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Trabajo Final de Tesis

**La atribución de fuentes en la escritura académica de
alumnos de grado: relevamiento de estrategias.**

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ABSTRACT

Academic writing has its own conventions and patterns which make it different from other types of writing. Composing academic essays and papers poses difficulties to students who need specific instruction to acquire the rules on which different academic discourses are built. Every discipline has its own mechanisms that imply specific discourse strategies that function as models. According to Swales (1990) academic writing implies knowledge of the discipline's conventions. These conventions and discourse strategies will be present in the students' texts as essential elements in their future professional writing demands and should be acquired during their undergraduate years.

This work explores key attribution strategies required in advanced EFL university student compositions and analyzes to what extent a group of learners at the National University of Córdoba (UNC) in Argentina use them in writing their own texts and to what degree they acknowledge and incorporate secondary sources in their works. The students were asked to write an assignment in class, as part of the requirements for the Language V writing project. Four basic linguistic resources of secondary source use were analyzed – citation, paraphrasing, quotation format, and the use of reporting verbs. The findings offer insights into student practices and suggest the need for greater and continuous pedagogical support to enable students to achieve competence in secondary source use.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background and delimitation of problem

The English Language syllabi for the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Teacher Training, Translation and Research programs offered at the Faculty of Languages at the National University of Córdoba (UNC), do not include in their writing section, as a specific objective, the explicit and formal instruction and practice of strategies to allow the undergraduate students, as writers of a foreign language, discipline-appropriate source use.

Relevant research (Howard, 1993; Pecorari, 2003; Shi, 2010; Thompson, 2005) in the field of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) points to the fact that many students may resort to inappropriate attribution because they are not yet able to use their own voice to express their ideas; that voice could be in a developmental stage even in advanced university students. Some researchers (Carroll, 2004; Howard, 1995, 1999) agree that learners may feel intimidated by the task at hand, lose confidence and then resort to cutting and pasting the text of others. According to Carroll (2004) there may be another cause for inappropriate attribution such as ignorance of the academic conventions regarding source use. Howard (1995, 1999) argues that the key difference lies in the students' intention. Further, she wonders: "If it was not intentional...was it engendered by ignorance of citation conventions? By a monologic encounter with unfamiliar words and concepts?" (p.797).

Other authors (Carroll, 2004; Davis, 2013) contend that problematic attribution may be due to lack of specific instruction on citation skills. Therefore, many causes may interrelate and produce inappropriate textual borrowing, with or without the intention of committing a violation to the norms of academic writing.

On the other hand, researchers are aware of the complex causes of text misappropriation. Carroll (2004) warns against the rise in the inappropriate borrowing of sources among learners and suggests a distinction between students' behavior that may be considered inappropriate in academic writing: first, the deliberate act of breaking the rules; that is, an intentional transgression or fraud (Howard 1993, as cited in Carroll 2004) and second, the unintentional violations that often take place when students are exposed to a series of unknown academic conventions without the necessary instruction.

Some recent English for Academic Purposes (EAP) research (Abasi & Graves, 2008; Flowerdew & Li 2007; Shi, 2010; Sutherland-Smith, 2005) addresses the problems that both international undergraduate and graduate students, mainly Asian, more specifically Chinese citizens, face when dealing with notions not familiar to them, not only linguistic but also cultural. Some studies (Abasi & Graves, 2008; Flowerdew & Li, 2007; Shi, 2010; Sutherland-Smith, 2005) explore the issue of international students from the perspective of their cultural problems. Those learners face unknown concepts, such as intellectual ownership and authorship. Other authors (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Bloch & Chi 1995; Pecorari, 2003; Pecorari, 2008; Shi, 2004) analyze and discuss the linguistic problems that some EFL speakers have to deal with when they need to reformulate the language from their sources into their own words, especially those undergraduates who are less proficient in the foreign language.

Researchers such as Angélica-Carter, 2000; Howard, 1995; Pecorari, 2003; and Pennycook, 1996 carried out studies focusing on students' textual misappropriation. All of them analyzed L2 speakers' contexts, therefore, their findings are also significant to EFL settings. It is relevant to mention at this point that after having done some bibliographical reviews on textual misappropriation, there exist no local publications in the field of undergraduate foreign language teaching in Argentina.

There is growing consensus among researchers that the practice of inappropriate source borrowing affects students in different educational contexts worldwide and is also prevalent in Latin American universities where it has rarely been researched. There have been some recent publications in Spain, Mexico, Chile, Brazil and in Argentina where Bordignon et. al. (2005) carried out studies on academic plagiarism detection systems. These publications, however, were written in Spanish and Portuguese, and mainly examined the undergraduate students training in different disciplines, but none of these studies has explored undergraduate EFL textual borrowing at an Argentinian university.

Since many of the students enrolled in English Language V practice inappropriate textual borrowing when they try to integrate others' texts into their own research papers or essays, an exploratory study was needed to examine the learners' source use strategies in the most advanced undergraduate language proficiency level.

1.2 Hypothesis

These findings together with the fact that little research has been carried out to find solutions to inappropriate textual borrowing in the context of EFL learners in a Spanish speaking setting led the teacher-researcher to conduct this study based on the following hypothesis:

Appropriate source use for English Language V undergraduates is problematic, especially when the students paraphrase and quote from secondary sources. This may be due to lack of understanding of academic conventions regarding attribution.

1.3 Research Questions

The researcher is interested in exploring the following questions:

- 1) In what ways do EFL undergraduate writers use strategies to attribute authorship to source texts in their writing tasks?
- 2) What are their perspectives and their knowledge regarding the use of such strategies?

1.4 Objectives

1.4.1 General Objective

The general objective of the study is to explore and describe attribution strategies used by EFL undergraduates with an advanced language proficiency level.

1.4.2 Specific Objectives

- Analyze source use in the academic writing of undergraduate students enrolled in the English Language V class, for the EFL Teacher Training, Translation and Research programs

- Code the strategies the students adopted on the basis of the different categories found
- Explore students' perceptions on textual borrowing by means of questionnaires

Guided by the hypothesis, then, this exploratory study aims at analyzing and describing the strategies used by the students in the Language V class so as to provide a body of data that could inform future pedagogical decisions. This study will focus on textual borrowing by undergraduate students, in terms of paraphrasing, citation, quotation, and use of reporting verbs. No instruction will be involved.

1.5 Chapters' organization and content

This work is organized in five chapters. Chapter one introduces the problem which led the researcher to conduct the study, provides an overview of the situation at university level in Argentina and other Latin American countries and presents the hypothesis and the objectives that will guide the investigation. The aim of chapter two is to introduce the theoretical framework that supports the research. It outlines some basic features of academic writing and then discusses some L2 and EFL writing approaches and their evolution. It also reviews source use research and includes some key concepts related to the strategies under study, i.e. citation, paraphrasing, quotation and use of reporting verbs. Chapter three presents a detailed description of the methodology applied for data collection and data analysis; it also describes the coding system, the participants and the materials used. The description of the findings resulting from analysis of the students' texts is included and also the discussion and interpretation of the results are included in chapter four. The study's applications, limitations, pedagogical implications, and possible future lines of research are presented in chapter five. This last chapter also reviews the hypotheses and the objectives that triggered this study and develops the conclusions reached after the analysis of the findings.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of research, which constitutes the basis for the study is presented in chapter two. It is relevant to mention at this point that this exploratory study is grounded in the field of English for Academic Purposes and in genre-based pedagogy in particular. The purpose of the chapter, therefore, is the analysis of the theoretical framework, namely, of the main linguistic approaches to L2 and EFL teaching of writing, and a review of the literature related to the topic. The following sections, then, introduce a general theoretical background on writing instruction, examine its developments and discuss the philosophies underlying its approaches. In addition, the chapter provides an analysis of source use in relation to the students' work and explores relevant concepts such as academic literacy, discourse community, intertextuality, citation, paraphrasing and quotation.

2.1 Introduction

Since one of the objectives of this study is source use analysis in EFL students' academic writing, it is relevant to provide, in the following sections, a theoretical background on EAP and its evolution, and a review of some of the key concepts that were essential to the development of the research.

Academic literacy is analyzed as the knowledge the students need to acquire for academic success and as an ability that is not naturally acquired but has to be learned by formal instruction. The importance of the roles the students will play as future participants in their discourse communities is discussed and the role of teachers is explored since it is them who will help students to become members of those communities by passing on the specialized discourse competence. The following sections describe product and process approaches, their evolution and their contributions to the teaching of writing classes today. After that, genre-based pedagogy is described as the approach that has the potential to make students aware of the social function of language to produce texts. This section, then, emphasizes how the conventions regarding grammar, organization and content, generic structure, discourse features and proper terminology are needed to achieve academic success. The last sections provide some definitions in relation to intertextuality, source use,

citation, paraphrasing, quotation and use of reporting verbs and also cover a review of the literature concerning those strategies.

2.2 Academic Writing

English for Academic Purposes (EAP) evolved from a branch of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). The term EAP was first used by Tim Johns in 1974 and was later included in some work edited by Cowie and Heaton in 1977 (as cited in Jordan 2002). EAP was already established as one of the main branches of ESP in 1980 when the journal *English for Specific Purposes* was first published. Nowadays EAP is a major force in English language teaching and research around the world. It is considered a practical response to the needs of particular groups of students and at the same time covers many areas of communicative practice from classroom interaction to student writing and research genres. A definition included in the editorial of the inaugural issue of the *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* states that EAP refers to language research and instruction that focuses on the needs of students in academic contexts (Bruce, 2013) and it means grounding instruction in an understanding of the cognitive, social and linguistic demands of specific academic disciplines (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). For Scott (2001), on the other hand, EAP focuses on promoting the students' learning on courses within higher education institutions. It is aimed at equipping learners with the necessary communicative skills, in order to participate in academic settings. In addition Hyland & Hamp-Lyons (2002) argue: "the modern-day field of EAP draws on a range of interdisciplinary influences for its research methods, theories and practices and seeks to provide insights into the structures and meanings of academic texts" (p.2).

EAP is often defined as the learning and teaching of the language for study or educational purposes. Therefore, in recent years EAP has become the "academic 'home' of scholars whose focus is wholly on academic contexts" (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002:3). Further, Swales provides a definition related to EAP's aims. He concludes that EAP "seeks to help people, both non-native and native speakers to develop their academic communicative competence so that they can function effectively in their chosen disciplines" (Swales, 1990:9). Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002:3) also provide the

following definition: “EAP is characterized by the same emphasis on strong interdisciplinary research as ESP, and it has also followed the same clear commitments to linguistic analysis, to contextual relevance, and to the classroom replication of community-specific communicative events.”

2.2.1 Academic literacy

Learning to read and write in the EFL context is one of the challenges students face and with which they need ongoing assistance and appropriate support. Introducing students to the academic community, familiarizing them with academic discourse and further helping them to complete their writing tasks are, then, of vital importance.

Recently, the term “academic literacy” has been applied to the complex set of skills, not only those relating to the mastery of reading and writing, as it was traditionally conceived, but to those which are increasingly argued to be underpinnings or cultural knowledge required for success in academic communities. EAP and ESP practitioners emphasize needs analysis as a systematic way of identifying the specific sets of skills, texts, linguistic forms and communicative practices that a particular group of learners must acquire (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998).

Authors such as Silva (1990) argue that academic literacy means having “clear and stable views of what is appropriate in a specific academic context” (p.17). And for Bennet (2009) academic literacy implies developing schemata for academic discourse; using the technical language of the discipline, as well as coherence and cohesive devices to unfold the writer’s argumentation. The complexity of academic writing is claimed by several scholars (Thompson, 2001; Berman & Cheng, 2001; Bennet, 2009), who suggest that the ability to write well at academic level is not naturally acquired and it can only be learned by means of formal instruction (Myles, 2002).

In addition, Zamel and Spack argue that, “it is no longer possible to assume that there is one type of literacy in the academy” (Zamel & Spack, 1998, as quoted in Paltridge, 2004) and that “there is one ‘culture’ in the university whose norms and practices simply have to be learnt in order for our students to have access to academic institutions.” Johns (1997) and Canagarajah (2002) recognize the difficulty it presents for students by

suggesting that they are trained to 'act as researchers' (Johns, 1997) as a way of helping them write texts that consider the institutional and audience expectations of their particular fields of study. Students can be trained, they argue, to unpack the knowledge and skills that are necessary for membership of their particular academic community. Learners should be given, then, the skills to ask questions of the texts they are required to produce, of the context the texts are located in, and the people who will be reading (and evaluating) their texts (Paltridge, 2004).

2.2.2 Discourse Community

Hyland & Hamp-Lyons (2002) point out that the notion of community is central to EAP and its understanding of the ways individuals acquire and resort to the specialized discourse competencies that allow them to legitimate their professional identities and to participate as group members. The concept of discourse community is an important organizing principle in EAP: it sets a research agenda focused on revealing the genres and communicative conventions of academic disciplines, and a pedagogic agenda focused on using this knowledge to assist learners to critique and participate in such communities. In the concept of discourse community as understood by Swales (1990) its members “are recruited by persuasion, training or relevant qualification” and those “who operate professionally within it will obtain great experience with specific genres” (p.24), Swales, then, is implicitly stressing the need to share the conventions to function within the community and become a member.

Further, Hyland & Hamp-Lyons (2002) ask if teachers should conceive their role as developing students' academic literacy skills to facilitate their effective participation in academic communities and claim that the EAP agenda “has always been to provide learners with control over the resources that might enhance their career opportunities” (p. 9). For Hyland (2014) language is only effective when individuals use conventions that other community members find familiar and convincing and those communities provide the context within which students learn to communicate and to interpret each other's talk, gradually acquiring the specialized discourse competencies to participate.

2.3 Approaches to teaching L2 and EFL writing

2.3.1 The product approach

From the 1940s to the 1960s product approaches monopolized writing instruction. They focused on the finished product and textual form. Texts formal properties were emphasized over the writers' cognitive processes and on how they addressed a particular audience and fulfilled a specific communicative purpose. These form-focused approaches theoretical framework was rooted in the audio-lingual method, structural linguistics, and behaviorism, which considered language learning as imitation, repetition and systematic habit formation.

These early approaches to the teaching of writing were based on the notion of controlled or guided composition. Writing tended to be defined in linear and mechanical terms neglecting questions dealing with why and for whom students were writing. As a result, writing was conceived as a mechanical skill or the mastery of correct grammatical and rhetorical structures by passive writers. They mostly stressed the accuracy of textual forms and mechanisms to encode surface features of texts such as spelling and punctuation.

2.3.2 The process approach

In the 1950s and early 1960s the primary focus of language teaching was speech, and writing was seen as a sub skill for developing speech through mastery of language forms (Raimes, 1983). The controlled- to- free approach emphasized accuracy of writing over fluency and students were required to implement writing as a means to practice sentence patterns and vocabulary. In the freewriting approach quantity and fluency were stressed rather than quality and accuracy. It was based on the principle that once ideas are there, the organization follows (Raimes, 1983). In all the traditional approaches, grammar, syntax, and mechanics are mostly stressed over context, process, audience and purpose of writing. In relation to written production, Paltridge (2004) poses that earliest work in the teaching of writing was based on the notion of controlled, or guided, composition. This was the predominant approach from the mid 1940s to the mid 1960s. In the mid 1960s,

however, there was growing consensus that controlled composition had to give way to different approaches and that later led to a focus on ‘rhetorical functions’ which took textual manipulation beyond the sentence level to the discourse level, and focused on teaching types of texts such as descriptions, narratives, definitions, exemplification, classification, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, and generalizations.

The process approach, which became prominent in English-speaking composition classrooms during the 1980s as the result of extensive research on first-language writing, entered the classroom as the ‘process movement’: a concentration on personal writing, student creativity, and fluency (Zamel 1982, cited in Reid, 2001) which mirrored a similar development in first language writing instruction. In process writing how the learners write, in stages, rather than what they have written is emphasized. Followers of process writing believe that “there will never be the perfect text, but through producing, reflecting on, discussing and reworking successive drafts of a text, the writer can get closer to perfection” (Nunan, 1999: 34). Attention shifted, then, to the writer as language learner and creator of texts and displayed a new range of classroom tasks characterized by the use of journals, invention, peer collaboration, revision, and attention to content before form (Raimes, 1991). Process approach researchers explored writing behaviors, by focusing on studying and understanding the process of composing (Zamel, 1983). On the other hand, Flower and Hayes (1981) established the model of writing processes: planning, writing, and reviewing. These processes are recursive and interactive, and these mental acts can be reviewed, evaluated, and revised, even before any text has been produced at all. For Hyland (2003) response is crucial in assisting learners to move through the stages of the writing process, and various means of providing feedback are used, including teacher-student conferences, peer response, and reformulation.

Hyland (2003) states that process theories have been extremely influential in the evolution of L2 writing instruction and have served to instill greater respect for individual writers and the writing process itself. Proponents borrowed the techniques and theories of cognitive psychology and L1 composition to refine the ways writing is understood and taught. Process, as an approach to teaching, is a term which embraces a range of orientations and practices and should not be considered a single approach. Further, this model views writing as a “non-linear, exploratory, and generative process whereby writers

discover and reformulate their ideas as they attempt to approximate meaning’’ (Zamel, 1983, p.165). It seeks to construct cognitive models of what writers do when they write, emphasizing the complexity of planning and the influence of task. Writing in this view, then, is essentially learnt, not taught, and the teacher’s role is non-directive and facilitating, assisting writers to express their own meanings through an encouraging and co-operative environment with minimal interference. For Hyland (2003):

Process approaches have had a major impact on the ways writing is both understood and taught, transforming narrowly-conceived product models and raising awareness of how complex writing actually is. Few teachers now see writing as an exercise in formal accuracy, and most set pre-writing activities, require multiple drafts, give extensive feedback, encourage peer review, and delay surface correction (p. 19)

Progressive pedagogies have contributed to the teaching of writing by moving instructors away from grammar practice and authoritarian teaching roles to facilitate more equal, respectful and interactive relationships in settings that value reflection and negotiation.

2.3.3 Criticism to the process approach

Process writing has its drawbacks, too (Bazerman, 1980). The disadvantages of process approaches are, among others, that they often regard all writing as being produced by the same set of processes both in L1 and L2; they do not draw attention to the kind of texts writers produce and why such texts are produced; and they offer learners insufficient input, particularly, in terms of linguistic knowledge, to write successfully (Badger & White, 2000). Horowitz (1986) also raises cautions about the process approach saying that it fails to prepare students for at least one essential type of academic writing in particular settings, that overuse of peer evaluation may leave students with an unrealistic view of their abilities, and that the process-oriented approach gives students a false impression of how university writing will be evaluated. For Paltridge (2004) the process approach was not, however, universally accepted by teachers and he argued that it did not address issues such as the requirements of particular writing tasks, the development of schemata for producing written discourse, and variation in individual writing situations.

For Hyland (2003) there is little evidence that these processes actually lead to significantly better writing in L2 contexts and argues that the approach lacks a well-formulated theory of how language works in human interaction, therefore process represents writing as “a decontextualised skill by foregrounding the writer as an isolated individual struggling to express personal meanings” (p. 20). Basically, the writer needs to draw on general principles of thinking and composing to formulate and express his or her ideas. However, there is little systematic understanding of the ways language is patterned in particular domains. According to Cope & Kalantzis (1993) process models “cast teachers in the role of well meaning bystanders” and argue that this is a model of learning based on individual motivation, personal freedom, self-expression and learner responsibility. For them these methods “require little of the teacher because they rely on an intuitive understanding of language use, so his or her involvement is reduced to developing students’ metacognitive awareness of their writing processes and responding to writing” (p.68).

In addition Macken-Horarik (2002) claims that in the process approaches language and rhetorical organization are left to the end of the process as “editing,” rather than the central resources for constructing meanings, and then students are unable to perceive how different texts are codified in distinct and recognizable ways in terms of their purpose, audience and message.

Ramanathan and Atkinson (1999) point to the role that hidden mainstream United States values play in process methods. Key principles which originated in L1 classrooms such as personal voice, peer review, critical thinking, and textual ownership tacitly incorporate an ideology of individualism which L2 learners may have serious trouble accessing, and may not always recognize or accept.

Another point to be made about process models of learning, this time coming from systemic functionalists, concerns their lack of engagement with the socio-political realities of students’ everyday lives and target situations. In process methodologies personal growth and self-actualization are core learning principles, as writers develop confidence and self awareness in the process of reflecting on their ideas and their writing. It offers, however, few resources to participate in, understand, or challenge valued discourses (e.g., Hasan, 1996; Martin, 1993).

Hammond and Macken-Horarik (1999), on the other hand, argue that an effective critical literacy in English must presuppose control of mainstream literacy practices. Process models, however, fail to introduce students to the cultural and linguistic resources necessary for them to engage critically with texts. Social theorists (Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1987) argue that because process approaches emphasize individual cognition at the expense of language use, they fail to offer any clear standpoint on the social nature of writing.

2.3.4 The Genre approach

The genre approach to teaching writing has taken place in different ways in different parts of the world. It has also had different underlying goals as well as focus on different teaching situations.

In Britain and the United States, for example, teachers have been mostly concerned with teaching international students in English medium universities. Genre-based classrooms in Australia, on the other hand, have had a rather different ideological focus. This, in part, draws from the underlying concern in Australian genre work with empowering underprivileged members of the community and providing them with necessary resources for success.

The genre-based approach has been a widely used alternative in the field of EAP since it enables beginners to familiarize themselves with the genre (Hyland, 2003; Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2002; Paltridge, 2001). Current studies (Tardy, 2006) on a genre-based approach in the instructional context for undergraduates, where English is taken as a second or foreign language, have reached interesting conclusions on the efficacy of its various applications.

According to Hayes, “Writing is also social because it is a social artifact and is carried out in a social setting. What we write, how we write and who we write to is shaped by social convention and...social interaction” (2002, p.19). For Vygotsky (as cited in Hayes 2002), the focus is on social environment and cooperative learning. Vygotsky, a sociocognitivist, believed that learning first occurs at the social level and he emphasized the role of social interactions as being crucial to cognitive development (as cited in Kearsely

2002). In Vygotsky's theory interaction between a novice and an expert is highlighted and is a direction for developing to a higher level of competency. Both individual and social factors have a crucial role in the theory. As Hughes (as quoted in Paltridge, 2004) claims, children learn best "when they have the guidance, learning environment, intellectual and emotional support created by an adult or mentor figure" (p.17). Therefore, the teacher as a facilitator and mediator offers guidance and supervision in assisting students to engage in the production process and so the learners' current skills and knowledge can be extended to a higher competence level in the context of a scaffolded learning situation.

According to Johns (2002), texts serve the function of genre models for writers, therefore they provide students with the work of professional writers which students then analyze and imitate. Thus, studies (Gentil, 2005; Palmquist, 2005; Tardy, 2006) indicate that interaction with texts is significant in conscious genre learning for L1 and L2 undergraduate and graduate students. Research suggests that textual models benefit three aspects of students' writing: rhetoric, structural organization and terminology acquisition. Textual models initiate students into the rhetorical norms of academic discourse and introduce them to its vocabulary. That is, students borrow discourse or imitate expressions found in published writing. In terms of structural organization and terminology acquisition, textual models allow students to build the generic structure of a text (Paltridge, 2004). Specific texts related to students' topics help students to acquire terminology in their fields.

The genre approach to teaching writing focuses, as the terms suggests, on teaching particular genres that students need control of in order to succeed in particular settings. This might include a focus on language and discourse features of the texts, as well as the context in which the text is produced. The view of language that underlies a genre-based approach is that language is functional; that is, it is through language that we 'get things done' and we achieve certain goals. Another aspect of this view is the position that language occurs in particular cultural and social contexts and can only be understood in relation to these contexts.

Speakers and writers, thus, use particular genres in order to fulfil certain social functions and to achieve certain goals within particular social and cultural contexts. Language, then, in a genre perspective, is both purposeful and inseparable from the social and cultural context in which it occurs. The goals and objectives of the genre-based

approach are to enable learners to use genres which are important for them to be able to participate in, and have access to. Genre approaches focus on the conventions that a piece of writing needs to follow in order to be successfully accepted by its readership (Muncie, 2002).

Genre instruction has emerged as both a set of pedagogies rooted in linguistic theory and a critical response to some of the tenets of whole language instruction (Hicks, 1997). Generally, the philosophy of the genre approach is that all texts conform to certain conventions, and that if a student is to be successful in joining a particular English language discourse community, the student will need to be able to produce texts which fulfill the expectations of its readers in regards to grammar, organization, and content (Muncie, 2002). A genre-based syllabus will, then, be made up of a list of genres learners need to acquire, including relevant discourse and language level features and contextual information in relation to them.

Traditionally, genres were seen as fixed and classifiable into neat and mutually exclusive categories and subcategories. For example, exposition, argument, description, and narratives were treated as the large categories, with sub-types such as the business letter and the lab report (Freedman & Medway, 1994). Thus, in the traditional view of genres, teaching genres means teaching textual regularities in form and content of each genre.

This traditional view, however, has been criticized and recently the notion of genre has been reconceived. As Hicks (1997) indicates, genre theory calls for a return to grammar instruction, but grammar instruction at the level of text, where personal intentions are filtered through the typical rhetorical forms available to accomplish particular social purposes. In other words, the central belief is that “we don’t just *write*, we write *something* to achieve some *purpose*” (Hyland, 2003, p. 18). Most simply, reflecting Halliday’s concern for linking form, function, and social context, Martin and other systemic functionalists (1992) define genre as a goal-oriented, staged social process. Genres are social processes because members of a culture interact to achieve them; they are goal-oriented because they have evolved to achieve things; and staged because meanings are made in steps and it usually takes writers more than one step to reach their goals (Richardson, 1994).

The genre approach acknowledges that writing takes place in a social situation and is a reflection of a particular purpose, and it understands that learning can happen consciously through imitation and analysis (Badger & White, 2000). As Bhatia (1993) suggested, it is important for writing teachers to connect these two elements in order to help students understand how and why linguistic conventions are used for particular rhetorical effects. Moreover, because genres reflect a cultural ideology, the study of genres additionally opens for students an awareness of the assumption of groups which use specific genres for specific ends, allowing students to critique not only the types of knowledge they learn, but also the ways in which knowledge is valued and in which it reflects covert assumptions (Coe, 1994).

From a genre perspective, on the other hand, people do not just write, they write to accomplish different purposes in different contexts and this involves variation in the ways they use language (Halliday, 1994). They reveal why they make certain linguistic and rhetorical choices and they allow teachers to confidently advise students on their writing. In genre-pedagogies students are given explicit teaching in the structure of target text types. From a social perspective, a writer's choices are always context-dependent, motivated by variations in social activity, in writer-reader relations, and by constraints on the progress of the interaction. It is necessary to explore ways of scaffolding students' learning and using knowledge of language to guide them towards a conscious understanding of target genres and the ways language creates meanings in context. As such, genre approaches represent the most theoretically developed response to process approaches.

2.3.5 History of the genre approach evolution

As Hyon pointed out (1996), there are three acknowledged theories and research paths in genre studies, representing different views and pedagogical goals, and there continue to be tensions among them (Johns, 2011; Tardy, 2011). In an effort to counteract this tension, some experts have been working towards theory, research, and pedagogical convergences (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2011; Flowerdew, 2011; Johns, 2002; Swales, 2009).

Three broad, overlapping schools of genre theory (Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2002) can be identified. While these approaches are united by a common attempt to describe and explain

regularities of purpose, form, and situated social action, they differ in the emphasis they give to text or context, the research methods they employ, and the types of pedagogies they encourage (Hyland, 2002a).

The ESP approach sees genre as a class of structured communicative events employed by specific discourse communities whose members share broad social purposes (Swales, 1990). These purposes are the rationale of a genre and help to shape the ways it is structured and the choices of content and style it makes available (Johns, 1997). ESP genre theorists, however, have been engaged with issues of L2 teaching, and attempted to provide students with knowledge of relevant genres so they can produce effectively in their target contexts.

ESP genre approaches have been influential on L2 writing instruction worldwide, grounding teaching in a solid research base and drawing on a group of pedagogies and linguistic theories.

The New Rhetoric approach, on the other hand, influenced by poststructuralism, rhetoric and first language composition, studies genre “as the motivated, functional relationship between text type and rhetorical situation” (Coe, 2002, p. 195). The focus here is mainly on the rhetorical contexts in which genres are employed rather than detailed analyses of text elements (e.g., Freedman & Medway, 1994). New Rhetoric, with its emphasis on the socially constructed nature of genre, has helped explained some of the complex relations between text and context and the ways that one reshapes the other. Its contribution to L2 writing instruction, however, has been minimal.

A third orientation is based on Halliday’s (1994) Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). Known in the United States as the “Sydney School” (e.g., Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2002), this model of genre stresses the purposeful, interactive, and sequential character of different genres and the ways language is systematically linked to context through patterns of lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features (Christie & Martin, 1997). SFL perhaps offers the most theoretically sophisticated and pedagogically developed approach of the three, underpinned by a highly evolved and insightful theory of language and motivated by a commitment to language and literacy education. Basically, Halliday’s theory systematically links language to its contexts of use, studying how language varies from one context to another and, within that variation, the underlying patterns which organize texts so they are

culturally and socially recognized as performing particular functions. The exploration and description of these patterns and their variations has been the focus of genre theory and the resources it exploits to provide disadvantaged learners with access to the cultural capital of socially valued genres.

In SFL approaches the teaching–learning process is typically seen as a cycle which takes writers through modelling, joint negotiation, and independent construction, allowing students different points of entry and enabling teachers to systematically expand the meanings students can create (e.g., Feez, 2002). This model represents a “visible pedagogy” in which what is to be learned and assessed is made clear to students, as opposed to the invisible pedagogy of process approaches.

2.3.6 Criticism to the genre approach

However, an argument has been raised that teaching students’ genres would produce teaching arbitrary models and textual organization with little connection to a student’s learning purposes (Freedman, 1983). Sometimes, misunderstanding of the meaning of “explicit” teaching caused this argument to arise. This means that, according to Gibbons (2002), students are encouraged to reflect on how language is used for a range of purposes and with a range of audiences, and that teachers focus explicitly on these aspects of language. Another limitation of genre approaches that has been addressed is about the students’ role in this approach. As Badger and White (2000) point out, the negative aspect of genre approaches is that they undervalue skills needed to produce a text, and see learners as largely passive.

Although these three orientations – textual features or product approach, cognitive processes or process approach and social context or genre pedagogy – arise from different theoretical bases and are often seen as incompatible, they are widely represented in current teaching practices and are essential in an EFL teaching context.

Having provided an overview of key concepts on writing instruction and of the main EAP approaches it is necessary at this point to move into more specific aspects of source use such as intertextuality and its relevance for EAP.

2.3.7 Intertextuality and source use

Over the past decade writing from sources has received considerable attention in the EAP literature on L2 writing (Abasi & Graves, 2008; Angéllil-Carter, 2000; Flowerdew & Li, 2007; Shi, 2010). In contrast, EFL student writers' use of sources has received less attention. Much of the existing research on EFL intertextuality (Davis, 2013; Pecorari, 2003, 2006; Pecorari & Shaw, 2012; Petrić, 2012; Petrić & Hardwood, 2013; Sutherland-Smith, 2005) has focused on postgraduate students living abroad, also called international students.

Pecorari and Shaw (2012) state that “a large body of research (Pecorari, 2008a; Roig, 1997; Shi, 2004) has established that novice academic writers experience difficulty in using sources in ways which comply with the demands of their discourse communities,” and hypothesize that it may be due in large part “to their being required to use unfamiliar language skills, in many cases because the language of study is a second or foreign language, and in most cases because academic register is new to them” (p.149).

In addition and drawing on Pecorari's and Shaw's words Hyland (2000) argues:

Learning to write academic genres... does, of course, involve students contending with issues of form and structure, and with public contexts for writing. To be successful, however, it must also involve them in acquiring a metacognitive awareness of these forms and contexts and a familiarity with the discursal strategies they need to perform roles, engage in interactions, and accomplish goals in the target community. In sum, it requires that students gain an awareness of the discipline's symbolic resources for getting things done by routinely connecting purposes with features of texts. (p. 145)

Pecorari (2006) agrees on Hyland's notion of academic success and adds that “learning to write entails becoming an individual sufficiently versed in the ways of the academic community to understand what makes a text appropriate.” She notes that “learning to write appropriate texts is, therefore, an essential component of academic success. What constitutes an appropriate text, however, is determined not only by general standards of good writing, but by the specific demands and constraints of the writer's disciplinary community” (p.5).

Shaw and Pecorari (2012) also make reference to academic success and state that “intertextual relations – building on previous work – form a key element in the academic

enterprise, and appropriate intertextuality is an index of successful academic achievement for students. It is a useful index because if intertextuality is appropriate it is likely that learning goals in other areas have been achieved – the intertextuality practices of academic writing are hard to learn” (p.A1).

For Pecorari and Shaw (2012) “intertextuality is a prominent feature of academic writing, and the ability to use sources effectively and appropriately is an essential skill which novice writers must acquire. It is also a complex skill, and student performance is not always successful” (p.149). They add that “despite the risks associated with misusing sources, simply avoiding using sources at all is not an option for novice academic writers. It is in the nature of academic texts that they are steeped in intertextuality,” and claim that “the fact that there *exist* sources for virtually all academic texts stems from the nature of scholarly activity. It is incremental, and new work is not produced in a vacuum, it builds on existing work” (p.150). Finally they argue that “intertextuality is thus an unavoidable, and unavoidably complex, aspect of academic writing. Students need guidance, and such guidance must be based on an understanding of the borders between legitimate and illegitimate types of intertextuality” (p.150).

Intertextuality—the relationship between two or more texts—plays, then, an important role in academic writing. Specifically, citation is one of the tools writers can use to frame questions, support answers, and establish a niche in the existing research (Swales, 1990).

As previously stated this study will focus on the textual borrowing strategies developed by undergraduate EFL students, in terms of source use. Some influential published work in these four areas will be reviewed in the following section for definitions and grounding before exploring them in more depth in chapter three.

2.3.8 Citation

According to Swales (2014):

Citation is the most overt and most immediately obvious indication that a text is indeed academic...citing permits an author to introduce and discuss the contributions of other researchers, and through such knowledge displays of previous literatures he or she can establish membership in the relevant disciplinary community (p.119).

As illustrated by the previous quote, Swales (2014), and many other researchers such as Polio and Shi (2012), consider that the ability to incorporate outside texts into one's own writing is an essential academic skill. Most researchers recognize the difficulty in determining the complex issues involved in using outside texts such as what and who to cite, why to cite, how to cite, and even when not to cite at all. According to Thompson and Tribble (2001) academic writers are expected to attribute sources in their works to integrate the ideas of others into their arguments, to indicate what is known about the subject of study already, or to point out the weaknesses in others' arguments, aligning themselves with a particular school. Swales and Feak (2004) emphasize some of the important functions of citation as acknowledging an author's intellectual property, giving authority to a writer's arguments and creating the writer's niche. Research by Harwood (2009), on the other hand, draws attention to complexities in citation, as up to eleven different functions of citation and both inter- and intra-disciplinary differences were reported in his study. Swales (2014) highlights that there is convincing evidence that "citations do not simply work as authorial demonstrations with regard to previous literatures, but also operate rhetorically to strengthen arguments and claims in several ways" (p. 118). It is clear that students "need not only to acquire the mechanics of citing ...but also to embark on the arduous process of learning to cite in such a manner that their academic papers are increasingly persuasive and convincing" (p. 119).

In contrast to the large body of research on the functions of citations or the rhetorical purposes of citations in published writing, some authors such as Petrić & Hardwood (2013) argue that much less is known about the purposes for which students use citation. Research into student problems with citation has looked at how overcoming these difficulties can gradually lead to an understanding of discipline-appropriate academic writing (Shi, 2010; Spack, 1997). From these studies there is evidence that understanding how and why to cite takes time and represents a challenge for novice student writers. In addition, Petrić (2012) notes that students' challenges in using citation and practicing textual appropriation "may result from a variety of issues in the development of academic literacy, each requiring a different pedagogical response" (p. x).

Citations have been categorized in various ways: in terms of their syntactic placement and linguistic form (Charles, 2006; Swales, 1990); in terms of their extent and importance (Valle, 1999); in terms of whether they are positive, neutral, tentative, or negative (Hyland, 2004); and in terms of their function or role (Harwood & Petrić, 2012; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). Studies focusing on the functions of citations in student writing (Abasi et al., 2006; Harwood & Petrić, 2012; Petrić, 2007; Thompson, 2001) describe some citation patterns specific to students, such as their tendency to use citations primarily for knowledge display, or to impress their instructors, a characteristic clearly seen in the writing of lower achieving L2 students, who exploit a narrower range of citation functions in comparison to their more successful peers as found by Petrić (2007). He also found that other functions of citations common in expert writing, such as citing to support the writer's own claims, or to identify links between different bodies of literature, are found less often in student writing.

Previous research investigated citation functions in several genres produced by students at different levels; in undergraduate students' essays (Lee, 2010); master's students' essays (Borg, 2000), research papers (Hyland, 1999), dissertations (Petrić, 2007), and PhD theses (Thompson, 2001; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). This research often involves comparison of citations, such as in different disciplines (Thompson, 2001), in the writing of L1 and L2 speakers of English (Borg, 2000), and in high- and low-rated texts (Petrić, 2007).

According to Swales (2014) there is some evidence that students cite differently in different assignments or different genre parts. Swales makes reference to Beaufort's (2004) analysis of a student's citation behavior that changed from using no citations at all to overciting. For Beaufort this lack of pattern in variation and inconsistent citing strategies reflected the student's lack of genre awareness. In contrast, L2 master's students in Petrić's (2007) study, who also cited for different purposes in different sections of their master's dissertations, or in different genre parts, tended to do so more systematically, that is, they used citations to establish links between sources (such as to indicate agreement among authors) in their introductory chapters but not in their conclusions. Thompson and Tribble's (2001) findings, on the other hand, suggest that there are clear discrepancies in the citation practices of writers of different disciplines, and between genres of academic writing. They

highlight that “the types of research work undertaken ... the conventions of the discipline, and the purposes for which texts are created all influence the forms of citation made” (p. 99).

2.3.9 Paraphrasing

For Shaw and Pecorari (2012) the teaching of intertextuality practices involves exercises in paraphrasing as an essential skill. Pecorari (2008) claims that teachers may give incomplete or misleading advice about source use and may disregard checking whether what the students presented as paraphrase is in fact direct quotation, a problem that is even present in master’s dissertations and PhD theses.

Paraphrasing, therefore, is the main means through which writers express other authors’ ideas, and therefore is one of the most important language issues in academic writing for international students (Chatterjee, 2007; Flowerdew & Li, 2007; Keck, 2006). Furthermore, Keck (2006) argues that non-native speakers are more likely to use a strategy of near copying and less likely to achieve a substantial paraphrase of source text, compared to native speakers (as cited in Polio & Shi, 2012). Many studies (Angélil-Carter, 2000; McGowan, 2005; Pennycook, 1996; Sutherland-Smith, 2008) have shown that when students attempt to follow the common instruction ‘use your own words,’ they experience difficulty because of lack of vocabulary or lack of a sense that they ‘own words in English’.

This view of L1 and L2 writers’ apparent inappropriate attribution has prompted many researchers to recommend ways in which teachers can help students to move beyond an improper strategy on copying from source texts. One of the most frequently recommended pedagogical interventions (Campbell, 1990; Currie, 1998; Howard, 1996; Hyland, 2001; Johns & Mayes, 1990) is the teaching of paraphrasing. Typically, paraphrasing is discussed as part of a ‘triadic model’ of ‘paraphrase, summary, and quotation’ (Barks & Watts, 2001). For example, Campbell (1990) and Johns and Mayes (1990) suggest that paraphrasing is one of a number of strategies that students are able to use when integrating source texts into their writing. Campbell (1990) further notes that students’ inability to paraphrase effectively may partially help to explain their inappropriate copying. In Keck (2006), the term *paraphrase* is defined as changing the words of an

original text into the writer's own words, using the categories of *attempts to paraphrase*, of *near copy* (identical to source, except for one or two changes), *minor revision* (incorporating a few lexical changes), *moderate revision* (incorporating several lexical changes) and *substantial revision* (incorporating many lexical and syntactic changes).

Some studies have attempted to describe the ways in which university students use paraphrasing as a strategy for integrating source texts into their writing. Those studies which have identified paraphrases in student writing (Campbell, 1990; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Pecorari, 2003; Shi, 2004; Winograd, 1984) vary considerably in their assumptions regarding the extent to which, by definition, a paraphrase should borrow language from the original excerpt. Some authors include paraphrase as a form of *reproduction* in which students almost exactly copy one sentence of a source text. Campbell (1990) makes a distinction between such near word-for-word reproduction (what she calls *Near Copies*) and the strategy of *Paraphrase*, which she describes as involving “more syntactic changes of the original . . . text than *Near Copies*” (p.263). In addition, Campbell studied how L1 and L2 students incorporated background sources into their works. The findings show that L2 students relied on secondary sources more and copied from the original text more than L1 writers. Copying, then, was the chosen strategy for both groups, L1 and L2. In other studies (Moore, 1997; Shi, 2004, 2008) L2 students were also found to rely more on the background source than L1 learners. John and Mayes (1990) studied university level L2 texts and found that low-level students resorted to copying more often than better students. Furthermore, Shi (2004) makes a distinction by identifying two different levels of paraphrase: excerpts which have been “closely paraphrased by reformulating syntax or changing wording of the original text” (p. 178), and what she refers to as “total paraphrases,” which contain “no trace of direct borrowing of two or three consecutive words from source texts” (p.263). For Keck (2006), despite some attempts to classify students' textual borrowing strategies into different categories, a reliable method for describing different paraphrase types has to be established. In Campbell's study (1990) “the notions *Exact Copy*, *Near Copy*, and *Paraphrase* did not represent clearly defined separate categories, making interpretation problematic” (p. 263). Similarly, in Shi's (2004) study of L1 and L2 textual borrowing strategies, in her category of *slightly modified*, (p. 178), it is not clear exactly how “modified slightly by adding or deleting words or using

synonyms for content words” differed from the *syntactically reformulated category* or “closely paraphrased by reformulating syntax or changing wording of the original text” (p. 263). Shi (2004), compares L1 and L2 writers’ use of “slightly modified” and “closely paraphrased” excerpts, but does not include “total paraphrases” in her analysis. Pecorari (2003), in her study of doctoral students’ textual borrowing strategies, focuses on Howard’s (1996) concept of patchwriting and thus, limits her description of students’ paraphrasing strategies to those passages which shared 40% or more in common with their original excerpts.

2.3.10 Quotation

Quotation, also called attribution, is defined as the appropriate acknowledgement of words and ideas to authors (East, 2005; Sutherland-Smith, 2008) and includes making a distinction between the writer’s own words, and the words of others, through quotation formatting.

Problems with students’ attribution of sources (Bloch, 2001; Braine, 2002; Pecorari, 2003; Sutherland-Smith, 2008) have been given a lot of attention in recent studies. For instance, Chanock (2008) attempts to understand the reasons behind students’ attribution of text, where a copied text is cited inappropriately as a paraphrase, not a quotation; his previous findings also shown that copying but not quoting text may be considered acceptable by students. Lee (2010) found in a study of attribution practices that lower graded essays by East Asian students contained either too much or too little attribution, with a lack of awareness of how to attribute and retain an authorial voice. Furthermore, East (2005) discusses the problems of not knowing how and why to attribute sources due to differences according to context, culture and knowledge; for example, the decision about whether an idea is common knowledge depends, for East, on the writer’s familiarity with sources on the topic.

2.3.11 Reporting verbs

Regarding the use of reporting verbs, some authors (Hyland, 2004; Swales, 1990; Thompson & Ye, 1991) note that reporting verbs are defined as verbs used with integral citation, either *evaluative* (which indicate the writer's position relative to the source, such as 'argue' or 'claim') or *non-evaluative* (which indicate the writer's neutrality to the research, such as 'state' or 'report'). Thompson and Ye (1991) reported that EFL students tend to use a small range of reporting verbs, which can limit their ability to engage with research and create arguments. Hyland (1990) argues that the use of a reporting verb to introduce the work of other researchers is a significant rhetorical choice (Hunston, 1993; Tadros, 1993; Thomas & Hawes 1994; Thompson & Ye 1991). The importance of these verbs lies in the fact that "they allow the writer to clearly convey the kind of activity reported and to precisely distinguish an attitude to that information, signaling whether the claims are to be taken as accepted or not." For Swales (2014) reporting verbs can be divided into those that are *factive*, that is, the writer indicates by such a choice that she or he believes that the reported proposition is correct, while *nonfactive* reporting verbs make no such assumption. Factives, according to Swales are less frequent in number and in overall frequency, although in his study the two most common reporting verbs are factive (show/find). Swales argues that "the preference for nonfactives is a further indication that many of the authors are not perceiving findings from their literature as necessarily valid, but rather are subjecting to various kinds of intratextual reassessment" (p.125).

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

The aim of chapter two was to introduce the theoretical framework and the review of the literature that supports the study. In the following section a description of the methodology implemented for data collection and data analysis will be presented. Reference will be made to the context of the study, the participants, the coding system, and finally, to the piloting procedure.

3.1 Context of the Study

In the English Language V course the writing section's objectives aim at fostering the students' writing proficiency development, text production and language use consolidation. In addition, the assignments' methodology implemented involves the analysis of authentic texts and the study and practice of composing techniques and styles. Authentic texts are chosen because they represent real language use and as such prepare students for real life situations. For the course's writing project the students are asked to compose a research paper using the appropriate academic discourse and consulting different sources. The study's data collection instrument was an essay, a writing piece that is practiced in class and is included in the course's writing section. Jordan (1997) has outlined the following performance objectives for a course with a writing proficiency level similar to the level of the group that is being analyzed in this study. Among other significant aspects, he emphasizes source use as a specific goal. For Jordan (1997):

Grammar correction, the use of appropriate style and register, and the choice of relevant academic metadiscourse are among the course's specific objectives. Furthermore, coherence, cohesion and the logical development of the text and clear ideas to be communicated are expected. The use of hedging devices in the making of claims and the use of sources are also expected. (p. 17)

The objectives for the course's writing section which are summarized in the previous quote are expected to be achieved in Language V regardless of the writing text type the students are asked to produce.

3.2 Participants

There were 41 student participants in this study, the rest of the participants were the teacher-researcher and two raters. In relation to the student participants and according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) published by the Council of Europe, the learners enrolled in Language V have an advanced level of written production in English. Those reaching C1 and C2 levels:

- Can write clear, well-structured expositions of complex subjects, underlining the relevant salient issues.
- Can expand and support points of view at some length with subsidiary points, reasons and relevant examples.
- Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes.
- Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed texts on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices. (p. 24)

Based on CEFR's standards the students taking the course have reached the institution's undergraduate most advanced proficiency level, and following the CEFR's criteria are the most competent of the Faculty of Languages. They have been trained in previous courses to perform efficiently in different genres and they are able to compose various texts such as expository or argumentative writing, using relevant vocabulary and rhetorical resources appropriate to the different text types. Presenting and developing arguments and counterarguments, supporting opinions and expressing and evaluating ideas are some of the functions the students may display in their texts and that were practiced extensively in previous years.

Regarding native language, age, and linguistic background, the group's composition can be considered homogeneous. They were Spanish speakers, and their average age was 23 years old, ranging from 22 to 28. The students were members of one intact class, that is, they were not selected at random. In addition, they were enrolled in the Language V morning group, a course offered at a National University of Córdoba in Argentina. As for the length of their studies, all of them were undergraduates and had spent five years in the EFL program before the study. In sum, it can be said that the participants were

representative of the student population of the Faculty of Languages in terms of native language, age, sex, ratio of male to female students, number of years spent in the program and proficiency level. The sample size was 41 subjects, 36 female and 5 male. Considering that the results are intended to give information about the specific academic setting in which the study is carried out and there is no intention to generalize the findings to different educational contexts, the sample can be considered representative.

3.3 Raters

Two independent raters contributed to this study so as to provide reliability and objectivity to the results. The two raters are university teachers who have been teaching EFL and doing research for more than 15 years and both have been grading students' essays as part of their teaching load. Before reviewing the essays both raters had an individual training session with the researcher who described the criteria and shared the instructions. After this initial training, the raters worked individually on a percentage of the corpus to guarantee as much objectivity as possible.

3.4 Data collection

In this study a mixed method approach is employed to combine the use of quantitative (in this research, non-experimental) and qualitative methods of data collection and analysis in order to achieve a fuller understanding of the phenomenon (attribution) by exploring it from different angles. This was achieved by means of the following data collection instruments: an essay, or writing task, and written questionnaires. There was no random assignment of participants to groups.

First, and to collect data quantitatively the students in the group wrote an expository essay in which they had to make reference to different sources that had been covered and discussed in class (See Appendix E, texts 1 to 9). The essays became the basic study corpus, and were assessed by the teacher-researcher in charge of the group. The number of essays included in this study was limited to the students who participated in class during the writing session; the whole group, however is larger. It is necessary to mention at this point

that students' attendance to class is not compulsory and it varies significantly from class to class.

Quantitative data were gathered in the morning group of students in just one instance. The assignment was carried out in a writing session, halfway the course, during a regular class period (120 minutes). The task given to the group was designed to produce a text type that students were familiar with: an expository essay whose word count should average 600. It was not necessary for the teacher to introduce the genre since students were already familiar with the expository essay and they had practiced it in previous years. The topic for the writing assignment, *Global Economy*, was one of the thematic units of the syllabus, and a series of articles, a documentary and a movie, already covered in class for that unit, were also chosen to be included (See Appendix E). The students were preparing for a midterm oral exam and were asked to do some preliminary reading for that particular class. During the writing session the students were allowed to consult their notes and the original texts they brought to class. Finally, and to avoid misunderstandings, the instructions were read aloud and the researcher, who was present while the students were carrying out the task, further explained its characteristics by answering the students' questions. These are the instructions the students were asked to follow:

Compare and contrast the concepts discussed in the articles, also in the movie and the documentary, which according to the authors shape our current world and local economies. For your analysis you may look at different ideas or notions such as *glocalization*, outsourcing, workers' exploitation, and unionization, among others, put forward in the different texts.

In the writing session the participants were informed that their texts were going to be analyzed and used for research, to which they all agreed, and they were asked to provide their written consent to the project. It is worth mentioning at this point that the students who missed the data-gathering session were not included in the study.

Besides the written texts and to collect data qualitatively, questionnaires were used to identify the learners' familiarity with the strategies for attribution and also to determine the students' perspectives regarding the ways they used those strategies in their production (See Appendix B). The questionnaires were filled in the following class, after the essays writing session. The questionnaires contained a list of different terms from which the

students were asked to circle those they were familiar with, and then pick three to define. They were also given a combination of five open-ended questions and eight close-ended questions that aimed at obtaining data on the learners' views on source attribution, sources of information, strategies commonly used for source attribution, and formal instruction on those strategies. An important aspect addressed by the questions was related to the students' self-assessment of source use in their essays. The learners were encouraged to openly comment on their perceptions. In addition it was emphasized that the information collected would remain confidential, and questionnaires were completed anonymously. As already mentioned, the questionnaires were filled in during class time, so the response rate was 100 percent.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

The data collected from the essays and the questionnaires were examined, then, from two points of view, thus maximizing the possibility of getting credible findings by cross-validation. The analyses of the essay were compared, then, with the interpretive analyses of the information obtained from the open- and close-ended items of the questionnaires, and in this manner quantitative data were compared to, and integrated with qualitative data. The questionnaires were selected to collect data for a number of advantages over other data collection instruments. Following Seliger and Shohamy (1989) questionnaires are self-administered and can be given to a large group of participants at the same time; further, when anonymity is assured, participants tend to share information more easily; since the same questionnaire is given to all subjects, the data are more uniform and standard; and finally, since they are usually given to all participants of the study at exactly the same time, the information is more accurate. The data gathered in this manner were useful for supplementing the information obtained from the essay. In the current study the two phases took place within a short period of time; that is, the essays were written in one class and the questionnaires were administered the following class.

3.6 Piloting

Once the data collection instruments had been designed, they were piloted to correct mistakes or ambiguities and to make them more reliable. The teacher-researcher conducted a pilot study during the course prior to this current study at the end of the previous year. A small group of students of students was asked to write an essay in which they had to incorporate the sources of one article read in class. The intention behind the assignment was to enable the researcher to address problems and flaws in the design before the study was carried out. Later that week the same group was asked to fill in a questionnaire. The students were consulted on issues related to their writing assignments attitudes, their views on those assignments and also on their perspectives on source attribution. After the piloting one question was crossed out since it seemed to be ambiguous for the students and was mostly left unanswered. Some more questions were added because the general results of the pilot study showed a need for more qualitative material (See Appendix A).

3.7 Key Terms Definition

There are two key terms used in this study that will be defined as follows: First, strategies for attribution, or *strategies*, such as citation, quotation, paraphrase, and also reporting verbs. Strategies, then, are defined in this study as the linguistic strategies the learners use to write about background sources. Second, perspectives on attribution, or *perspectives*, are the opinions these students hold about when and how to use strategies for attribution.

3.8 Data Analysis

3.8.1 Inter-rater reliability

Inter-rater reliability involves observations made by two or more individuals (coders or raters) of an individual's or several individuals' behavior. The observers record their scores of the behavior and then compare them to see if they are similar or different. Because this method obtains observational scores from two or more individuals, it has the advantage of negating any bias that any one individual might bring to scoring (Creswell, 2014). The raters coded approximately 66 % of the essays which were randomly selected.

The ratio of all coding agreements over the total number of coding decisions made by the coders, that is, percentage agreement, was calculated. This process yielded an inter-coder reliability percentage. The coders were given a series of instructions to follow so as to guide them in their reviewing process. Finally, the results were compared and contrasted with the researcher's results.

3.8.2 Essays Data Analysis

The students' essays were analyzed in terms of citation, paraphrasing, quotation, and reporting verbs features. The teacher-researcher explored whether the writers' source use could be considered competent, in terms of containing varied use of citation, relevant paraphrasing, a range of reporting verbs and appropriate quotation. For that purpose the essays were segmented into textual units according to the strategies being analyzed. The essay writing strategies were then examined by counting the textual instances of the different pre-determined categories. The following sections will include an explanation of the procedures followed for each strategy.

3.8.2.1 The coding system

3.8.2.2 Citation

Citation typologies based on formal criteria focus on their linguistic realization, i.e., their surface forms rather than their meaning. The most frequently used is the distinction introduced by Swales (1990) between integral and non-integral citations, and reporting and non-reporting. In integral citations, the name of the cited author occurs within the sentence, foregrounding the researcher, whereas non-integral citations place the author's name outside of the text, either in parentheses or in footnotes or endnotes, emphasizing the reported research rather than the researcher and which has no explicit grammatical role in the sentence. Integral citation integrates the name of the cited author, as Swales (1990) points out, by using an integral-verb or by using a noun-phrase. The following is an example of integral- verb citation:

Swales (1990) points out that integral citation is integrated within the paragraph by means of an integral-verb, in this case “points out.”

The other type of integral citation is integrating the name of the author by using a noun phrase and is integrated into the paragraph by occupying the position of a noun phrase. This type is commonly referred to as *integral-naming*. Here is an example:

This type is commonly referred to as integral-naming as described by Thompson (2001).

In non-integral citation, by contrast, the name of the author is not integrated within the paragraph. It is introduced by mentioning the name between brackets without using any integral verbs or occupying a noun phrase position.

In non-integral citation the name of the author is not integrated within the paragraph (Thompson, 2001).

According to Petrić (2007), further elaboration of this typology can be found in Thompson’s work (2001, 2005), who divides integral and non-integral citations into sub-types. This classification takes into account a combination of formal linguistic criteria, such as the syntactic position of the citation within a clause, and function, such as whether the citation identifies the origin of an idea or is used as an example.

This study focuses on the writers’ intentions when using citations, that is, the rhetorical functions of citations. Therefore, the functional criteria of Thompson’s (2001), and Hyland’s (1990) typology of citations will be used and also Petrić’s (2007) modification that excludes the formally-based categories and introduces function-based categories. Petrić’s typology that consists of nine rhetorical functions is used for both integral and non-integral citation. For the students’ texts characteristics, that is, a multisource expository essay, Petrić’s typology will be adapted to only three categories. *Attribution, Evaluation and Establishing links between sources*. These three categories will

be explored in the students' works. Each category is illustrated with an authentic example from Petrić's (2007) corpus.

1. **Attribution:** This type of citation is used to attribute information or activity to an author.

“According to feminist film critic Laura Mulvey's (1975) analysis of the gaze, in binary looking relations men tend to assume the active role of a looking subject.”

6. **Evaluation:** In this type of citation, the work of another author is evaluated by the use of language ranging from individual words (e.g., evaluative adverbs) to clauses expressing evaluation.

“The main flaw with Gray's analysis is that she omits to take into account the very slippery nature of language and in that respect of jokes.”

7. **Establishing links between sources:** The function of this citation is to point to links, usually comparison and contrast, between or among different sources used. This type of citation can be used to indicate differences in existing views on a topic, thus showing that the writer is able to identify controversial issues, that is particularly important in discursive fields.

“While Rich argues that men enforce compulsory heterosexuality upon women, Suzanne Pharr claims that both homosexual women and men are perceived as a threat to the normative heterosexual patriarchal order.”

In this study and following Hyland (2000) the citations were identified as names, even though the year was omitted. Furthermore, instances such as “her/ his theory,” that made reference to a source previously mentioned were included, but expressions such as “some authors,” were not counted.

3.8.2.3 Paraphrase

Keck's (2006) designed an approach for investigating students' paraphrasing strategies called *attempted paraphrase* that will be followed in this study. According to Keck (2006) no consistent methods for describing different paraphrasing strategies have been employed across studies of textual borrowing, therefore she developed a taxonomy of paraphrase types. An attempted paraphrase was an instance in which a writer selects a specific excerpt of a source text and makes at least one attempt to change the language of that selected excerpt. Attempted paraphrases were classified into four linguistically-defined, mutually-exclusive categories (*Near Copy*, *Minimal Revision*, *Moderate Revision*, and *Substantial Revision*). In this study only three of the four categories will be explored, that is *Near Copy*, *Minimal Revision*, and *Moderate Revision*.

Attempted paraphrases were defined, then, as passages within a student work which were based upon a specific excerpt of the source text, and contained at least one word-level change made to that excerpt. They could contain many words copied directly from the original excerpt, or could contain no copied strings at all and make a number of lexical and grammatical changes to the original. Word-level changes were defined as changes in word choice (e.g., synonym substitution, replacement of one function word with another or word class (e.g., changing the noun "diversity" to its adjective form, "diverse"). Changes that for Keck (2006) did not qualify as attempted paraphrase: Changes in punctuation, grammatical number, and subject-verb agreement alone nor reordering of clauses or phrases taken from the original (i.e., cut and paste with no word changes made). *Exact Copies* were passages within a student work that reproduced phrases or clauses of the original without any word-level changes.

The process of identification and coding of attempted paraphrases within the students' essays began by tracing each orthographic sentence in the student work to a sentence or sentences in the source text. Some paraphrases were more than one sentence long, or were phrases or clauses within an orthographic sentence. Similarly, identified original excerpts could be orthographic sentences, or phrases or clauses within orthographic sentences. Each paraphrase was coded for the following linguistic characteristics: *length* (in words), *reporting phrase* (used or not used, e.g. "According to Samuelson," were not included in the total paraphrase word count), *unique links*, and *general links*.

Unique links were defined as individual lexical words (i.e., nouns, verbs, adjectives, or adverbs), or exactly copied strings of words used in the paraphrase that also occurred in the original excerpt but, occurred in no other place in the original text. In Example 1, unique links are in bold. Borrowed words and phrases enclosed in quotation marks were not counted as unique links. Here are Keck's examples:

1. Original

Women have less work experience, less seniority, a lower rate of unionization and so on.

Attempted paraphrase

Women have less job experience, less seniority, and a low rate of unionization.

The paraphrase in the example above (1) contains three different unique links: "women have less" (three words), "experience, less seniority" (three words) and "rate of unionization" (three words). Thus, the total number of words contained within unique links for this paraphrase is nine. *General links*, were defined as lexical words used in the paraphrase that occurred in the original excerpt but that also occurred elsewhere in the original text. In Example 2, general links are underlined:

2. Original

More than men, women balance home and work demands.

Attempted paraphrase

Women also have to take care of the house. However, men do not do that so often.

While unique links are tied only to a specific excerpt of the source text, *general links*, which occur in multiple places, are more likely to be words associated with the important main ideas of the source text.

For each attempted paraphrase, the following information was coded: the total number of unique and general links, the total number of words contained within unique and general links, and the percentage of the paraphrase made up of words contained within unique and general links. The following example illustrates how these calculations were made.

3. Original

Children speak more like adults, dress more like adults and behave more like adults than they used to. The reverse is also true: adults have begun to speak, dress, and act more like overgrown children.

Attempted paraphrase

In today's society children are becoming **more like adults** and adults are taking on characteristics usually associated with children.

The paraphrase in Example 3 contains one unique link “more like adults.” Because the unique link in Example 3 is a three-word phrase, the total number of words contained within the unique link is 3. Since the paraphrase contains 19 total words, the percentage of the paraphrase made up of words within unique links is 16% (3/19). Example 3 also contains three general links (children, adults, children). Because these general links are one word each, the total number of words contained within general links is three. Thus, the percentage of the paraphrase made up of words within general links is also 16% (3/19). By considering both unique and general links together, it can be said that 32% of the paraphrase contains words that are also found within the original excerpt.

For the classification of the different paraphrase types it was necessary for the categories to differ significantly in their use of the unique links and that the identified attempted paraphrases were evenly distributed across the four types. Following the taxonomy, each attempted paraphrase was classified into one paraphrase type. Here are the definitions of the lexical characteristics of each paraphrase type:

Near copy: was defined as an attempted paraphrase in which 50% or more of the paraphrase was made up of words contained within unique links and are composed mostly of long copied strings taken from the original excerpt. Considering both unique and general links, it can be said that over 75% of a typical Near Copy is made up of words borrowed from the original excerpt. The mean length of a unique link used within Near Copies in Keck's study was 5.44 words.

4. Original

Children speak more like adults, dress more like adults and behave more like adults than they used to.

Near Copy

Nowadays, children's behavior is **more like adults than they used to**.

Minimal Revision was defined as an attempted paraphrase in which 20–49% of the paraphrase was made up of words within unique links. Together, unique and general links made up about 42% of a typical Minimal Revision paraphrase. The mean length of unique links within the Minimal Revision was for Keck's study 2.50 words.

5. Original

Children speak more like adults, dress more like adults and behave more like adults than they used to.

Minimal Revision

Yet children are beginning to act more and **more like adults** everyday, by the way they **speak** and act.

Moderate Revision was defined as an attempted paraphrase, which used at least one unique link, but less than 20% of the total paraphrase words were contained within unique links. Altogether, Moderate Revision paraphrases had a mean of 22% unique and general link words. In contrast to Near Copies and Minimal Revisions, Moderate Revisions used an equal number of unique and general links. The mean length of unique links used within Moderate Revisions was 1.34 words.

6. Original

Children speak more like adults, dress more like adults and behave more like adults than they used to.

Moderate Revision

Modern children seem to behaving, through **dress** and speech, **like adults** at an alarmingly young age.

Table 1 displays the criteria Keck uses to define each Paraphrase Type.

	Linguistic criteria	Examples
Near Copy	50 % or more words contained within unique links	<i>Original Excerpt</i> “Comparable worth,” the notion that different jobs can be rated equal and paid equally.
Minimal Revision	20-49% words contained unique links	<u>Comparable worth</u> is an idea that different jobs can be rated equal and paid equally .
Moderate Revision	1-19% words contained unique links	<u>Comparable worth</u> is the idea that different jobs can be rated equal by a set of standards and be paid equally .
		<u>Comparable worth</u> is the idea that various <u>jobs</u> may be ranked equally and therefore, should be paid equally .

Note: unique links are in bold; general links are underlined; reporting phrases are in italics

Table 1 – The Taxonomy of Paraphrase types (adapted)

3.8.2.4 Quotation

The third strategy explored in this study, quotation, also called attribution, is defined as the appropriate acknowledgement of words and ideas to authors and includes making a distinction between the writer’s own words, and the words of others, through quotation formatting.

Following Petrić (2012), and for the purposes of analysis, direct quotations were identified on the basis of conventional signals (i.e., quotation marks, author’s name, and page numbers) provided by the writers themselves. Stretches of text marked by scare quotes, i.e., inverted commas placed around a term or expression without an accompanying citation, generally used in order to question the term and thus distance from it were not taken into account. Titles of books and articles were also excluded. Once identified, direct quotations were classified according to Borg’s (2000) taxonomy into (a) **quotation fragments**, defined as stretches of textual borrowing shorter than a T-unit; (b) **brief quotations**, defined as T-units shorter than 40 words; and (c) **extended quotations**, defined as quotations longer than 40 words, typically formatted as block quotations. Given

this classification, it was possible that a sentence could contain more than one quotation. Raw frequencies of direct quotations were not normalized since the essays analyzed for this study were of the same length. Similar types were grouped together into categories through this process.

The researcher was also interested in exploring, as in Petrić's (2012) study, if the students relied on *brief quotations* or *quotation fragments*. *Brief quotations* consisting of a finite clause, can be easily inserted into the students' texts without modifications, which are otherwise an independent chunk of text that does not require any intervention. Here is an example of brief quotations from Petrić's corpus:

To quote an author on gender in Central Asia, "the dramatically low status of women in post-comunist Central Asia is an issue that goes beyond the well-being of women per se to the fostering of political development and democracy."

Quotation fragments, on the other hand, need to be incorporated into the writer's own sentence in order to fit syntactically and semantically, as in the following example where two quotation fragments were used:

She proposes a way of improvement, which is to be found in a "radically historicizing humanism" that will... acknowledge also refugees' "narrative authority, historical, agency and political memory" (p. 398).

3.8.2.5 Reporting Verbs

For this study the researcher will adopt Hyland's (1999) categories for analyzing the reporting verbs used by the students in their works. Hyland (1999) quantified the use of all main verbs associated with integral citations, categorizing cases according to a modified version of Thompson and Ye's (1991) and Thomas and Hawes (1994) reporting verbs taxonomies. He classified the choice of reporting verbs according to the type of activity referred to. This gives three different processes:

1. **Research (real-world) Acts**, which occur in statements of findings (*observe, discover, notice, show*) or procedures (*analyze, calculate, assay, explore*);

2. Cognition Acts, concerned with mental processes (*believe, conceptualize, suspect, view*);

3. Discourse Acts, which involve verbal expression (*ascribe, discuss, hypothesize, state*).

In addition to selecting from these denotative categories, writers also exploit the evaluative potential of reporting verbs. Here Hyland (1999) presents an adaptation of Thompson and Ye's (1991) taxonomy by eliminating some sub-categories of evaluation. Despite his simplification, he states that the system retains its insight that writers can vary their commitment to the message by adopting an explicitly personal stance or by attributing a position to the original author. Thus, the writer may represent the reported information as true or **Factive** (*acknowledge, point out, establish*), as false or **Counter-Factive** (*fail, overlook, exaggerate, ignore*) or as **Non-factive**, giving no clear signal. This option allows the writer to ascribe a view to the source author, reporting him or her as **positive** (*advocate, argue, hold, see*), **neutral** (*address, cite, comment, look at*), **tentative** (*allude to, believe, hypothesize, suggest*), or **critical** (*attack, condemn, object, refute*). Report verbs do not simply function to indicate the status of the information reported, but the writer's own position in relation to that information. Following Hyland then: "The selection of an appropriate reporting verb allows writers to intrude into the discourse to signal an assessment of the evidential status of the reported proposition and demonstrate their commitment, neutrality or distance from it" (p. 351). For this study the researcher will adopt Hyland's (1999) categories for analyzing the reporting verbs used by the students in their works, focusing on the **Evaluative types**, that is *Factive, Non-Factive* and *Counter-Factive*.

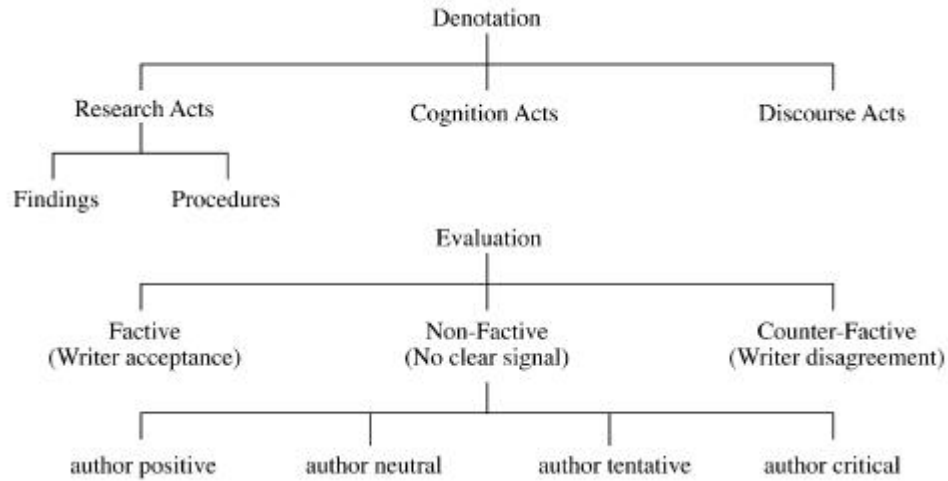


Figure 1 - shows Hyland's categories of reporting verbs

3.8.3 Questionnaires Data Analysis

Since the questionnaire was descriptive, qualitative analysis was necessary. The researcher transcribed and analyzed the students' responses and definitions to identify patterns in the answers. Main ideas were identified, then, looking for themes the students mentioned frequently, or categories. These inductively derived categories were listed from the data in the open-ended questions. Besides, the students' answers were codified and percentages were drawn from the responses. In order to establish validation of the essays results and the researcher's analysis of the essays strategies the questionnaire results were later examined for coincidences.

Finally, this chapter included a description of the methodology applied for data collection and data analysis. It also described the participants, key terms and the context of the study together with the research taxonomies. Further, it also provided the necessary information if replication was called for.

CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Chapter 3 included a description of the data collection and data analysis methodology. It also described the participants, key terms, and the context of the study together with the research taxonomies. Further, it also provided the necessary information if replication was needed. In chapter four, a description of the findings from analysis of the students' texts is included. First, the quantitative analysis of the students' data results will be presented, and then the qualitative analysis of the data will be explored. Finally, a discussion of the findings will be included.

4.1 Quantitative Data Results

4.1.1 Inter-rater Reliability

The researcher randomly selected 66% of the paraphrasing data to have it coded. Percentage agreement was calculated, that is, the ratio of all coding agreements over the total number of coding decisions made by the coders. Therefore, correlation coefficients were calculated for both scoring situations. The results yielded for the relation between teacher-researcher and rater 1 showed a correlation of $r = .983$ that is highly significant ($p < .0001$). In the case of the relation between teacher-researcher and rater 2 the correlation was $r = .815$ that is also statistically highly significant ($p < .0001$). Based on the results, it can be concluded that both coders agreed on their ratings. In the first group, that is teacher-researcher and rater 1, there was a percentage of agreement of 92%, while in the second group, that is teacher-researcher and rater 2, there was a percentage of agreement of 87% that shows a good level of agreement between the teacher-researcher and the raters. Anything above 75% may be considered good although percentages over 90% are ideal. To determine reliability levels achieved between the teacher-researcher and both raters a Chi-square based-test was also performed, whose scores show if one variable levels influence the other variable analyzed. Statistical analysis determined the existence of dependence between the ratings achieved for teacher-researcher/rater 1 which is statistically significant ($p < .044$). For teacher-researcher/rater 2, this relation is somewhat lower, however, with an

effect that tends to be statistically significant ($p < .052$). Dependence, in this case, then reveals that the teacher-researcher and the raters scored the texts in a similar way. (See Appendix D- Contingency tables)

4.1.2 Students' Essays' Strategies

As was mentioned earlier in the Methodology chapter, four basic linguistic resources were analyzed for the purpose of this study, that is, citation, paraphrase, quotation and reporting verbs. Among the strategies, paraphrasing with an average of occurrence of 6.55 instances per essay was the most commonly occurring strategy of attribution found in the students' essays, followed by citation that was used .64 times per work, then quotation with .54 occurrences per text and finally the use of reporting verbs with .48 instances per essay (See Figure 2).

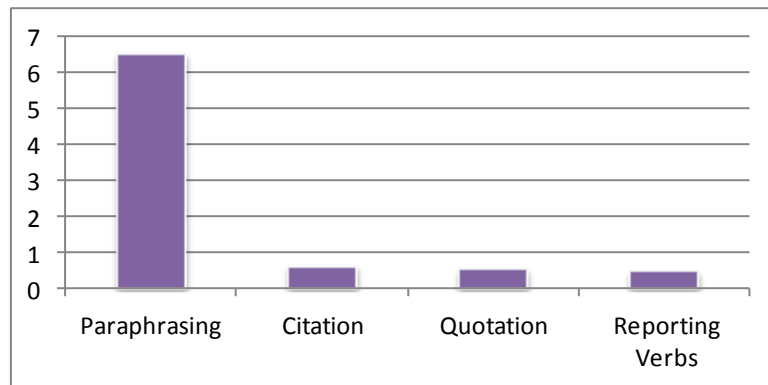


Figure 2 – Strategies found in the students' corpus

The results for the students' texts will be described by analyzing first the strategy the students found the most problematic, that is, *paraphrasing*. Therefore, *paraphrasing* will be discussed in the first place, followed by *citation*, then *quotation*, and finally the use of *reporting verbs* will be covered.

4.1.3 Paraphrasing

As stated in the Methodology chapter, and following Keck (2006) the teacher-researcher for this study focused on four Paraphrase Types: Exact Copy, Near Copy, Minimal Revision, and Moderate Revision. A total of 262 attempted paraphrases were identified within the essays with an average of about 7 attempted paraphrases per work, in Keck's (2006) study, in contrast, 5 attempted paraphrases per work were identified in the corpus. In some texts there was only 1 attempted paraphrase and in some essays up to 15 attempted paraphrases were coded. In this research, the mean length of a unique link used within a Near Copy was 8 words. It is worth noting that Keck's definition of a *unique link* is "words used in the paraphrase that also occurred in the original fragment, but did not occur in any other place in the original text" (p. 267). Therefore, considering both unique and general links, it can be said that over 75% of a typical Near Copy is made up of words borrowed from the original excerpt. Keck's (2006) definition of *general links* is "links which occur in multiple places and are words more likely associated with the important main ideas of the source text" (p. 267). Table 2 shows the means for paraphrase length, the percentage of words contained in unique links, and the percentage of words contained in general links for the attempted paraphrases identified.

Attempted Paraphrases- Length (in words)	Words in Unique Links (as percentage of paraphrase)	Words in General Links (as percentage of paraphrase)
10.00	14.35	15

Table 2 - Lexical characteristics of paraphrases identified

As Table 2 shows, the mean length of all the paraphrases identified was 10 words. On average, about 14% of a paraphrase was made up of words contained within Unique Links for the attempted paraphrases identified, and about 1.4 words were traced to individual words or copied strings that occurred only in the original excerpt, and in no other place of the original text. For all the paraphrases identified, the mean percentage of words within general links was 15% (i.e., about 1.5 general links word per 10 words of paraphrase). The students used more Minimal Revision (157 instances) in their essays than

any of the other paraphrase types, followed by Near Copy with 71 instances, Moderate Revision with 33 occurrences and Exact Copy with only 1 (See Table 3).

Paraphrase Type	Total
Exact Copy	1
Near Copy	71
Minimal Revision	157
Moderate Revision	33
Total	262

Table 3 - Number of paraphrases classified under each type

Table 4 shows that the student writers used about 7 individual paraphrases per essay and all the essays contained at least one attempted paraphrase, which means that 60% of an average essay was made up of paraphrases regardless of type. All essays used a paraphrase. A finding in this study was that attempted paraphrases were far more frequent than Exact Copies (58% to 0.22%). Further, only **one** essay contained an instance of an Exact Copy; in contrast, in Keck's (2006) research that figure was 20 out of 79 texts that used an Exact Copy, or 4% of all the attempted paraphrases. In this study, the students also used more Minimal Revisions than Near Copies in their texts. While 16% of an average essay contained Near Copies, with a mean rate of occurrence of 2 instances per essay, almost 35% of an average essay was made up of Minimal Revision instances (See Figure 3 and Table 4).

The students also used less Moderate Revisions than Minimal Revisions. While 7.4% of an average essay contained Moderate Revisions with a rate of occurrence of .82 of an average text, almost 35% of an average essay was made up of Minimal Revisions, with a rate of occurrence of 4 per essay, as stated above. L2 writers in this study used Exact Copies and Near Copies less frequently than the percentages for L2 writers in Keck's (2006) study. As for Minimal Revisions the students used them more frequently in this study, 35 % as compared to 15% in Keck's study. The percentages of Moderate Revisions in both studies were almost the same, 7.50 % in Keck's study and 7.41 % in this study.

Number of words in essay	445
Use of Exact Copies	
<i>Rate of Occurrence (number of instances per essay)</i>	.002
<i>Percentage of essay</i>	.22
Use of Attempted Paraphrase (regardless of Type)	
<i>Rate of Occurrence</i>	6.55
<i>Percentage of essay</i>	58.00
Use of Near Copies	
<i>Rate of Occurrence</i>	1.78
<i>Percentage of essay</i>	16.00
Use of Minimal Revisions	
<i>Rate of Occurrence</i>	3.92
<i>Percentage of essay</i>	35.00
Use of Moderate Revisions	
<i>Rate of Occurrence</i>	.82
<i>Percentage of essay</i>	7.41

Table 4 - Use of Paraphrase in essays

Some students' essays examples will be included below to illustrate the learners' use of the different Paraphrase types, that is, Near Copy, Minimal Revision and Moderate Revision:

1. Near Copy - Original

In particular, **job growth and wage growth have been weaker in sectors exposed to global competition** — especially from China — than in sectors that are more insulated.

Near Copy – Student's Essay Example

Particularly, **job growth and wage growth have been especially weaker in sectors exposed to global competition.** (Text 5)

2. Minimal Revision - Original

...they realized that they could only **increase profits by setting up subsidiaries abroad....** They are now **viewed by many with suspicion...**

Minimal Revision - Student's Essay Example

After realizing that these companies have no moral obligations with their workers and Considering that the **only way to increase** their profits is **to set up subsidiaries abroad**, developing countries started to **view corporations with suspicion**. (Text 3)

3. Moderate Revision-Original

The main objective of the multinational is to organize its activities around the world so as to **maximize** global **profits**...in search of cheaper labor, have set up new **deskilled** manufacturing operations abroad.

Moderate Revision- Student's Essay Example

As these companies want to reduce their costs and **maximize** their **profits**, they prefer to relocate their premises in countries where they hire **deskilled people** and pay then low wages. (Text 28)

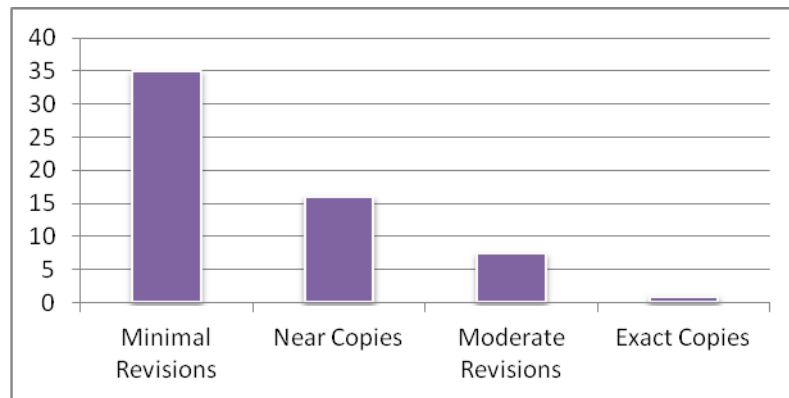


Figure 3- Use of paraphrases according to type

4.1.4 Citation

A total of 110 citations were identified in 17,187 words. Citation density in the students' essays, ie., the number of citations per 100 words is .64 for the students' proficiency level. For Petrić's (2007) study citation density is 6.85, that is, the number of citations per 1,000 words for a total of 1,981 citations in a corpus of 16 Master's theses and 310,624 words. For this study, a feature in the corpus is that the data show no instances of

non-integral citation (See Table 5). 7 texts, that is, 17% of the total number of works, do not make any reference to sources, and do not include any type of citation, in addition, there is one text in the data (text 38) that contains 11 instances of citation. There are no instances of over-citation in any of the essays analyzed.

WORDS	INTEGRAL CITATION DENSITY	NON-INTEGRAL CITATION
17,187	.64	0

Table 5 - Proportion of integral and non-integral citation in the students' texts

On the other hand, and without following source use conventions, none of the students used a system for citing, such as an author-date method and none of the citation occurrences included the year of publication for the source. Regarding the different rhetorical functions of citations, that is, *Attribution*, *Evaluation* and *Establishing links between sources*, the percentages displayed in Table 6 show that the most common rhetorical function of citations is *attribution*. As mentioned above, *Attribution*, was used in 82 % of all citations (or 90 instances) which are used to describe, rather than analyze the sources, in line with Petrić's findings. The majority of citations with the function *Establish links between sources* (5 out of 7) come from a single essay, text 38, while most of the texts but one, text 9, do not use citations for this rhetorical purpose at all. Text 38, with 5 instances of use of this type of citation, and text 2 with two instances are the only texts that display occurrences of this citation type in the corpus. The percentage of use for this latter type of citation is 6. On the other hand, citations used for *evaluation* purposes represented a 2 % percentage in the data, that is, 3 instances.

These findings are in line with Petrić's (2007) findings in her study of L2 postgraduate students in relation to one of the four types of citation explored in this study, that is, in the rhetorical use of the *attribution* type. In her analysis, the use of attribution citation percentage in low-graded theses was 92% and in this study the percentage was 82%, and for those similar results for attribution citation, she concluded that her students had difficulty using sources in academically acceptable ways.

FUNCTIONS	INTEGRAL CITATIONS	%
ATTRIBUTION	90	81.82
LINKS BETWEEN SOURCES	14	12.72
EVALUATION	6	5.46
APPLICATION	-	-
TOTAL	110	100

Table 6 - Rhetorical functions of citations (Occurrences and Percentages)

Students' essays examples, as found in the data, will be included below to illustrate the learners' use of the different rhetorical functions of citation analyzed in this study, that is, *Attribution*, *Evaluation* and *Establishing links between sources*. In some of these examples, students do not follow citation conventions:

1. Attribution

According to Sayarathi, "Poverty, illiteracy, absence of strong legislations or effective enforcement, large-scale corruption, social exclusion and disparity, combined, act to aggravate forced labour situations." (Text 39)

2. Evaluation

In her article, Rosen presents several interesting concepts. (Text 28)

3. Establishing links between sources

While authors like Cotton believe that global corporations have a negative impact on the host country, Khondker claims that transnational corporations do have a positive impact. (Text 38)

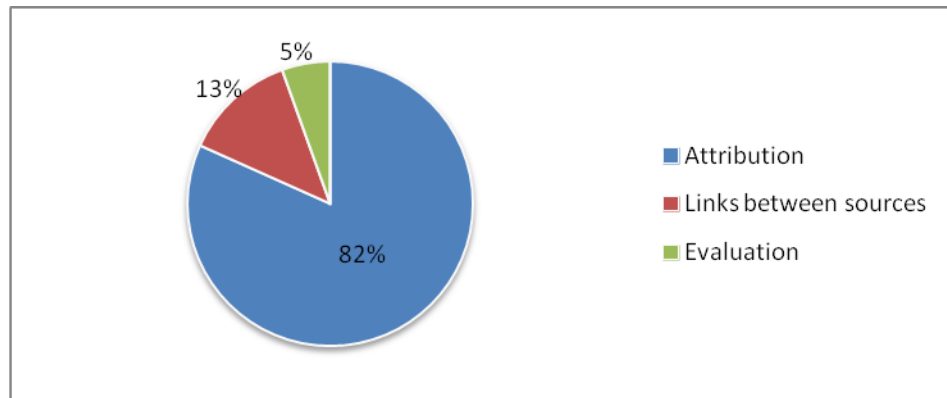


Figure 4- Rhetorical Functions of Citation

4.1.5 Quotation

As shown in Table 7 a total of 24 direct quotations were identified in the corpus, that is, 0.54 direct quotations per text. In this work, 24% of all the citations analyzed in the students' essays, also contained a direct quotation, a finding that is in line with Ädel and Garretson (2006) who found that students in all disciplines used direct quotations and that over 20% of citations in students' papers contained a direct quotation. The quantitative data show that 95% of all texts that contain quotation use *brief quotations* and there is a low percentage of use of *quotation fragments* which represent only 5 % of the corpus. In this study as in Petrić's (2012) research of high-rated and low-rated theses, it was the *brief quotation* that was the most frequent, accounting for 95% of all direct quotation. Moreover, in Shi's (2010) study L2 undergraduate writers' inability to paraphrase was reported as a reason for quoting rather than paraphrasing, suggesting this is a widespread reason for quoting at different levels of proficiency. In this research, the average length of the instances of direct quotation analyzed in the texts was 20 words, similar to Petrić's (2012) findings for high-rated theses of 23 running words. In addition, the students chose not to quote directly in 24 texts, that is, 58% of all texts do not contain instances of direct quotation. There were no instances of extended quotations in any of the students' texts and there are passages in the corpus, however, that contained language repeated from the sources, without quotation marks, and often without sources' acknowledgement.

Total number of DQs	Average Length (in words)	Brief Quotations %	Quotation Fragments %	Extended Quotations
24	20	95	5	--

Table 7- Types of quotations: total numbers and percentages

Some students' essays examples will be included below to illustrate the learners' use of *Brief Quotations* and *Quotation Fragments*:

1. Brief Quotation

Cotton states, "Foreign corporations will take over smaller companies and gradually dominate an important industry" (Text 2)

2. Quotation Fragment

Satyarathi, founder of Rugmark, an international non-profit organization, argues "Privatization and liberalization increase demand for informal, cheap and less-protected workforces." In this age of globalization, "more than 12 million people are (...) victims of forced labor" and almost "218 million child laborers (...) are engaged in the undeniable worst forms of child labor." (Text 1)

Some learners incorporated direct quotations into their texts without quotation marks, thus copying unattributed text rather than paraphrasing it. This is an example from student's text 26:

Original Text

Lawrence Katz, a Harvard economist, argues that a big part of the problem **is a shortage of educated, skilled workers at a time when demand for them keeps rising.**

Student's Version

Lawrence Katz, a Harvard economist, argues that the world is experiencing **a shortage of educated, skilled workers at a time when demand for them keeps rising.**

Should have been

Lawrence Katz, a Harvard economist, argues that the world is experiencing "a **shortage of educated, skilled workers at a time when demand for them keeps rising.**" (p.12)

There are examples in the corpus, where students had problems incorporating other authors' works into their own. For instance the following sentence from student's text 32 where the student failed to use direct quotation, and also failed to acknowledge both, the primary and the secondary sources.

Student's Version

Therefore, people **have become insecure and feel unbelievable hurt.**

Secondary Source

Peter Drucker observed that "the cynicism out there is frightening. Middle managers **have become insecure, and they feel unbelievably hurt.** They feel like slaves on an auction block." (Phillips, 1990, p.4)

Another rhetorical characteristic worth analyzing is the inclusion of ellipsis, used by many students probably to make long quotations shorter and avoid including extended quotations. Another feature found in the corpus is the lack of instances of direct quotations longer than 40 words. Here is an example of a direct quotation that should have been incorporated into the essay as an extended quotation:

As David Cotton states, "Developing countries, in particular, have become concerned about their dependence on foreign investment in key sectors of their economy. They have become aware that foreign subsidiaries often take most of their profits out of the country rather than reinvest them in the company". (Text 26)

The example above illustrates how students did not comply with some of the quotations conventions, and as Pecorari (2006) puts it, "Language repeated from a source should appear within quotation marks, or in narrower margins (in the case of longer quotations), or should otherwise be marked as coming from another source" (p.10). In addition, students are also flouting the conventions when they fail to include the original text's page number in the quotation.

4.1.6 Reporting Verbs

The teacher-researcher also examined the choice of reporting verbs in the findings. In the corpus a total of 81 instances of different reporting verbs used in citations were

found. Reporting verbs density in the data is then, .48 occurrences per text. On the other hand, the reporting verbs in the essays show some variation, although many of them occurred only once or twice such as *mention*, *establish* or *exemplify*. The more common verbs in the data, along with their frequencies, are shown in Figure 5. The three most common reporting verbs are *show* (11 instances), *explain* (11 instances) and *state* (10 instances), that according to Hyland's (1999) classification, are *factive* verbs. No instances of *counter-factive* use of reporting verbs, which represent information as unreliable were found. A finding in the data that is in line with Hyland's (1999) results is that the students in this research were also "more likely to use integral structures and to place the author in subject position" (p. 349). The students focused more on the authors than on their works and highlighted the role of the author rather than the research, providing then, "high author visibility" (Hyland, 1999, p. 349).

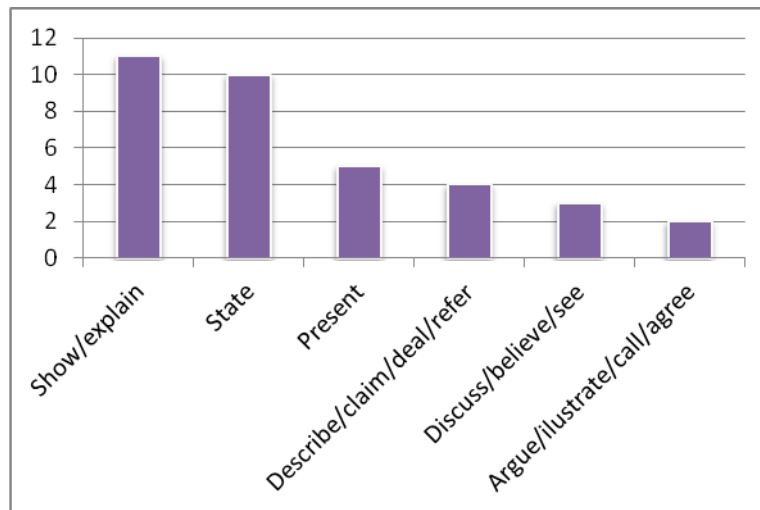


Figure 5 - List of Reporting Verbs

4.2 Qualitative Data Results

As was explained earlier in the Methodology chapter, the purpose of the questionnaires was to gather information about the learners' perceptions to complement the quantitative material collected from the essays. When answering the anonymous questionnaires, in question 1, the students were asked to circle 3 words they understood from a list of items, then they chose to circle the terms in the following order: paraphrase,

plagiarism, summary, quotation, source, footnote, reference, citation and endnote; making it clear by their comments that they have a sound knowledge of the meanings of the terms (See Figure 6). The students said that they did not understand citation (17%), but said they understood what footnote (7%) or reference (10%) mean over citation, a concept that is essential in source attribution.

Afterwards, and regarding question 2, and when the students were asked to define 3 terms out of those 10 items on the list, they chose to define them in the following order: paraphrase and plagiarism as the most frequently defined terms (31 students of 41), followed by summary (22 students), quotation (14 students), source (11 students), footnote (10 students), citation (2 students), reference (1 student) and endnote (0). These choices highlight that students are familiar with most of the terms, essentially paraphrase, plagiarism, summary and quotation, and know what they mean and what they are used for. As to some of the other terms, the learners do not appear to be confident enough to define them. Regarding citation the students are somehow uncertain as to what the term means, and it was only chosen to be defined by 2 students.

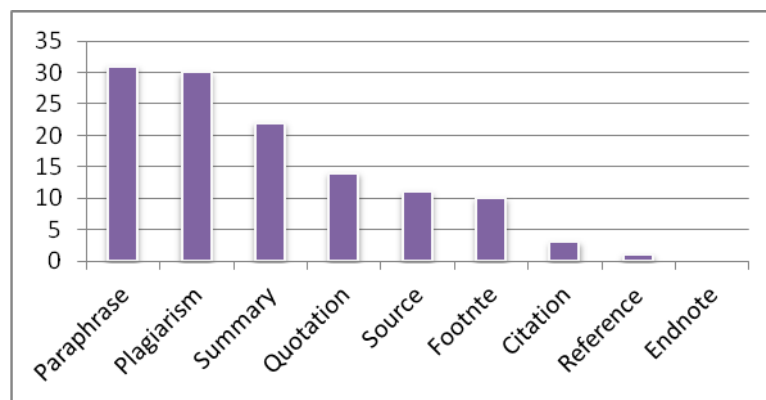


Figure 6- Students' terms definitions in percentages

Here are some of the students' definitions for the terms selected, however, in some there are concept-related problems:

Paraphrase:

Reformulating the same terms or ideas using totally different words. (Text 11)

It involves stating the same ideas but with different words and structures. (Text 16)

To rewrite somebody else's words using your own words. (Text 35)

Plagiarism:

The writer of an essay or article uses the same words, structures or content words without acknowledging the source as if those were his/her own ideas. (Text 40)

To use someone else's ideas or words in your text and use them as your own. (Text 7)

Summary:

A brief writing that mentions the main points of a larger text. (Text 1)

Make a short paragraph of another with the most important aspects. (Text 3)

Brief description of the main ideas of a text. It tends to be shorter than the original text. (Text 11)

Citation:

It is using the exact words of an author, always mentioning who the author is. (Text 15)

Correctly acknowledging somebody's words. (Text 28)

Question 3: What does this phrase mean: "Use your own words"?

These results revealed that most students realize the importance of using their own thoughts and expressions when asked to summarize a text or write an essay. Most students described the phrase as the ability to explain a concept and at the same being resourceful enough to avoid word-for-word copying. Some of the students made reference to paraphrase and quotation as key techniques to avoid copying the original text's wording. In addition, 17% of the students mentioned the term paraphrase in their explanation, and 2% also mentioned quotation and citation as strategies to be avoided while "using your own words." A summary of the students' answers to this question is provided below:

Explaining something without citing or quoting anybody else. (Text 11)

To express an idea by using your own vocabulary and by organizing it the way you think it's more appropriate, and not expressing it with the exact same words or in the same way as the author or somebody else did. (Text 22)

Using your own ideas and writing your own composition without copying someone else's words. (Text 28)

Paraphrase. (Text 34)

Question 4: If someone reads something and it makes him/her think about an idea for an essay, should that person write that the idea is not their own?

In response to this question 58% of the students said that it was necessary to acknowledge somebody else's ideas and the remaining 42% said it was not necessary to do so because the texts written afterwards would be "different or new" and there will be no misappropriation of sources. A summary of the students' answers to this question is provided below:

Yes, they should include where they got the idea from. (Text 31)

No, they shouldn't because that doesn't mean they're going to write exactly the same. (Text 7)

Sure, that person must write that the idea is not theirs, if not this is a case of plagiarism. (Text 5)

Question 5: Do you think original texts (books, magazines, a documentary, a movie, the Internet) are sources of information, points of view, or something else?

When consulted if they considered original texts as sources of information or points of view, 98% of the learners said that original texts are only sources of information and 59% of the students stated they are both, sources of information and points of view, and for the remaining 2% of the learners the original texts provided only points of view. A summary of the students' answers to this question is provided below:

They are sources of information since we can retrieve information from them and use it in our compositions, or they may help us back up our opinions. (Text 25)

Original texts are sources of information available to consult. Once you read about a topic from different sources and with different points of view you may be able to build your own opinions and contributions. (Text 29)

Original texts are points of view or illustrations of a particular topic. I don't consider them sources of information because I believe they present the information in a subjective way. (Text 35)

Question 6: (See question 8).

Question 7: What happens if you don't quote others' works? Is there anything wrong with that?

These results revealed that most students (85%) realized that not quoting others' works is plagiarism, that is, it will mean assuming others' ideas as their own. On the other hand, 15% of the students (that is 3 students) answered that it is not always necessary to quote somebody else's works. A summary of the students' answers to this question is provided below:

If you don't quote others' works you're assuming the idea is yours. (Text 1)

It is important to acknowledge the source if it's not your production. (Text 10)

Nothing. Quoting other people is necessary most of the times. (Text 11)

Questions 8: How do you refer to other people's words in your essays? What strategies or techniques do you use to refer to the work of others? (Questions 6 and 8 are grouped because of students' similar answers).

Most of the students said they use only quotation (61%), some students (63%) said they use a combination of quotation and citation to incorporate other people's words, many students expressed that they use quotation and paraphrasing combined (27%); and a few students (2%) said they use paraphrase, citation and quotation combined. A summary of the students' answers to this question is provided below:

I paraphrase or quote, depending on the length of the text referred to. (Text 1)

The MLA or APA. (Text 30)

We can use inverted commas, and the source of the text. (Text 9)

I'd quote the person's name. (Text 7)

If I use another person's exact words, I quote them between inverted commas then I add between round brackets the last name of the author, the year of publication from which I took the words, and the page number. If I paraphrase the author's words, I do the same but I don't use the inverted commas. (Text 18)

Through proper citation, if not, it would be plagiarism. (Text 28)

Question 9: Have you ever (before this course) used any of those techniques?

When consulted if they had ever used some of those techniques before, 80% of the learners answered affirmatively, and explained they had used some of them in other courses, mentioning 3 or 4 courses, especially in the teaching program. Only 5% of the students said they had never used those techniques before and 15% of the students did not answer.

Question 10: Do you think students in general don't quote others' works because they haven't been offered formal instruction on strategies or techniques?

Regarding lack of formal instruction on strategies 68% of the students answered they do not quote because they have not been offered formal instruction on attribution strategies, 32% volunteered other reasons for not using attribution techniques such as laziness, lack of ethics, lack of confidence in the use of conventions, ignorance of doing something wrong by not complying with the conventions, lack of practice of the strategies covered in previous courses, and fear of making mistakes. In addition, learners on the translation program pointed out they considered they were not getting the same formal instruction as their classmates in the teaching program.

Question 11: Why did(n't) you make references to your reading of the articles in the essay?

In response to this question most of the students (49%) answered they had acknowledged sources, 22% of the students did not answer, 19% of the students said they had not used attribution strategies and 10% of the learners said they did not remember if

they had acknowledged the sources or not. A summary of the students' answers to this question is provided below:

It helps build a reliable text and it gives support to your ideas. (Text 17)

I did quote other sources but sometimes I do not know exactly how to do it. We have had little instruction on this. In fact, the only time I remember having seen this, was in second year. (Text 19)

I made references to the readings because they were my background source of information. (Text 35)

I don't remember if I made them or not. If I didn't it was because we have never been asked to do so when writing essays in the previous language courses. (Text 18)

Question 12: Were you unprepared for the assignment?

20 % of the students did not answer the question. Of those who answered, 54% said they were not ready for the assignment, and 45% said they had done their reading and were ready for the writing task.

Question 13: Was it an unfamiliar topic?

When consulted if they the topic was unfamiliar, 12% did not answer, of those who did, 3% said the topic was unfamiliar, and 85% said they topic was familiar since they had done some reading in class and at home.

Question 14: Do you think that shortage of time may have contributed to creating the problem in this particular assignment?

Some of the students in the group (17%) did not answer this question; of those who did 45% said shortage of time may have contributed to their lack of attribution of sources, and 38% pointed out that shortage of time had not been a factor in their lack of acknowledgment of the sources.

Question 15: Do you think group work may help encourage this practice?

Regarding this question and consulted if writing assignments in groups may encourage lack of source attribution, 3% of the students did not answer. On the other hand, 70% said group dynamics, that is having joint rather than individual responsibility for the final assignment, may be a factor in lack of attribution. In addition, 27% answered group work did not help encourage this practice.

4.3 Discussion

This section will be organized following the same order of analysis of the Results section. Then *paraphrasing* will be dealt with first, followed by *citation*, and finally *quotation* and *Reporting Verbs* use will be covered.

Some findings in this study surface regarding the types of strategies and the way they are used in the students' essays. First, and related to *paraphrasing*, it was found that the learners produced a low percentage of Exact Copies (.22% of all essays) and Near Copies (16%). As for Near Copies, the students used them the same way L2 writers in Keck's (2006) study did, that is, 16% of all attempted paraphrases contained a Near Copy, and for that study the findings were that learners were not acknowledging sources properly because they used significantly more Near Copies than L1 writers. It is worth nothing that in Keck's research the participants were foreign students doing postgraduate studies in the United States and had a lower proficiency level. In this study, and for the participants' advanced level of proficiency, their use of Near Copies (16%) should be less frequent and the number of attempted paraphrases (58%) should be more frequent. Paraphrasing is a major writing strategy in the learners' essays, and in their texts, the participants attempted to paraphrase more frequently than L2 students in Keck's study did (nearly 6 attempted paraphrases regardless of type, compared to 5 in Keck's research). On the other hand, and for the learners' level of proficiency, they should be using Minimal Revisions less frequently. The figure for the frequency of use in Keck's study was 15% for L2 students, compared to 35 % for the participants in this research. As stated above and based on the analysis of the students' texts, it can be concluded that students in general relied on the source texts heavily and both extensive textual borrowing and difficulty paraphrasing were found.

Regarding the second type of strategy, that is, *citation*, the data show, first, that non-integral citation as a linguistic resource to attribute reported information is missing in the learners' works, and second, a limited range and repetitive format of the different types of citation analyzed in the corpus. Furthermore, in Petrić's (2007) analysis, the use of *attribution* citation percentage in low-graded theses was 92, and in this study the percentage was 82%, the *evaluation* citation percentage was 6, and in this study it was 2%, and regarding the use of the *Establishment of links between sources* percentage, it was similar to Petrić's research, around 6%. Based on those percentages of citation use, it can be concluded that students mainly used citation for *attribution* purposes, that is, for source description rather than source analysis, a finding that highlights that learners need to acquire the skills to produce greater citation use. By doing so, the students will become more efficient academic writers. Moreover, for Petrić (2007) the use of attribution may be "a characteristic of student writing in general, as compared to published writing, since this citation function helps writers display their knowledge of the topic...and it's the most common and rhetorically the simplest one" (p.247). It was not the focus of this study to analyze the essays' lexico-grammatical features, but it can be said, and it was also suggested by Petrić's (2007) study that by looking at the resources used by the students there may be a relationship between the use of citation and the students' proficiency level. This relationship, which was not explored in this study, may show the importance of the use of effective citation for academic success. Therefore, if there are quality differences in the students' grades, then those strategies may provide an insight into students' effective citation practices.

In relation to *quotation*, the third strategy analyzed, and as it was found in the corpus, many students did not signal passages as a quotation and repeated language verbatim from the source without acknowledging the author. Because the students do not signal a passage as a quotation, the reader may easily assume it has been composed by the writer. Related to unattributed text the percentage of occurrences in the corpus is about 60%, that is, 24 of 41 texts. In this study, 17 texts did not contain a direct quotation; either as brief quotations or quotation fragments, and there were many texts that were copied rather than attributed. As mentioned earlier in the Results section, the quantitative data show that 95% of all texts that contain quotation use *brief quotations* and there is a low

percentage of use of *quotation fragments* which represent only 5 % of the corpus. In this study, as in Petrić's (2012) research of high-rated and low-rated theses, it was the *brief quotation* that was the most frequent, accounting for 95% of all direct quotation. One possible explanation that may account for the high frequency of *brief direct quotations* is that low achieving students rely on quotations that can be easily inserted into their texts without modification. *Quotation fragments*, on the other hand, need to be incorporated into the writer's own sentence in order to fit syntactically and semantically, strategy that is more demanding for students with weaker skills. On the other hand, many students used ellipsis, probably to make long quotations shorter and avoid including extended quotations. This practice may show that students are unable to incorporate extended quotations into their works. Another feature found in the corpus is the lack of instances of direct quotations longer than 40 words. It could be argued that probably the students are unaware of the conventions for these quotations. Moreover, sometimes reasons to quote stem from external pressures because it makes writing faster or may result from the students' insecurity about their linguistic abilities which are essential for successful paraphrasing.

For the last strategy analyzed, that is, the use of *reporting verbs*, the students did not present the material as either expressing a positive or a negative stand and avoided using tentative verbs, which according to Hyland (1999) is a key characteristic of academic texts in the social sciences and the humanities. By using tentative verbs the students may signal they believe that the authors' propositions are correct or valid, and show they are aware of the academic conventions of their discourse community. *Factives*, are then, the most common verbs in the corpus, and they are more frequent than non-factives. On the other hand, no instances of *counter-factive* use of reporting verbs, which represent information as unreliable were found, a strategy that allows the writers to distance themselves from the original texts. In addition, and by their choice of verbs, students focused more on the authors than on their works and highlighted the role of the author rather than the research. It is essential for students to be aware of the different potential use of verbs. Further, by incorporating these linguistic resources into their works, the students will be able to show knowledge of academic writing conventions.

Focusing on the *qualitative* data results, the students' answers to the questionnaire were revealing and helped uncover certain learners' practices. Many students (54%) said

they were not ready for the assignment since they had not done their reading, however, only 3% said the essay topic was unfamiliar. Some of the students (45%) argued that shortage of time could have contributed to their lack of attribution, and most of the students (70%) said that group work assignments contribute to encourage this practice.

When answering question 4, 42% of the students did not consider it necessary to acknowledge other authors' ideas in their own works, and most of the students (58%) stated that there was no need to, since the resulting work will be different, and thus not plagiarized. In answer to question 5, most of the students (98%) showed that they understood the difference between "source of information" and "point of view." If learners realize that sources provide information, they will be able to make the distinction between what they are supposed to do as critical readers, and once they became producers of texts, they may provide their own point of view rather than "appropriate" the sources' ideas. Regarding questions 9, 10 and 11, most students (80%) said they had used attribution techniques to acknowledge sources in the past, while 15% of the students said they had not. It is worth mentioning here that the students are supposed to take the same language courses. Most learners stated that they had used these techniques before, but when consulted why they believed students in general do not quote others' works, they pointed out that learners do not attribute sources because they "hadn't been offered formal instruction" (68%), and argued they believed their classmates may have not quoted others' works because of laziness, lack of confidence in the use of conventions, lack of practice, and fear of making mistakes, among other reasons. When asked about their own attribution practices, that is, if they had made references to sources when writing the data collecting essay, only 49% of the students said they had acknowledged sources, while 20% said they had not, without providing any further explanation.

According to 3% of the learners, lack of attribution may be due to the students being unprepared for the assignment, and also because they were dealing with an unfamiliar topic. On the other hand, shortage of time may also be factored in. Most of the students, however, were able to define terms associated with source use properly, thus showing they have the theoretical background needed to comply with the academic writing conventions regarding textual borrowing. One of the reasons why students may only use a limited range

of attribution strategies is probably lack of knowledge that seems to be in line with what 68% of the students mentioned in their questionnaire answers.

Based on the previous quantitative and qualitative analysis it can be concluded that there is a mismatch in the study between what students say they do and what they really do, which is a usual finding in some questionnaires. According to Johnson (1992), surveys should be interpreted with caution since they have a number of limitations. Students' answers reflect perceptions and they can only suggest a tendency to be confirmed by further research, on the other hand, they cannot be considered evidence to confirm that the students' perceptions were actually the case. For these reasons, survey data should be interpreted in the light of the rest of the data collected.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS

Chapter four provided the description of the findings from students' text analysis and the discussion and interpretation of the results. Chapter five presents the study's applications, limitations, pedagogical implications, and possible future lines of research. This last chapter also reviews the objectives and the research questions that triggered this study and develops the conclusions reached after the analysis of the findings.

5.1 General Conclusions

Based on the preceding discussion of the Results section, it can be stated that this study has fulfilled its general objective of describing Language V students' attribution strategies and its specific objectives of analyzing, coding and exploring students' perceptions on source use. Further, this study also aimed at analyzing and describing the strategies used by the participants so as to provide a body of data that could inform future pedagogical decisions. At this point, then, it may be prudent to revisit the research questions that guided this work:

- 1) In what ways do EFL undergraduate writers use strategies to attribute authorship to source texts in their writing tasks?
- 2) What are their perspectives and their knowledge regarding the use of such strategies?

After reviewing the research questions and the hypothesis, it can be argued that the present study has provided evidence that confirms that appropriate textual borrowing for this group of advanced language proficiency learners is problematic, and that students have shown that they have difficulty in the four strategies analyzed, that is citation, paraphrasing, quotation and reporting verbs use. At this point, and in relation to the study's findings it is worth noting that some researchers (Carroll, 2004; Howard, 1995, 1999) agree that learners may feel intimidated by the task at hand, lose confidence and then resort to copying and pasting the text of others. According to Carroll (2004) there may be another

cause for inappropriate attribution such as ignorance of the academic conventions regarding textual borrowing that could be related to lack of specific instruction on source use. Therefore, and according to research, many causes may interrelate and produce the students' inappropriate textual borrowing, with or without the intention of committing a violation of the norms of academic writing.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications and Applications

The findings in this study offer insights into students' textual borrowing that will be of immediate use for the researcher's own practice and may also inform the practices of other teachers. In terms of practical applications, the results of this research could contribute to enhancing the teaching of EFL writing in the language courses offered at the Faculty of Languages, UNC. They could also be applied to other courses where source use is part of the curriculum and that are aimed at developing awareness of effective writing strategies. The most immediate application of this study will be the modification of the Language V syllabus in order to incorporate discipline-appropriate textual borrowing instruction as a specific objective for the course.

The overall implication of this study, on the other hand, is that EFL university students at an advanced level of language proficiency need direct and explicit teaching on the different types of strategies that are necessary to academic writing. It would be important for teachers to give more guidance about: the amount of citation expected, the different functions and use of integral and non-integral citation, the proper techniques for quotation, the range of reporting verbs and how to progress from extensive copying to effective paraphrasing by improving vocabulary learning. Due to their limited knowledge of source use conventions, many students are often unable to attribute sources properly. By specific instruction, learners may be enabled to produce the text types that as members of an academic community will be expected to produce, and which allow them to interact effectively with that community. Genre-based pedagogy and genre analysis are two powerful tools that may be used to aid specific instruction because they may complement one another and may guide the design and development of instructional materials and activities.

Regarding the teaching of citation, Swales (2014) pointed out that there are criticisms in the literature (Harwood, 2009, 2010; Thompson & Tribble, 2001) “about the quality of teaching materials on citation, particularly because of the stress on the mechanics of citing, rather than on its wider and more rhetorical role in orchestrating academic contexts and arguments” (p 138). Regarding the teaching of citation, Thompson and Tribble (2001), on the other hand, suggested a classification of citation purposes that can be of direct pedagogical use in the EAP classroom as students’ awareness is likely to foster their own use of citations for a range of different purposes. For them, two kinds of resources will be of benefit to learners, in line with the results found: a collection of the students’ own writing, or the writing of their peers, and a collection of texts examples selected from the target discourse community (e.g., texts from the students’ own field of study). Teachers and students should begin a systematic investigation of citation practice in genres relevant to their own needs once the appropriate text resources have been selected. By analyzing field specific texts, students will be able to develop an understanding of the linguistic role of citation and may write well formed and appropriate academic texts. Some other activities could focus on phrases for expressing different rhetorical functions of citations, such as evaluative adjectives and adverbs or types or reporting verbs used for different functions. Supervised peer review and self evaluation may become very useful techniques for specific awareness raising purposes.

In relation to the teaching of quotation, activities focusing on source use should include analysis of quotation samples in both student and published writing. Examples of students’ texts can be chosen to exemplify recurrent problems in students’ use of direct quotation, such as repeated quotation of terminology and quotations inserted without integration. Students should analyze samples of direct quotations in different types of texts, and explore issues such as frequency of use, parts of texts in which they typically occur, and types of direct quotations commonly used. Next, students should attempt to evaluate their own and their peers’ use of direct quotation in their previous assignments, finding possible ways of improvement and how to make the quotations more effective. Such activities help raise students’ rhetorical awareness of disciplinary conventions regarding quotation.

5.3 Limitations of the study

This study is subject to limitations when attempting to generalize the findings from this particular EFL setting and participants to a broader context. Although the subjects of this study could be considered representative of the population under analysis, the results may not be generalized to a population outside this context. As this study was carried out with students from three programs at an advanced level of language proficiency, the results obtained cannot be applied to other levels. Furthermore, the subjects in this study were EFL university students, so they had previous knowledge of academic writing acquired in their programs of study, and the findings reported may have been partly due to the students' previous background.

In addition, the findings of the present study should be interpreted with caution. First, the number of students, 41, only represents the student population in this particular group in the EFL programs and second, relevant factors may have influenced students writing in various ways, such as the length of writing, the class time frame allotted to the writing task, and the students' previous readings at the time of the data collection.

Again, it must be pointed out that this study was relatively small and no firm conclusions can be drawn on the basis of the limited sample. Replication of this research is essential as it would facilitate exploring the students' source use on a larger sample and over longer periods of time. The aim would be to find similar results with the same methods across multiple groups so as to better understand the acquisition and development of source use. On the other hand and despite its limitations, the study provides helpful inferences and implications for the teacher-researcher. One implication comes from the finding that L2 student writers in the present study relied on extensive copying in their English writing.

5.4 Suggestions for Further Research

This study was needed to examine the Language V students' source use strategies since many of the learners practiced inappropriate textual borrowing. There was no teaching involved, therefore, one possible future line of research could assess the impact of

pedagogical intervention in the course, in terms of explicit instruction on source use conventions.

Possible future studies of the relationship between linguistic competence and paraphrase strategy may help to explain why the L2 writers in this study used more Minimal Revisions in their Attempted Paraphrases than L1 students. On the other hand, and in a different research design, using the same instruments longitudinally could offer insight into source use development over time. Another possibility for research may be to change the data collection instrument and analyze longer texts such as research papers, rather than essays. Moreover, there is also need for studies with larger groups of students, at different levels of proficiency. Still another line of future research could analyze the use of attribution strategies in languages other than English.

Equally important, it could be relevant to analyze if similar results can be obtained in different educational contexts, mainly in other universities or tertiary level institutes in Argentina that offer teaching and translations programs in EFL. Investigations of this sort would throw light on the impact of students' level and background knowledge on source use to create effective instructional programs. In addition, future studies of attribution in texts by expert writers could also provide valuable insight. Some of the research areas could be the roles that citation, paraphrase, quotation and reporting verbs should play in the learners' writings or how university students can be helped to develop appropriate and effective textual borrowing strategies.

Finally, future studies may compare textual borrowing strategies used by high-achieving and low-achieving undergraduate students in order to explore source use specific to student writing. Finally, another line of research could explore the role of content specific courses on source use strategies teaching at the Faculty of Languages and their impact on students' performance.

5.5 Final Considerations

This study was meant to be a contribution to EAP research and teaching. Other studies are needed so that experts can understand attribution strategies as employed by university students. Certainly, such information is crucial if teachers are willing to design

pedagogical interventions that address the specific needs of L2 writers. The long range goal is to enable students to understand and write the text types that as members of the academic community they belong to are expected to produce, and thus, interact effectively with that community.

The present study focused on the need to examine students' source attribution strategies, and was carried out in an attempt to look into a perceived problem which affects learners in Language V. On the basis of the preceding results and discussion it could be argued that the participants in this study are experiencing difficulty with sources acknowledgement and may have not received the same formal instruction. However, the reasons for some students' competence over others cannot be fully explained from this data, but it seems likely that a higher starting point for some in terms of linguistic and academic level contributed to their somehow better performance. It could also be argued that some students may not transfer the skills they learn from a writing course to a new one, or to a new context, and may not know what is expected of them and what is acceptable or not in terms of source use. It may be said that a student is capable of using sources effectively as he or she employs a range of citation and reporting verbs, and paraphrases effectively and attributes carefully, and this is not the case for all students. On the other hand, the results call into question whether the students have achieved a competent level of source use over their teaching and language programs.

Furthermore, and as stated previously in the Results section, most of the students, even though they seem aware of many academic writing conventions, tended to use discourse without attribution. Equally important, findings from the surveys and analysis of the texts suggest that even though learners claim to understand terms associated with textual borrowing they did not attribute authorship appropriately when writing their essays. In fact, the data indicate that many participants in this study did not acknowledge authorship at all. The bottom line is, then, that the students in the Language V course have not achieved source use competence during their undergraduate classes.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Pre-Study Questionnaire

Facultad de Lenguas- Universidad Nacional de Córdoba- Lengua Inglesa V- Cátedra "A"

QUESTIONNAIRE

1- Please circle the terms that you understand:

reference quotation citation source footnote
summary paraphrase plagiarism endnote

2- Choose three of the words that you circled and define them below:

1. _____ :
2. _____ :
3. _____ :

3- What does this phrase mean "Use your own words"?

4- If someone reads something and it makes him/her think about an idea for an essay, should that person write that the idea is not their own?

5- Do you think original texts (books, magazines, a documentary, a movie, the Internet) are sources of information, points of view, or something else? Please explain.

6- What happens if you don't quote others works? Is there anything wrong with that?

7- What strategies or techniques do you use to refer to the work of others?

8- Have you ever (before this course) used any of those techniques?

9- Why did(n't) you make references to your reading of the articles in the essay?

10- Do you think students in general don't quote others works because they haven't been offered formal instruction on strategies or techniques?

11- Do you think group work may help encourage this practice?

12- Do you think that shortage of time may have contributed to creating the problem?

APPENDIX B

Study Questionnaire

Facultad de Lenguas- Universidad Nacional de Córdoba- Lengua Inglesa V- Cátedra "A"

QUESTIONNAIRE

1-Please circle the terms that you understand:

reference quotation citation source footnote
 summary paraphrase plagiarism endnote

2-Choose three of the words that you circled and define them below:

a. _____ :

b. _____ :

c. _____ :

3- What does this phrase mean "Use your own words"?

4- If someone reads something and it makes him/her think about an idea for an essay, should that person write that the idea is not their own?

5- Do you think original texts (books, magazines, a documentary, a movie, the Internet) are sources of information, points of view, or something else? Please explain.

6- How do you refer to other people's words in your essays?

7- What happens if you don't quote others works? Is there anything wrong with that?

8- What strategies or techniques do you use to refer to the work of others?

9- Have you ever (before this course) used any of those techniques?

10- Do you think students in general don't quote others works because they haven't been offered formal instruction on strategies or techniques?

11- Why did(n't) you make references to your reading of the articles in the essay?

12- Were you unprepared for the assignment?

13- Was it an unfamiliar topic?

14- Do you think that shortage of time may have contributed to creating the problem in this particular assignment?

15- Do you think group work may help encourage this practice?

APPENDIX C

Student Consent Form

Facultad de Lenguas- Universidad Nacional de Córdoba- Lengua Inglesa V- Cátedra “A”

The researcher, Marina Pasquini, guarantees that:

- 1- All project participant identities will remain confidential and the writing activities will be used solely for the purposes of discussing research findings.
- 2- The results of this research project will only be used for the writing of her Master’s Program thesis (Applied Linguistics), and may be used for some conference papers and eventually for academic publication.

I consent to participate in the research study about academic writing conducted by Marina Pasquini. If you agree to participate, please sign and date this document below:

Participant’s signature: _____

Print Name: _____

Researcher’s signature: _____

APPENDIX D

Contingency table for teacher-researcher/rater 1

RATER 1	TEACHER-RESEARCHER								Total
	1	2	3	5	6	7	10	12	
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
2	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
3	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	3
4	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	2
5	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
6	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	2
9	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total	1	1	4	3	1	1	2	1	14

Contingency table for teacher-researcher/rater 2

RATER 2	TEACHER-RESEARCHER						Total
	4	5	6	7	8	9	
3	0	1	1	0	0	0	2
4	2	3	0	0	0	0	5
6	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
7	0	0	0	1	2	1	4
9	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Total	2	4	2	1	2	3	14

APPENDIX E

Classroom Reading Assignments