sources in T1 and T2 also limited her synthesis of sources, as will be discussed later on in this case.

Isabel’s knowledge of essential topics in the field was praised in feedback from the first two terms, which actually involved much citing of secondary knowledge. Isabel explained that she structured her writing both according to content covered in the classes’ slides, and according to the organisation of relevant content in a key textbook in the subject field. In fact, after receiving the unsatisfactory mark in T1, she tried to follow the book’s layout even more rigidly in T2. This was because her outline formative task according to this layout had been approved by the tutor, and she did so in order to “feel secure” (T3 SSI). In both assignments, she seemed to sometimes structure sources according to chronological order, but the sequence was also in fact from the book she used as the ‘model’. While different sources were acknowledged for various points, they could have been from the same ‘mother’ source. This was, unfortunately, unrecognisable from the text alone.

Though having basic knowledge of key topics, Isabel's main problem lay in a lack of analysis, which was evident in both T1 and T2 and limited her mark. T1 feedback commented: "the arguments lack perspective and sophistication... (you need to) Demonstrate a deeper level of analysis, evaluate, compare, explore limits of imported ideas", while T2 feedback wrote "most of your discussion is stated, rather than argued". Isabel also acknowledged this weakness in the interviews and described it as a problem she already knew about when she was in China. It also seemed that, although Isabel knew about the problem before and after the start of the degree, she did not really have the means to improve the situation. In fact, her lack of analysis could also be reflected in her limited use of links between sources. Noticeably, Isabel was the only student who employed no instance of *compare/contrast* function in any of the stages. The instances of *group citations* were also low in the first two terms (2 in T1, M=5.50; 4 in T2, M=7.00), but far higher in DS (33 instances, M=18.38). As shown in the interviews, however, the increased amount of synthesis in DS did not necessarily indicate her greater ability to synthesise points, as she again picked up one source from another - one of the authors in the brackets often had cited another one. Again, lack of signalling secondary sources was an issue here. What improved, was perhaps only the knowledge that listing several authors is desirable. This however, was not necessarily the case for the literature review genre where some in-depth knowledge of individual studies is required (see Section 7.6.3). As another aspect contributing to analysis, Isabel's use of positive evaluation on sources was also rather low at all three stages (0 in T1, 2 in T2, and 0 in DS), but her negative evaluation was higher than average in T1 and T2 (3 instances each). This suggests that being able to critique sources for their limitations not necessarily enhances the quality of coursework, if other aspects of rhetorical use are not fulfilled – sufficient understanding of each source and connecting various sources.

To sum up, Isabel's source use and academic writing in general were among the more problematic ones in the group. She struggled with referencing style in T1, perhaps because of her limited time devoted to writing. She showed improvement on this aspect in later stages. For other problems, she seems to have opted for easy solutions to 'fix them up'. She put citations at the end of paragraphs to avoid distinguishing between her ideas and other sources. She boosted her number of

synthesis and number of sources in DS, which were often picked out from the same source.

Abbreviations

APA: American Psychological Association (referencing style)

CM: Core Module

DBI: Discourse-based Interview

DEL: Departmental English Language

DS: Dissertation Stage

EAP: English for Academic Purposes

LR: Literature Review

MA: Master of Arts

OM: Optional Module

PG: postgraduate

QS: Qingyang Sun (researcher)

SSI: Semi-structured Interview

T1/ T2/ T3: Term 1/ Term 2/ Term 3

TESOL: Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

UG: undergraduate

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