

---

**Source-use Practice in Research Reports: The Case of  
Colleges of Applied Sciences Undergraduates in the  
Disciplines of Accounting and International Business**

Faiza Zahran Saif Al-Dhahli

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

The University of Leeds

School of Education

February, 2020

## **Intellectual Property and Publication Statements**

The candidate confirms that the work submitted is his/her own and that appropriate credit has been given where reference has been made to the work of others

This copy has been supplied on the understanding that it is copyright material and that no quotation from the thesis may be published without proper acknowledgement.

© 2020 The University of Leeds and Faiza Zahran Al-Dhahli

The right of Faiza Zahran Al-Dhahli to be identified as Author of this work has been asserted by her in accordance with the Copyright, Designs and Patents Act 1988

## **Dedication**

This work is dedicated to the late Qaboos bin Said, modern-day Oman's founding father (1970-2020), the Sultan of Oman, whose life was devoted to making Oman a destination of prosperity and peace. His wisdom is forever a beacon to the future of Oman.

*The success of the human experience is the result of constant endeavour, commitment, will and a sense of responsibility. No nation can realize its goals unless its people work together to build its future and develop its potential. We are confident that all of you – both men and women – will play your part in developing and building up this Omani enterprise, reinforcing its roots and raising its structure. (Qaboos, 1986)*

## Acknowledgments

I would like to start by thanking Almighty Allah for giving me the strength and courage to overcome the hardships I endured in the past four years to successfully complete my thesis.

I am also indebted to special people without whom the completion of this thesis would have been impossible. First and foremost, I sincerely thank my supervisors, Prof. Alice Deignan and Dr Simon Green, for their patience, productive support and valuable guidance throughout my research process. I would also like to acknowledge the emotional support and genuine care from my colleagues in Hillary Place without whom the writing journey would have been unbearable.

I would also like to acknowledge my wonderful research participants in CAS who made this research a reality with their candid insights and experiences. Special appreciation goes to the College Dean, Department of International Business, and the college administration staff at CAS for facilitating all logistical needs during the process of my data collection.

I am also grateful for my angel Noor who with her little sisters Sara, Ayah and Alaa formed the circle of love every night to give mummy the doses of love she needed for the next day. For their unconditional love and support, I am always indebted. I strove through all challenges because of you and for you. I love you and thank you for making me a proud mum.

To my rock and my other half (Abdullah), I am always and forever thankful for not expecting nor demanding perfection from me and for all the sacrifices you made to support my choices in life. I also want to express my heartfelt gratitude to my parents and dear brothers and sisters for their prayers and infinite support. You have always encouraged my dreams to pursue education and supported me through every challenge. Last, but not least, thank you Amal, Amira and Sara for the unconditional friendship. I am blessed to have you in my life.



## Abstract

Source-use practice is important to the construction of scientific knowledge. This study attempts to develop understanding of the use of sources in undergraduate research report writing. It is situated in one college of the Colleges of Applied Sciences (CAS) in Oman, and examines the different rhetorical functions of citations used by final-year Accounting and International Business students, as well as the contextual layers that seem to have shaped students' source-use practices. Data were collected from 11 students from each discipline and their 6 teachers, and 22 research reports were analysed to identify the rhetorical function of all citations appearing in all sections of students' research reports. Petrić's (2007) typology, which consists of 9 functions of citations, was used to analyse the data.

Results of the textual analysis show that most citations were located in the literature review chapters, and citations were mainly used to display knowledge and summarize sources. There were a few attempts to use sources for more complex rhetorical functions in both disciplines; these attempts were only made by students with a higher level of English proficiency. Findings also suggest two new functions that are not included in Petrić's typology: textual structuring and acknowledgment of authorship for content display. These functions further indicate students' extreme lack of understanding of the role of sources in academic writing and their inability to synthesize.

In addition, relevant documents were examined and interviews with the students and their teachers were conducted. Analysis of these data suggest that the college, department, task, teacher, and prior student cohorts all play a role in influencing students' source-use knowledge and practices.

Pedagogical implications are suggested to inform EAP instruction regarding the teaching of source use and to guide constructive collaboration between EAP teachers and subject-area teachers in CAS to support the teaching of citation use.

## Table of Contents

<b>Intellectual Property and Publication Statements</b> .....	<b>i</b>
<b>Dedication</b> .....	<b>ii</b>
<b>Acknowledgments</b> .....	<b>iii</b>
<b>Abstract</b> .....	<b>iv</b>
<b>Table of Contents</b> .....	<b>v</b>
<b>List of Tables</b> .....	<b>xi</b>
<b>List of Figures</b> .....	<b>xiii</b>
<b>List of Abbreviations</b> .....	<b>xiv</b>
<b>Chapter 1: Introduction</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1 Motivation for the study .....	1
1.2 Structure of the thesis .....	3
<b>Chapter 2: Research context</b> .....	<b>6</b>
2.1 Colleges of Applied Sciences.....	6
2.1.1 Status of English Language in CAS.....	7
2.1.2 Academic writing in CAS.....	8
2.1 Source-use context for CAS students .....	9
2.1.1 EAP courses in CAS .....	10
2.1.2 CAS-EAP textbooks .....	11
2.1.3 Challenges of EAP textbooks in language learning in relation to CAS .....	12
2.1.4 Source-use in EAP textbooks .....	14
2.2 The disciplines of Accounting and International Business .....	16
2.2.1 Accounting as a discipline.....	16
2.2.2 International Business as a discipline .....	18
2.2.3 International Business Administration Programme in CAS .....	19
2.3 Summary of the chapter .....	22
<b>Chapter 3 : Literature Review</b> .....	<b>23</b>
3.1 Introduction .....	23
3.2 Frameworks: Sociocultural theory and intertextuality.....	23
3.2.1 Sociocultural theory .....	23
3.2.2 ZPD in SCT and learning of source-use .....	26
3.2.3 Intertextuality theory.....	28

3.3	Context of writing and construction of academic texts .....	37
3.3.1	Understanding the context of writing.....	37
3.3.2	Defining a discourse .....	43
3.3.3	Role of texts in understanding the discourse of academic institutions.....	47
3.3.4	The genre-based view of discourse .....	49
3.3.5	Research report as a genre .....	51
3.4	Rhetorical functions of citations typologies .....	52
3.4.1	Methodological approaches to understanding the functions of citations.....	53
3.4.2	Typologies of rhetorical functions of citations .....	56
3.4.3	Practice of source-use in undergraduate contexts...75	
3.5	Challenges of source-based writing and suggestions for pedagogical actions .....	81
3.6	Rationale for the study .....	94
3.7	Research questions .....	96
3.8	Summary of the chapter.....	96
<b>Chapter 4: Research Methodology and Methods .....</b>		<b>98</b>
4.1	Introduction .....	98
4.2	Philosophical worldviews influencing the research strategy ....	98
4.2.1	Positivist and interpretivist worldviews.....	100
4.2.2	Situating the study in a philosophical research worldview .....	102
4.3	Mixed-method research .....	103
4.3.1	Mixed-method sequential design .....	106
4.4	Case study design.....	108
4.4.1	Reasons for using case-study research.....	109
4.4.2	Types of case study .....	111
4.4.3	Methodological concerns in case studies .....	113
4.5	Recruitment of participants and choice of research site .....	114
4.5.1	Sampling .....	115
4.5.2	Establishing contact with the participants .....	120
4.5.3	Research site .....	122
4.6	Pilot study.....	123
4.6.1	Modifications informed by the piloting stage .....	124

4.6.2	Differences between the current study and the piloting stage .....	125
4.7	Data collection and instruments .....	126
4.7.1	Text analysis .....	126
4.7.2	Interviews .....	130
4.7.3	Official documents.....	132
4.8	Mapping of the methods onto the research questions .....	132
4.9	Data analysis procedure .....	133
4.9.1	Quantitative text analysis .....	133
4.9.2	Qualitative analysis .....	135
4.10	Trustworthiness in this research .....	152
4.10.1	Credibility .....	152
4.10.2	Transferability.....	153
4.10.3	Dependability .....	153
4.10.4	Confirmability .....	153
4.11	Ethical considerations .....	154
4.11.1	Participant information sheet .....	155
4.11.2	Participant consent form .....	157
4.11.3	Confidentiality and anonymity .....	155
4.11	Summary of the chapter .....	157
<b>Chapter 5: Quantitative Analysis and Findings.....</b>		<b>158</b>
5.1	Procedures of the textual analysis .....	158
5.1.1	Step 1: Creating an Excel spreadsheet for each discipline: IB and Accounting .....	159
5.1.2	Step 2: Identifying all occurrences of citations in every research report.....	159
5.1.3	Step 3: Identifying the type of citation and rhetorical functions of citations.....	159
5.1.4	Step 4: Verification of each function of citations ....	168
5.1.5	Step 5: Frequencies of rhetorical functions of citations per 1000 words in each chapter.....	171
5.2	Results of the textual analysis between the Accounting and IB research reports .....	174
5.2.1	Results of the textual analysis of Accounting research reports .....	174

5.2.2	Results of the textual analysis of IB research reports .....	178
5.2.3	Variations of rhetorical functions of citations between Accounting and IB textual analysis of research reports .	181
5.3	Summary of the chapter .....	184
<b>Chapter 6: Qualitative Findings .....</b>		<b>186</b>
6.1	Introduction.....	186
6.2	The college.....	187
6.2.1	Perception of source-use practice as a tool to avoid plagiarism.....	187
6.2.2	Lack of logistics to support source-use practice ....	191
6.2.3	Summary.....	198
6.3	The department.....	199
6.3.1	Assessment of source-use practice .....	200
6.3.2	Lack of enculturation into disciplinary discourse ....	203
6.3.3	Challenges related to the structure of the course ..	205
6.3.4	Summary.....	209
6.4	The Task .....	209
6.4.1	Unfamiliar genre.....	210
6.4.2	Relevance of the task to undergraduates .....	215
6.4.3	Summary.....	217
6.5	The teachers .....	217
6.5.1	Teachers' attitudes towards source-use practice in the discipline .....	218
6.5.2	The role of subject teachers in teaching writing in the discipline .....	221
6.5.3	Summary.....	225
6.6	Prior student cohorts .....	226
6.6	Summary of the chapter .....	228
<b>Chapter 7: Discussion .....</b>		<b>230</b>
7.1	Introduction .....	230
7.2	Rhetorical functions of citations in Accounting and IB research reports .....	231
7.2.1	Extending Petrić's (2007) typology of rhetorical functions of citations.....	236

7.3	The influence of the context of writing on students' source-use practice.....	238
7.3.1	. Anxiety about using citations for more complex rhetorical functions.....	239
7.3.2	Writing in the discipline .....	245
7.3.3	Teaching of citation practice in different genres.....	253
7.4	Participant variables in shaping source-use skills .....	257
7.4.1	Proficiency in English language .....	258
7.4.2	Transferability of EAP skills.....	262
7.5	Summary of the chapter .....	266
<b>Chapter 8: Conclusion .....</b>		<b>268</b>
8.1	Introduction .....	268
8.2	Summary of key findings .....	268
8.3	Contribution of the study .....	272
8.4	Implications of the study.....	275
8.4.1	Implications for the understanding of source-use practice at the undergraduate level.....	275
8.4.2	Implications for practice at CAS .....	277
8.5	Limitations of the study .....	280
8.6	Recommendations for future research.....	281
8.7	Concluding remarks .....	282
<b>List of References .....</b>		<b>284</b>
<b>Appendix A Interview Questions .....</b>		<b>297</b>
A.1	Interview questions for IB and Accounting students .....	297
A.2	Interview questions for teachers .....	299

<b>Appendix B Research Ethical Approval.....</b>	<b>301</b>
<b>Appendix C Research Information Sheet.....</b>	<b>303</b>
<b>Appendix D Research Consent Form.....</b>	<b>305</b>
<b>Appendix E Authorization Letter for Data Collection.....</b>	<b>306</b>
<b>Appendix F CAS-Plagiarism Policy .....</b>	<b>307</b>
<b>Appendix G Examples of Analysed Pages From a Research Report.....</b>	<b>309</b>
<b>Appendix H Evaluation Rubric .....</b>	<b>311</b>
<b>Appendix I Inter-Rater Agreement Form .....</b>	<b>312</b>

## List of Tables

Table 1: CAS-EAP courses .....	11
Table 2: Credit hours and number of courses of IBA degree requirements .....	20
Table 3: Moravcsik and Murugesan (1975) Classification of Citation .....	53
Table 4: Mansourizadeh and Ahmad's (2011) analysis framework.....	63
Table 5: Summary of Petrić's (2007) typology .....	68
Table 6: Existing problems related to L2 source use .....	84
Table 7: Mapping of the research questions onto the theoretical framework.....	96
Table 8: Participant students' GPA and EAP grade .....	117
Table 9: Criteria for participant sampling.....	118
Table 10: IB course details.....	119
Table 11: Accounting course details .....	120
Table 12: Research instruments of the research questions .....	132
Table 13: Examples of the challenges of translating Arabic to English.....	139
Table 14: Braun and Clarke's (2006) phases of thematic analysis and their matching description in Miles and Huberman's (1994) stages of qualitative analysis.....	141
Table 15: Themes and sub-themes identified in the analysis .....	151
Table 16: Credibility measures in this research (Shenton, 2004, p. 73).....	152
Table 17: Examples of the linguistic signals for each function of citations in Petrić's typology .....	161
Table 18: Examples of Petrić's functions of citations from Accounting reports	162
Table 19: Examples of Petrić's functions of citations from IB reports .....	163
Table 20: Case processing summary.....	169
Table 21: Rater1* Rater2 crosstabulation .....	170
Table 22: Symmetric measures.....	170
Table 23: Integral and non-integral citations for each rhetorical function in Accounting research reports (%).....	176
Table 24: Integral and non-integral citations for each rhetorical function in IB research reports (%).....	179
Table 25: Rhetorical functions of citations in Accounting and IB research reports (%).....	182
Table 26: Rhetorical functions of citations by chapter in Accounting research reports (%).....	183



Table 27: Rhetorical functions of citations by chapter in IB Research reports (%).....	183
Table 28: Symbols in the quotations .....	186
Table 29: Examples of teachers' comments about the use of sources in the first draft of the reports .....	219
Table 30: Teachers' academic and work experiences .....	222
Table 31: Academic writing and levels of learning (Wingate, 2006, p. 462).....	248
Table 32: GPAs and EAP grade of students who used more complex functions of citations .....	259

## List of Figures

Figure 1: Layers of contexts taxonomy (Samraj, 2002, p. 165).....	41
Figure 2: An alternative dynamic/interactive model to Samraj (2002).....	42
Figure 3: Characteristics of texts (Alba-Juez, 2009) .....	47
Figure 4: A multiple-case study .....	112
Figure 5: A sample of a coded transcript.....	143
Figure 6: An example of listing all excerpts that share one code .....	144
Figure 7: An initial conceptual map of analysis findings .....	146
Figure 8: Developed thematic map .....	147
Figure 9: Final themes representing the contextual layers.....	148
Figure 10: Screenshot of types of citations in each chapter in each report (Accounting Excel spreadsheet).....	160
Figure 11: Screenshot of types of citations in each chapter in each report (IB Excel spreadsheet).....	161
Figure 12: Total word counts of each chapter per each Accounting participant (excluding abstracts, references list and appendices).....	171
Figure 13: Frequencies of functions of citations per 1000 words by chapter in ACCT reports.....	172
Figure 14: Frequencies of functions of citations per 1000 words by chapter in IB reports .....	173
Figure 15: Frequencies of functions of citations per 1000 words in each chapter of Accounting research reports.....	175
Figure 16: Integral and non-integral citations across all chapters in Accounting reports per 1000 words.....	177
Figure 17: Frequencies of functions of citations per 1000 words in each chapter of IB research reports .....	178
Figure 18: Integral and non-integral citations across all chapters in IB reports	180
Figure 19: Frequency of types of citations in Accounting and IB research reports per 1000 words.....	184

**List of Abbreviations**

CAS	Colleges of Applied Sciences
L1	English as a first language
L2	English as a second/foreign language
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
APA	The 6th edition of the Publication manual of the American Psychological Association (APA)
SCT	Sociocultural Theory
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development
ACCT	The discipline of Accounting
IB	The discipline of International Business
NLS	New Literacy Studies
NNES	Non Native English Speakers
ELT	English Language Teaching

## Chapter 1: Introduction

This introductory chapter describes my motivation for conducting this study and outlines the structure of the thesis. For the purpose of description and discussion in this chapter and throughout this thesis, the most used acronym (CAS) is used to refer to the Colleges of Applied Sciences, the higher education institutions within one of which this research was conducted.

### 1.1 Motivation for the study

This study was motivated by my own academic and work experiences. When I started my study at the University of Leeds, my supervisors asked me to read the literature on academic writing to develop a deeper understanding of the field of my research. I read different sources and summarized their key points. I thought I had done well summarizing and highlighting the main arguments and contributions of what I had read. However, the feedback from my supervisors was heavily critical. Some of their comments included *“you need to be critical”*, *“you will be writing a PhD thesis and you need to add to the body of knowledge, and the key is to find the gap and participate in filling it”*. I understood that writing a thesis was unlike any other writing task I had encountered, but I was unsure about how best to critique these well-known authors. I considered questions such as “How am I supposed to be critical?”, “What should I be critical about?”, “Can I be critical of well-published authors?”, “How can I add to this well-stated body of knowledge with my limited knowledge and skills?” My first approach to understanding my supervisors’ comments was to spend more time reading and listening to tutorial videos about being critical in academic writing and composing a PhD thesis. I also had a productive discussion with my supervisors about their comments, which helped me understand why my writing was more descriptive and less analytical. I understand now that I had been taught, historically, to write descriptively. The pedagogical input from my past academic learning had not prepared me to write critically, nor had I been expected to do so. My experience

of writing formerly consisted of summarizing previous knowledge, but now my understanding of academic writing focuses on making new knowledge.

This understanding was developed from exploring the significance of intertextuality when composing critical academic writing and constructing new knowledge. Writing that is always based on sources requires the use of sources for complex rhetorical functions to be described as critical and academic. It also requires an understanding that borrowing from other sources should not consist of only paraphrasing these sources, but rather contribute to what has been stated. Upon reaching the level of postgraduate study, it is expected that the knowledge and skills necessary to use prior literature to create new meaning have been acquired. However, this was not the case for me and many others who were not taught to fully and properly use citations in academic writing. There was little pedagogical instruction about the practice of using sources in my previous academic learning, which was limited to the appropriation of citations and the description of sources. The lack of pedagogical support I experienced, when using sources for more critical writing, is a significant reason for the challenges I face when using sources while writing. This realisation greatly motivated me to explore this issue further in the undergraduate context, given the assumption that students learn all aspects of language and subject-content necessary to qualify for postgraduate study. They are expected to be able to write analytically and to abide by the regulations and norms of source-based writing in different genres and disciplines.

Reflecting on my own challenges with critical writing encouraged me to investigate the practice of source-use when writing from sources in my work context. I have worked for the College of Applied Sciences for six years as an EAP/ESP teacher, Programme Coordinator, and head of the English Department. My investigation was motivated by my interest in understanding how CAS students use sources in their writing and what factors shape their practice. Considering my experience of teaching EAP in CAS, I understand citation practice was taught as a mechanical skill to reference used sources and to avoid plagiarism. A priority for CAS was ensuring students were warned about the consequences of plagiarism. This was discussed during any meeting held

with the heads of academic departments and the college deanship. A threatening tone was evident in most of the documents we gave students related to the use of citations, as this practice was mostly associated with avoiding plagiarism. The focus on scaring students away from plagiarizing had made the teaching staff behave like the “guardians of academic values and standards” (Flowerdew & Li, 2007, p. 171), rather than allowing them to teach. However, this had not reduced the incidence of plagiarism. I was a member of the committee formed to investigate plagiarism cases in CAS, and our main task was to decide the penalty for plagiarism. In most cases, the penalty was to fail students for the plagiarized work. During my four years of membership in this committee, there was little effort made to understand why students plagiarize and what the college could have done beyond warning and failing students for this act. Understanding citations as a technical skill for avoiding plagiarism instead of offering instructions to use sources to produce critical academic writing made me feel responsible for the struggle that CAS-graduates face. This continues into their postgraduate studies where, with the standards of academic writing, they face the expectation of contributing to existing knowledge.

In summary, my interest in writing from sources derives from my care for CAS to be a supportive context for students’ academic learning needs. Reflecting on both my personal learning experience and my teaching of EAP in CAS, I have developed a motivated mission to support CAS students’ practice of source-use to make them better writers. This, however, requires a thorough understanding of what students know and can do and how we can pedagogically support their academic writing to be more effective and critical. It also requires identifying the challenges they experience when writing from sources to guide the types of reforms and support our students’ needs to overcome these challenges.

## **1.2 Structure of the thesis**

There are eight chapters in this thesis. This chapter has introduced the motivation for the study. Chapter 2 describes the context in which this study was conducted and offers a general overview of the pedagogy of source-based writing in CAS.

Chapter 3 positions the research within the literature on source-use by expert and novice writers and provides the rationale for this study. The main theoretical concepts discussed include intertextuality, sociocultural theory and the understanding of discourse. This chapter also explains the role of context in shaping the production of text in a discourse community.

Chapter 4 provides a detailed account of the methodological orientation of the research. It starts by explaining the philosophical worldviews which justify the methodological design, which in turn guides and informs the procedures for data collection and analysis. This chapter also explicates the interpretive approach of this study to best reflect the beliefs which aim to gain deep insight into, and understanding of, CAS students' source-based writing. Further, Chapter 4 discusses the use of an exploratory, mixed-method design to answer the research questions, given that the study explores the practice of functions of citations regarding the kinds of rhetorical functions students use (quantitative analysis) and the factors which possibly influence their practice (qualitative analysis). Then an explanation of the choice of a case-study strategy to gain a deep contextual understanding of source-use practice is offered. Finally, a detailed discussion of the research instruments, research site, participants, sampling and ethical considerations is provided.

Chapter 5 presents the quantitative findings of the textual analysis of research reports for CAS-IB and CAS-Accounting students. It also provides a detailed description of the procedures followed in the identification of forms and functions of every citation in every report. The textual analysis relied on the linguistic contexts in which citations occurred to identify the functions of citations suggested by Petrić's (2007) typology and to explain the identification of the new functions. The findings are presented in tables and charts to demonstrate the percentages of each rhetorical function identified in every text. The tables and charts are also used to identify any differences in the findings between the two disciplines.

Chapter 6 is dedicated to the qualitative portion of the data collection process. It responds to the fourth aim of the study concerning identification of the contextual layers which play a critical role in shaping CAS-students' use of sources in

source-based writing. Excerpts from interviews and official documents are provided to rationalise the consideration of each layer in impacting students' writing from sources.

Chapter 7 discusses and interprets the findings in relation to prior research from different contexts. Chapter 8 provides a general summary of the study and discusses recommendations and pedagogical implications for better supporting source-based writing in CAS.



## Chapter 2: Research context

This chapter contextualises the study by describing the Colleges of Applied Sciences (CAS), which are public tertiary education institutions in Oman. The first section includes a general description of CAS, the status of the English language in CAS, and the importance of academic writing in assessment in higher education in CAS. The second section introduces the teaching context of source-use in CAS through discussing English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teaching materials, as they are perceived to be the provider of any language-related knowledge including source-use practice. The last section provides an introduction to the investigated disciplines: Accounting and International Business.

### 2.1 Colleges of Applied Sciences

The Colleges of Applied Sciences are operated by the Ministry of Higher Education in Oman (MoHE). They are: CAS-Nizwa, CAS-Salalah, CAS-Sur, CAS-Sohar and CAS-Ibri. The five Colleges of Applied Sciences are located in different governorates throughout the Sultanate. They were colleges of education which prepared teachers for school teaching with a Bachelor of Education degree. They were then transformed into Colleges of Applied Sciences in 2007 “as part of the Ministry of Higher Education’s (MoHE) continuous endeavours to upgrade the offerings of the higher education institutes under its jurisdiction and bring them into line with ever-changing demands and standards of the labour market” (CAS-Nizwa, 2012, p. 19). The five Colleges of Applied Sciences offer different majors which seek to “meet national and regional employment needs, prepare students for postgraduate studies and lifelong learning, equip them with the knowledge and skills necessary to excel as future professionals, and contribute to Oman’s economy and society” (*ibid*, p.19).

The Colleges of Applied Sciences are public colleges, and their students are Omanis who received their high school diplomas from either public or private schools. Students’ admission to CAS is managed by the Higher Education Admission Centre and follows the five Colleges’ admission standards. “Allocation

to institution and major is determined by students' achievement in the General Education Diploma as well as demonstration of any major specific requirements" (CAS-Nizwa, 2012, p. 20). One admission criterion for the five Colleges is to have a C grade (70-75/100) or above in the subject of English Language. This is very low to meet the English requirements and demands in the five Colleges (Al-Issaei, 2017).

### **2.1.1 Status of English Language in CAS**

English has established itself as the world's lingua franca (Mauranen & Ranta, 2009). The importance of the English language derives from the fact that English has become the language of technology, science, arts and commerce. Consequently, Oman, like other GCC nations, has adopted English as the medium of instruction in higher education, despite the challenges this poses for students leaving Arabic-medium secondary education. Al-Balushi (1999) stated:

*As an international language, English is perceived by many as the future language of the global village. In Oman - as in many parts of the world - English has become the language of education, technical and vocational training, the workforce, the technology [...] English came to be perceived by many Omani officials and authorities as the second language through which all economics, technological, vocational, educational, and communicative functions could be conducted. (p. 5, as cited in Al-Issa, 2005)*

All courses offered by the degree programmes in CAS are taught and assessed in English. Prior to starting these degree programmes in CAS, students are required to pass the Foundation Programme requirements, which include English, computer skills and Mathematics. Failure to pass the Foundation Programme requirements results in dismissal from CAS. The completion of the foundation programme is, supposedly, a representation of English competency at Band 5 in Academic IELTS. The post-foundation programme is English for Academic Purposes (EAP), a programme designed to "develop students' ability to understand and express increasingly complex ideas about personal and basic academic topics through the skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing" (MOHE, 2017a, p.1). It is crucial that CAS students obtain a good level of English proficiency to be able to manage their academic study requirements successfully (Al-Badwawi, 2011; Al-Issaei, 2017). However, like other higher education

colleges in GCC, the levels of English “with which students enter first year degree studies are markedly lower than the level they require to cope with their lectures, complete their assigned reading and write their assignments and exams” (Green, 2020, p. 1). These linguistic challenges can “severely restrict students’ ability to learn and to develop the ‘academic literacy’ skills they require to construct and share knowledge through the medium of English” (p. 2).

### **2.1.2 Academic writing in CAS**

Students’ understanding of and progress in their courses in some higher education contexts are mostly evaluated based on their writing submissions. For example, writing in higher education in the UK is “a key assessment tool, with students passing or failing courses according to the ways in which they respond to, and engage in, academic writing tasks” (Lillis, 2001, p. 20). This is not to underestimate the value of other literacy practices but to emphasise the significance of academic writing as the most important linguistic practice required to succeed in academic study (Al-Badwawi, 2011; Leki & Carson, 1994; Lillis, 2001). Al-Badwawi (2011) elaborated that

*Students’ success at tertiary level is measured by their competence in their discipline areas as shown by the production of written academic texts that conform to the norms and conventions valued by their discourse communities at the level of organisation and argumentation as well as at the surface level. Therefore, the ability to write well is highly valued and emphasised by academics in higher education institutions as a means for students achieving academic success and for demonstrating this achievement. (p. 2)*

The educational system in the five CASs gives significant importance to academic writing as a key to success in higher education. Students’ writing in the five CASs is perceived as a reflective tool of students’ linguistic ability and subject knowledge. It is given higher credit compared to the other academic requirements (Al-Badwawi, 2011). Students with low levels of writing are likely to fail and get expelled, as writing requirements represent a significant weight of the total course grade across all subjects. For example, when students start their degree programme in International Business Administration (IBA), their assessment will be either a submission of written essays, presentation of a written project, or examination questions which require students to illustrate their

answers through academic writing. The minimum weight for a written assignment in the IBA programme is 20% of the total weight of the course (MOHE, 2019). Thus academic writing is always worth studying and exploring for the continuous improvement of this very important skill that carries the heavy load of assessment in tertiary education (Lillis, 2001). However, the pursuit of the five CASs to improve students' academic writing, in which source-use is a key element, is not reflected in the graduates' attributes. This can be problematic. Given that all five CASs' policies and plans must be in conformity with the graduates' attributes, academic writing is not given the consideration and concern it needs to improve. More attention should be given to improving CAS students' academic writing to reflect the CAS' mission, which aspires to "prepare students for postgraduate studies and lifelong learning" (CAS-Nizwa, 2012, p. 19).

## **2.1 Source-use context for CAS students**

Prior studies from different contexts found that the teaching of citation in academic writing has been perceived as the responsibility of teachers of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (Davis, 2013; James, 2006; Shi 2004; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). An important reason for this convention is the perception of academic writing as a literacy skill which should be delivered, pedagogically, by literacy teachers (Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hunter & Tse, 2013). In most tertiary teaching contexts where English is the medium of instruction, subject teachers expect their students to be equipped with sufficient knowledge of academic writing to meet the linguistic demands of their assessments (*ibid*). The same expectations are made by CAS subject teachers, who should be more involved with supporting academic writing in their discipline. They assume students come from their EAP courses with sufficient knowledge of academic writing to cope with the assessment requirements of their subjects (Al-Badwawi, 2011). However, within the context of CAS, in which EAP courses offer general academic English that is not related to the content nor to the conventions of writing in the subjects offered, this expectation is not realistic. Source-use practice as a fundamental feature of academic writing is the responsibility of CAS-EAP courses despite the fact that the practice of citation varies across

genres and disciplines (Davis, 2013; Harwood, 2009; Petrić, 2007; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). It is therefore important to give an overview of the EAP context at CAS to understand the kind of support and preparation CAS-students are offered regarding source-based disciplinary writing.

### **2.1.1 EAP courses in CAS**

EAP courses at CAS aim to equip students with the linguistic skills necessary to successfully manage their study requirements in their programmes, given that the medium of instruction is English in all academic programmes (MOHE, 2017a). In theory, CAS offers two EAP courses in the first year of study and two ESP (English for Specific Purposes) courses in the second year of study, see Table 1. However, in practice, ESP teaching materials do not differ from the EAP content. ESP textbooks are the upper level of the same textbooks used for EAP courses. They offer no instructions related to the content of students' academic programmes. The only difference is that when doing ESP courses, students are allocated different sections according to their academic department. For example, students who are doing majors in the International Business department - accounting, tourism, IB, and management - register for a different section than students from the Communication Studies programme or Information Technology programme (see Table 1). However, the content of the teaching materials, course objectives, assessment rubric and guidelines are the same across all sections, except for the report assessment in the final course of ESP. Students from different programmes are supposed to write about a topic related to their majors:

*The project gives each student the chance to work on a topic of their choice, related to their major, and to produce spoken and written outputs that they can plan, draft and revise over time with the support of both their class-mates and their teacher (MOEH, 2017c, p.1)*

Other than the topic of the project, the process of writing is the same, including the requirements of the assessment task, the evaluation rubric, and the text genre (essay report). There are no indications in the project materials of the conventions of writing in a discipline or of the expectations of genre discursive practices in a specific discipline. The writing task is presented to students as one set process which requires the same practice of citation, including using a

specific number of sources, using APA referencing style and surviving the plagiarism report generated by the Safeassign plagiarism detection software used in CAS. Therefore, ESP courses in CAS do not reflect the understanding of ESP as “an approach to language learning which is based on learner need” (Hutchinson & Waters, 2002, p.19).

**Table 1: CAS-EAP courses**

<i>ENAP 1001</i>	<i>First (Autumn) semester of study</i>	<i>No pre-requisite</i>	- Inside Reading 1 (Reading)
<i>ENAP1002</i>	<i>Second (Spring) semester of study</i>	<i>ENAP1001</i>	- Lecture Ready 1 (Listening) - Effective Academic Writing 2 (Writing)
<i>ENAP 2001</i>	<i>Third (Autumn) semester of study</i>	<i>ENAP1002</i>	- Inside Reading 2 (Reading)
<i>ENIT2002</i> <i>ENGL2255</i> <i>ENDN2001</i> <i>ENMC2003</i>	<i>Fourth (Spring) semester of study</i>	<i>ENAP2001</i>	- Lecture Ready 2 (Listening) - Effective Academic Writing 3 (Writing)

To summarize, CAS offers EAP to support CAS-students’ academic studies. There are no teaching materials for language learning which are based on a systematic investigation of students’ academic needs. The teaching of the English language in CAS depends on the syllabus of commercially-published textbooks, except for the assessment of the written projects. More details are given in the next section.

### **2.1.2 CAS-EAP textbooks**

As in many tertiary education contexts, teaching EAP courses in CAS is mostly dependent on commercially-published textbooks (refer to Table 1). CAS-EAP teachers are expected to dedicate their class time to covering the content of the textbooks. As reported by Al-Issaei (2017), the textbooks used for the EAP courses in CAS do not sufficiently address CAS students’ learning needs or course objectives. The gap between the content of textbooks used in CAS and the linguistic and academic demands in the other subjects has not been bridged by alternatives which can better achieve the courses’ objectives or better prepare

students for their academic specializations. Al-Issaei (2017) also highlighted the frustration of CAS-EAP teachers about the textbooks used in EAP courses, stating that the textbooks are not suitable for the level of students and that CAS should attempt to design their own supplementary teaching materials which are in line with students' academic needs and the programme's objectives. They also expressed their dissatisfaction regarding their exclusion from participating in the process of curriculum design and development. Although there were a few individual attempts to write ESP materials related to writing assignments by some staff in 2010, these materials were not updated or reviewed and their writers are no longer in CAS. Designing in-house EAP materials can be a very challenging task for CAS if there is no clear systematic plan to ensure the quality, completion and update of the materials and to resolve the high turnover of staff who play key roles in the review of these materials. Overall, this discontent over EAP and ELT textbooks is not unique to CAS, as has been discussed in prior literature in different educational contexts.

### **2.1.3 Challenges of EAP textbooks in language learning in relation to CAS**

When addressing the limitations of EAP textbooks in CAS or elsewhere, it is important to relate them to other contexts to understand whether these limitations are context-specific or general concerns shared by other contexts. EAP textbooks may play a role in facilitating the process of language learning as they can provide systematic syllabi which offer learners a clear and structured map of the course objectives, tasks and assessment (Harwood, 2005; Swales, 1980; Tawalbeh, 2018). EAP or general ELT textbooks can also provide both teachers and learners with ready-made lessons that cover a wide selection of activities and exercises which can ease instructors' teaching and provide learners with opportunities for self-learning (Tawalbeh, 2018). However, in his description of the anti-textbook view, Harwood (2005) stated that there is lack of EAP scholars who are enthusiastic to participate in writing EAP textbooks. This is owing to the claims of anti-textbook advocates who argue that textbooks are designed to be commercially successful rather than 'pedagogically sound'. Moreover, "disciplinary variations in style and language" are revealed to be undervalued in

language teaching textbooks (*ibid.*, p.150). This is despite the fact that subject teachers usually depend on EAP courses to prepare students for writing in the discipline (Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hunter & Tse, 2013).

Allwright (1981) advocated that ELT textbooks and teaching materials should be given a limited role in the teaching and learning process, considering the complexity of language learning. Allwright (1981) argued that teachers and learners should be more involved in their own teaching and learning, suggesting that textbooks can marginalize the involvement of teachers and learners since they cannot meet all specific needs of learning and teaching in all contexts. Moreover, current EAP textbooks, if not taught by expert language teachers, might give the impression that “academic discourse is far more homogenous than is actually the case” (Harwood, 2005, p. 151). More qualified language teachers who have better knowledge about the different writing norms in different writing discourses are more able to use EAP textbooks as resources whereas less experienced teachers are more tempted to rigidly stick to the content of textbooks, which does not always satisfy students’ learning needs (*ibid.*).

Within the context of CAS, current EAP textbooks were not chosen based on a systematic needs analysis nor were they systematically supplemented with extra materials to compensate the specific needs of CAS-students which are not included in the textbooks. In my role as an EAP teacher, level co-ordinator and head of the English Department, I have been involved with writing many reviews of most of the textbooks used in the English Department. As a result, recommendations were made to change the textbooks given that they fail to reflect the objectives of the courses, and are linguistically incompatible with the true language level of CAS students. Although the textbooks have been changed several times, the problems are still reoccurring. They are more evident when teachers slavishly adhere to the content of the textbooks with limited attempts to use different teaching materials. Most EAP teachers in CAS only rely on textbooks when teaching, due to the overload of work and lack of employment security (Al-Issaie, 2017). CAS teachers are expected to cover the content of the textbooks in their classes and, as a result, they have less time to cover different materials during class time. Moreover, the high rate of turnover for expatriate



teachers, because of low employment security, is a crucial factor that demotivates teachers from establishing good teaching performance or communication with their peers to support the learning processes of their students (Al-Issaei, 2017; Al-Muqarshi, 2018). Both Al-Issaei (2017) and Al-Muqarshi (2018) assert that the high turnover rate among CAS EAP staff has led to unwillingness to innovate changes in pedagogy or assessment. Al Muqarshi (2018) added:

*High turnover affects establishing a collective identity. It reduces the shared history between group members which affects social group formation (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Instability at the English Department thus hinders establishing a cohesive academic/professional culture that could bring perspectives closer. Longevity within a group is key for value conversion towards cohesion. (p. 188)*

#### **2.1.4 Source-use in EAP textbooks**

In her investigation of CAS' EAP challenges, Al-Issaei (2017) reported that EAP courses are not sufficient to prepare students to avoid plagiarism in their writing. She explained that although the penalty for plagiarism can be as serious as failing the course, there are still many incidences of plagiarism reported every semester. Her analysis found that EAP courses provide limited instruction regarding knowledge of citations, including reporting verbs, style of referencing and in-text citations. The skills related to source-use found in CAS EAP textbooks (Effective Writing 2, 3) are covered under these headings in the contents of both books:

- critical thinking (comparison and contrast organization and signal words)
- collecting information from primary and secondary sources
- using search engines
- evaluating reliability of sources
- quoting from sources
- summarizing sources
- writing a summary

There is no content related to the integration of sources in writing, using sources in different genres or disciplines, functions of citations, reporting verbs or role of

citations in making new knowledge. There is, however, a printed document given to students about using APA style for referencing. This document is prepared as a referencing guideline by the EAP coordinator and is given to all staff members for distribution to their students. CAS EAP textbooks offer the surface features of citations with no input regarding the role of citations in the construction of knowledge, or regarding disciplinary and genre conventions of citations. The textbooks present citation practice as a common practice across any context of writing. This observation, however, is not unique to the CAS EAP textbooks.

Scholars like Thompson and Tribble (2001), Davis (2013, 2014, 2015) and Swales (1980) all report that the most popular EAP textbooks mainly focus on the surface features of citations such as referencing, quotations, summaries and paraphrasing. They also focus on the role of citations in avoiding plagiarism. Little attention is given to the role of citations in the construction of knowledge (Gu & Brooks, 2008; Polio & Shi, 2012). Martala (2006) and Davis (2014) also reported that EAP materials might equip students with the technicality of referencing skills, but students continue to struggle with using sources critically. The generic features of citations offered in EAP textbooks are not sufficient to prepare students to use citations for the construction of knowledge in different contexts of writing. In their review of popular EAP textbooks, Thompson and Tribble (2001) validated the attention given to the mechanical features of citations in EAP textbooks over engaging with sources to make new meanings. Even for the generic knowledge of citations obtained in EAP courses, the transferability of this knowledge in new writing contexts is not guaranteed. Studies regarding EAP contexts found that such transfer of knowledge may not occur and, therefore, should not be assumed (Davis, 2013, 2014; James, 2008; Spack, 1997).

In summary, teaching EAP content regarding source-use practice might not be as effective as expected or assumed by subject teachers from academic departments. Thus subject-teachers should make their assumptions based on realistic, knowledgeable grounds. Previous studies in the context of CAS highlighted the writing challenges CAS students face when they perform writing-related activities in their discipline. The challenges are mostly caused by the lack of communication between the English language teachers and subject teachers

regarding what students are taught and the support they need (Al-Badwawi, 2011; Al-Issaei, 2017). This has potentially disadvantaged students' learning processes. They have been left alone to navigate a new context of writing (their discipline) and the unfamiliar genres they have to produce.

## **2.2 The disciplines of Accounting and International Business**

This section discusses the two disciplines (Accounting and International Business) investigated in this study in terms of understanding writers' source-use practice. First, an overview of each discipline is provided as described in prior literature to provide an understanding of their characteristics. Then a description is provided of how CAS offers these two disciplines as specializations under the programme of International Business Administration, and how these CAS disciplines relate to the features of Accounting and IB as described in the literature.

### **2.2.1 Accounting as a discipline**

In higher education, an Accounting major is often offered by business schools/colleges (Cong, 2013) because of the interconnected features Accounting shares with other business-related disciplines such as Economics and Management. Cong (2013) writes that the "disciplinary property of Accounting is vague" (p. 128). Sometimes Accounting is embedded within enterprise management or economics depending on the actions required by theories and practices of accounting. For example, if the actions are to prepare accounting statements, balance sheets and income statements for banks, commercial and industrial companies, then accounting is perceived to be a branch of economics. However, when the required actions from accountants are to serve and improve the competitiveness of the enterprise management of a company or multinational companies, then accounting can be considered part of the management discipline (ibid.). Accounting might have been considered a sub-discipline of management or economics in the past, but with the rapid advancement of "social economy, the cognition of accounting will continue to

deepen [...], and accounting will certainly become an independent discipline” (Cong, 2013, p. 132).

In teaching contexts, the status of accounting as a discipline is also questioned. Demski (2007) argued that accounting is not a discipline given that the curriculum focus of accounting is mostly vocational. However, do not all academic disciplines prepare students with the relevant skills and knowledge for the job market? With that, would any company accept a financial statement written by a person who does not have an authentic accounting degree? Cong (2013) explained that to be perceived as an accountant in the job market, an accountant should have an authentic accounting degree which reflects his or her disciplinary area of study.

To change this perception of accounting as a technical branch of management or finance, Graham (2013) suggested taking a literary turn to accounting education in which accounting is regarded as a language that has its own rules, conventions, audience, and process of learning. Teaching accounting as a language can help both teachers and students understand accounting in its historical contexts and to consider the rules of the accounting community, its discursive practices of written and spoken forms, and the common practices of knowledge construction in the accounting community. Graham (2013) stated

*If a linguistic approach to accounting education puts students in a position where they are able to question what they are reading, and adjust their interpretations by taking into account what they know about the text and how it was produced, then students who experience this approach will be better off. They will have been given some tools, and developed some skills, for hearing other voices and seen other perspectives. (p. 125)*

Graham (2013, p. 123) lists some of the distinctive features of accounting language that students should be aware of in order to understand the language of accounting and then be able to produce accounting texts. They are:

- Accounting has a fixation with measuring everything and using currency to do it
- The grammar of accounting is arithmetic
- Accounting tends to gather things into hierarchical categories

- After categorizing everything that goes into the story and measuring it in a currency, a simple metaphor is produced by equating each category to its measurement

Finally, accounting is closely related to other disciplines. Discussing this relationship can enrich discourse in the classroom and provide a better understanding of the distinctiveness of the accounting discipline (Graham, 2013). Moreover, treating accounting as a language can support the learning and teaching of accounting as a discipline that has its own unique linguistic features, discourse conventions, and norms.

### **2.2.2 International Business as a discipline**

The discipline of International Business (IB) has established itself as an academic discipline with clearly identifiable characteristics, including “frameworks of knowledge and methodology based on assumptions and interpretations of both natural and man-made phenomena” (Laughton, 2005, p. 49). For example, the methodological approach of IB emphasizes the ‘internationalization of business functions’, which gives more attention to “the normative and prescriptive nature of the discipline, [and] neglects the issues and factors which underlie global developments” (EL Kahal, 1994, as cited in Laughton, 2005, p. 54). Doz (2011) added that IB is multidisciplinary in its essence, “benefiting from complementary insights provided by various theories” (p. 582) that are borrowed from different disciplines. Not being bound to a specific set of theories or paradigms has allowed IB researchers to approach prominent journals of other fields, such as management, economics and accounting, to publish their articles (ibid.). However, adapting and borrowing theories from different fields of study can make it difficult to identify the specific identity of IB in academia. Therefore, according to Doz (2011), it is necessary for IB research to consider the role of qualitative research to overcome the limitations of being a multidisciplinary field. Qualitative research can provide a rich and thick understanding of IB theories and phenomena which can, consequently, contribute to building new original theories. This does not mean abandoning the multidisciplinary nature of IB but to focus more on developing current IB theories

and exploring more neglected phenomena in the business area using IB theories and norms.

Lastly, the IB curriculum should reflect the international dimension of business as a global market which operates with a set of strategies and rules to maintain global business. When considering internationalizing the curriculum of business, Zhang (2007) suggested that business should be taught in English as a lingua franca to “encourage an internationalization of its membership and its sphere of influence”. This could occur by encouraging more research to contribute to the understanding of IB or by meeting with other IB academies to discuss the issues in the discipline (Dunning, 1989, p. 426).

### **2.2.3 International Business Administration Programme in CAS**

The International Business Administration (IBA) programme is offered in three colleges of CAS: CAS-Nizwa, CAS-Sur and CAS-Salalah. This four-year program awards Bachelor of Science degrees in IBA in which students are required to accumulate 128 credit hours (see Table 2). The language of instruction in all courses of this programme is English. The program provides students “with a multicultural understanding of business and its environments grounded on solid moral and ethical values” (MOHE, 2019, p. 1). It also delivers high-quality education in the allied disciplines of IBA and provides students with the skills to become business professionals. These allied disciplines are offered as majors of specializations: International Business, Tourism and Hospitality, and Accounting. All business majors provide high-quality teaching, learning and research skills (ibid.).

To enter the IBA programme, students must have a General Education Diploma with no less than a C ( $\leq 60\%$ ) in English and  $\leq 50\%$  in Pure or Applied Mathematics or Mathematics. Students must also pass the Foundation Programme. The CAS Foundation Programme is structured to meet the Oman

Accreditation Council’s General Foundation Programme Standards, which state that students must demonstrate satisfactory achievement of learning outcomes in the four curricular areas of English, Maths, ICT and Study Skills before

commencing their undergraduate studies. It is an intensive programme of which English is the main component. Foundation, as a whole, is a pre-requisite for higher education, so all foundation courses will be taken prior to entry to a degree programme (CAS-Nizwa, 2012, p. 20).

The graduate attributes of the CAS IBA programme are expected to reflect

- Academic and Professional Knowledge
- Communication Skills
- Teamwork and Leadership
- Information Technology (IT) Literacy
- Global Perspective and Cross-cultural Adaptability
- Critical and Analytical Thinking
- Social Responsibility and Ethics
- Entrepreneurial Aptitude
- Life-Long Learning
- Research Skills

These graduate attributes represent all graduates from all majors offered by the IBA programme. There are no specific graduate attributes for each major.

**Table 2: Credit hours and number of courses of IBA degree requirements**

	College Requirement	Degree Requirement	Major Requirement	Total
Number of Courses	10	9	24	43
Number of Credits	30	26	72	128

*(Major requirement includes 18 credit hours as electives)*

### **2.2.3.1 Accounting discipline in CAS**

The Accounting discipline at CAS is offered as a major of study. The aim of the the programme is to

*provide students with an in-depth understanding of the different accounting and finance fields including Banking and Insurance areas and to provide students with required knowledge and technical skills suitable for today's accounting and finance applications. (MOHE, 2019, p3).*

As demonstrated in the objective of the programme, Accounting is integrated with Finance concepts, as it is in many other contexts in which accounting is considered a branch of other disciplines (see section 2.3.1). An accounting major is offered at CAS for the range of career opportunities it can offer to CAS graduates, such as “cost accountants, financial accountants, auditors, financial analysts, investor relations associate, budget analyst, bank teller, bank marketing representative, bank loan officer, data processing officer, equity traders, Asset managers, insurance sales agent, insurance investigators, claims examiners and adjusters, etc.” (ibid., p. 3). The job opportunities available for CAS Accounting graduates also reflect the notion that Accounting serves other fields of study, such as finance and marketing. This indicates that the CAS-Accounting major also prepares students to work for marketing and finance-related careers, as it offers some courses for marketing and finance. There are no specific attributes of Accounting graduates. According to the documents obtained regarding the IBA programme, the graduate attributes from all majors within the programme are the same. In Accounting, as in all CAS majors, students are supposed to complete all EAP and ESP courses offered by the English Department within the first three years of their studies.

### **2.2.3.2 International Business discipline in CAS**

International Business is one of the three specializations the IBA programme offers at CAS. The entry requirements for this major are the same as for the other business majors. This major is

*a forward-looking area of study that magnifies local issues and how they are intertwined with global challenges in business administration such as globalization and liberalization which are the engines for trade, commerce and economic growth. (MOHE, 2019, p. 3)*

Graduates of the International Business major have more opportunities to work for multi-national corporations in the fields of “manufacturing, banking, oil sector, government, financial institutions, market research analyst, business manager, human resources manager, customer service manager, public relations officer, logistics manager, integrated programs director, etc.” (p. 3). As with the Accounting major, graduates of the International Business major are eligible to work in different areas of business such as finance, economics, and management.



There are no specific skills mentioned for the graduates of this major that are different from the skills of other business majors. The number of hours allocated for the major requirements is the same for all business majors (see Table 2).

### **2.3 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter establishes the background of CAS from which this research was conducted. The overview of the context reveals that relying only on EAP textbooks, in CAS or elsewhere, to provide the pedagogical support to reinforce and develop students' citation practices in source-based disciplinary writing is insufficient. It also highlights the discontent between EAP teachers and subject teachers in CAS in terms of supporting students' writing in the discipline. This provides more reasons to investigate CAS students' use of citations to better understand their knowledge of writing from sources and the contextual challenges that hinder their practice of integrating sources into their writing. This is crucial to inform and reform pedagogy in CAS, in order to better support students' source-use practice.

## **Chapter 3 : Literature Review**

### **3.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to situate the research in the literature and to provide the rationale for the study. This chapter consists of four main sections: (a) foundational and theoretical frameworks related to source-use in academic texts (i.e. sociocultural theory, theory of intertextuality); (b) an explanation of the influence of the context of writing in the construction of academic texts; (c) the methodological approaches to understanding the function of citations and the typologies proposed in prior research for analysis of rhetorical functions of citations, including Petrić's (2007) typology, which was adopted by this study; and (d) a presentation of the main challenges of source-based writing and some pedagogical suggestions that previous studies offered to overcome these challenges .

### **3.2 Frameworks: Sociocultural theory and intertextuality**

Sociocultural theory and intertextuality theory frame the current study. These concepts are significant as they provide ways to understand the textual practices of citations' rhetorical functions in academic writing. They are also important in emphasising the need to uncover the contextual factors that influence or constrain this rhetorical practice. Sociocultural theory is central in this study because it highlights the ways in which the study's context shapes students' writing as well as the role of instructions in improving students' practice and understanding of academic writing. The concept of intertextuality is also significant in this study as it helps us understand the roles and functions of intertextual links when defining academic writing.

#### **3.2.1 Sociocultural theory**

Sociocultural theory (SCT) (Vygotsky, 1978) is based on the belief that our learning and our development of high mental functions stem from social activities (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Like other cognitive development theories, SCT supports the major role of language in the development of higher mental

functions. However, these theories differ in the specific processes of mental development and the role of language in this development. For example, Piaget (1986) emphasized the role of cognitive maturation, which precedes language learning, and de-emphasized the role of social interactions in this learning. Piaget (1986) believed learning is an individual phenomenon, that children go through the same stages of cognitive development, and that this development process is universal. If Piaget's (1986) understanding of language learning is to be applied in the preparation and design of teaching, concepts and problems should be introduced sequentially, dependent upon a learner's readiness and innate ability to understand. However, studies have shown that Piaget's (1986) rigid stages can overlap as some children can perform tasks that others their age cannot, depending on social and cultural factors that can either facilitate or constrain a child's learning (Smith, 1994). In terms of the role of language in this development, Piaget concludes that communication and verbal interaction can lead a child to develop moral judgment and self-regulated behaviour (Vygotsky, 1978). Piaget, however, does not discuss the importance of guided participation in shaping learning and development or ways of learning that are formed by the social context in which learning occurs. Another seminal theory of cognitive development is Chomsky's (1965) universal grammar theory, which advocates for a universal inborn language acquisition device (LAD) that enables children to learn a language in any context. Like Piaget (1986), Chomsky (1965) also ignored social interactions as a main source of learning, believing that cognitive maturation precedes learning. Both theories underestimate the roles of caregivers and teachers and the social setting in language development and learning. Sociocultural theory; on the other hand, contributes to a contextualized understanding of learning and development processes (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996). There are two central themes shaping SCT as emphasized by Vygotsky (1978). The first essential theme concludes that "social relations or relations among people genetically underlie all higher functions and their relationships" (p. 57). Vygotsky elaborated:

*every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first between people (interpsychological), and then inside the child*

*(intrapsychological)[...] All the higher functions originate as actual relations between human individuals. (p. 57)*

The higher mental functions that Vygotsky discussed, such as “voluntary memory, voluntary attention, planning, monitoring, the formation of intentions, rational thought and learning”, are indicators of mental development (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994, p. 467). In this theory, learning is “*interactive*, contextual, and the result of the learner’s participation in a community of practice” (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996, p. 198). Maturation is not a precursor as in Piaget’s theory; it is, however, an important factor in awakening the intellectual functions that lead to independent developmental achievement. For example, when a certain skill is learned, it becomes the “basis for the subsequent development of a variety of highly complex internal processes” (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 90). Summarizing the relationship between learning and development, Vygotsky stated:

*Learning awakens a variety of internal developmental processes that are able to operate only when the child is with people in his [sic] environment and in cooperation with his peers [...] Thus, learning is a necessary and universal aspect of the process of developing culturally organized, specifically human, psychological functions. (p. 90)*

The second essential theme in SCT pertains to language learning and acquisition. Vygotsky considers language learning and acquisition helpful in understanding the relationship between learning and development. When learned language is converted to internal speech, it becomes critical to the internal, complex thinking process. Extending the discussion, Vygotsky (1978) concluded that learning is a mediated process that is “embedded within social events and occurring as a child interacts with people, objects, and events in the environment” (Kublin, Wetherby, Crais & Prizant, 1998, p. 287). Mediation, the way our mental activities and our abilities are shaped by our interactions with symbolic and physical tools, is important in SCT (Stance & Kao, 2010). Mediation also refers to the “process by which socially meaningful activities transform impulsive, unmediated, and natural behaviour into higher mental processes through the using instruments or tools [means of language and signs]” (Eun & Lim, 2009, p. 15).

Lantolf and Thorne (2006) explained that symbolic artefacts, ranging from signs to literary works, are intellectually directed and that “symbolic tools serve as an

auxiliary means to control and recognize our biologically endowed psychological processes” (p.201). These symbolic tools are perceived as means through which we regulate and control our mental activities and physical surroundings (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994). Vygotsky considers all forms of language, written or spoken, as the paramount symbolic tool that facilitates the social interaction that later leads to more complex thinking. This view of language learning and development in Vygotsky’ theory offers another theoretical standpoint to understand language as a product of social practice. It is, therefore, important to examine the social context of language.

In education, language learning, according to SCT, is framed by a broader, layered social context that includes curriculum, college policies and administrations, teachers, teaching materials, students, parents, and the external society. Unlike other language development theories, Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory stands out most when examining the role of social learning in the advancement of complex thinking and independent skills in education contexts. According to Vygotsky (1978), analysis of any educational process should be considerate of the understanding that “the developmental process lags behind the learning process” (p.90), meaning that what is learned now can be internalized and can later evoke other learning processes. This sequence has resulted in the development of the concept of zone of proximal development (ZPD) (ibid.), which has become a basis for developing and implementing educational programmes (John-Steiner & Mahn, 1996). The ZPD is central in highlighting the importance of guided participation in learning and development in educational contexts, as discussed below.

### **3.2.2 ZPD in SCT and learning of source-use**

Lantolf and Thorne (2006) applauded the use of SCT in education. SCT is used to develop the education system and to “enact positive interventions” in the pedagogical context (p. 216). Among the most important themes of SCT, suggested by Vygotsky (1978) to explain human development, is ZPD. Vygotsky (1978) defined ZPD as

*the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential*

*development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers. (p. 86)*

Using this definition, ZPD represents the importance of the two developmental levels that humans experience. The first is the “actual developmental level,” which is “established as a result of certain already completed development cycles” (p. 85), whereas the second level of development is referred to as the “level of potential development.” The second level refers to the possible future development an individual can accomplish with a supportive environment, guidance, and collaboration provided by experts (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994, p. 467). According to Vygotsky (1978), guided assistance and instruction in ZPD lead to the development of higher mental functions. In educational settings, ZPD is used to encourage education researchers, particularly those focused on general and language learning, to improve pedagogical practices. Lantolf and Thorne (2006) attested that “ZPD is not only a model of the development process but also a conceptual tool that educators can use to understand aspects of students’ emerging capacities that are in early stages of maturation” (p. 207). They elaborated that educators and instructors can use ZPD as a “diagnostic tool” to identify problems and support novice learners in reaching their learning potential. By using ZPD, pedagogical interventions are more feasible when targeting learners’ actual needs and continuing to develop their skills and learning.

As a research framework, ZPD “brings all the pieces of the learning setting together”, such as instructors, novice learners, social context, academic environment, resources, feedback, curriculum and policies (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994, p. 468). The ZPD is considered here a means to understand and interpret the contextualization of learners’ writing process and the institution’s role in developing and scaffolding the teaching and learning of academic writing, particularly citation practice. Using the ZPD framework to explore students’ perceptions of the rhetorical functions of citations is important for understanding the role of social input, including teachers’ roles, instruction, teaching materials, corrective feedback, plagiarism policies, peers, and discipline conventions, as these factors may be central to shaping students’ citation-use practices. However, using ZPD to understand any learning issue has its limitations. It is

argued that ZPD can “reduce the learner’s role to one of passivity and dependence on the adult” (Lambert & Clyde, 2000, p. 29), owing to the significant role of scaffolding. Additionally, ZPD provides little guidance in developing the cognitive skills required for task response or managing learners with high cognitive skills who have already passed their peers’ ZPD. However, ZPD is not used in this study for stable, general teaching or learning; it is used to investigate students’ current practice of the rhetorical functions of citations as well as the potential interventions that colleges and teachers must enact to improve students’ source-use practices.

In conclusion, Vygotsky’s theory places key importance on social context in shaping our learning, ‘internalization’, ‘appropriation’, ‘transmission’, and ‘transformation’ of new knowledge. When exploring situated learning in any ethnographic study – that is, learning that happens in a particular context/setting - from a sociocultural perspective, one of the research implications must be the investigation of the impact of the different layers of context in supporting or constraining the examined learning. The ZPD is a significant outcome of Vygotsky’s interpretation of the relation between supported and guided learning and development, and it informs the current exploration of source-use practices by helping us understand the writing context and the influence of the different contextual layers in shaping source-use practices in efforts to diagnose the limitations and challenges of teaching the proper use of sources in academic writing.

### **3.2.3 Intertextuality theory**

In this section, the role of intertextuality in scientific knowledge construction via the implementations of appropriate source-use practices - conforming to relevant discourse community conventions - is explored.

#### **3.2.3.1 Bakhtin’s dialogic perception of language and intertextuality**

Bakhtin focused on the dialogic nature of language, arguing that speech is “filled with others’ words” and that “dialogism is inherent in language itself” (Kristeva, 1986, p. 38). Bakhtin’s notion of dialogism emphasizes that all utterances “exist against a background of other concrete utterances on the same theme, a

background made up of contradictory opinions, points of view and value judgments” (1981, p. 281). This suggests that dialogism is not meant only for oral dialogue, but includes written texts as they show dialogue between a writer and reader/audience. Moreover, the perception of language as dialogic suggests that composing a text intersects with two factors: the speaker’s real purpose and the words’ pre-existing meanings. Bakhtin (1986) believes that “each signifier of language is in part a pre-existing, pre-fashioned tool but is renegotiated and takes on specific meaning when it is used by a particular speaker with a particular purpose. Only then language is personal” (as cited in Butler, 2014, p. 131). Bakhtin (1986) explained that social context through “dialogue and juxtaposition” forms our personal individuality (Alfaro, 1996). Bakhtin (1981) also asserted that writers incorporate different voices in their writing, which may not share the same views, calling this “heteroglossia”. He explained that each voice “carries a unique inflection, an imprint of its particular world view. As the voices intersect, they reflect the consciousness of real people, specifically writers, and transform meaning as they oscillate between fiction and real life” (as cited in Butler, 2014, p. 131). His views of different voices in text construction to create new meanings emphasize that texts are socially and communicatively constructed. These ideas shaped the theory of intertextuality, where a text is viewed in relation to other texts and the social context.

### **3.2.3.2 The concept of intertextuality by Kristeva**

Kristeva developed the concept of intertextuality after becoming fascinated with Bakhtin’s work. Kristeva (1986) agreed with the idea of heteroglossia, stating that “Bakhtinian dialogism identifies writing as both subjectivity and communication” (p. 39), calling this intertextuality. Kristeva (1986) defined intertextuality as follows:

*any text is constructed as a mosaic of quotations; any text is the absorption and transformation of another. The notion of intertextuality replaces that of intersubjectivity, and poetic language is read as at least double. (p. 37)*

Kristeva (1980) elaborated that texts are not independent units, but are “traces and tracings of others” (as cited in Alfaro, 1996, p. 268). She explained that both previous readings and the social context affects writers. She considered



intertextuality as “a process, a fluid state of oscillating interpretations that seeks to expose the plurality of meaning, both in texts and, indeed, at the most basic level of the signifier” (as cited in Butler, 2014, p. 129). Butler (2014) added that intertextuality results in “productivity” as it creates new meaning/knowledge construction via the integration of discourse community conventions and contextual experiences (p. 132). This view of intertextuality has helped shape the understanding of academic writing conventions, specifically among the European and American literacy scholars.

Thus all texts are a combination of many voices, and all demonstrate traces of intertextuality. For scientific texts, which produce new knowledge, intertextuality is a significant requirement. Science only occurs when existing writing in the field has been considered and the new meanings are related to the old meanings.

### **3.2.3.3 Intertextuality and the construction of knowledge**

Considering the importance of intertextuality, I argue that intertextuality and new knowledge are inseparable, and thus both relevant to the current study. Ott and Walter (2000) wrote that texts are generated “within an endlessly expanding matrix of intertextual production” and that texts cannot be individually written or independent from other texts (p. 432). Texts create new meanings by relating to prior texts or the “sea” of former texts (Bazerman, 2004) through the application of intertextuality.

Understandably, through intertextuality, writers contribute to a wider discourse community as intertextuality enables persuasion in text. Writers use persuasion to position their research in the larger narrative, which is achieved through intertextuality or appropriate use of sources and citations (Hyland, 1999). For example, according to Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), academic writing reviewers insist that scientific reports “include an intertextual framework” (p. 59) to justify and demonstrate the work’s originality and significance. Green (2020) explains that intertextuality in scientific writing is “central to the legitimacy of a text as scientific writing is intrinsically intertextual because all science is a process of building upon the existent to make the new” (p. 18). Therefore, proper textual practices include

*explicit reference to prior literature [which] is a substantial indication of a text's dependence on contextual knowledge and thus a vital piece in the collaborative construction of new knowledge between writers and readers. (Hyland, 2004, p. 21)*

However, the practice of intertextuality varies in different text types. Bazerman (2004) explained that certain genres may use certain forms of intertextuality. For example, in the introduction of a research article, writers are expected to cite prior studies to introduce the problem under study and explain what has already been written about the issue. This is to identify the limits of previous studies and justifies the new work (Swales, 1990).

In short, intertextuality is fundamental in academic writing as a process and a product because “text cannot exist as a self-sufficient whole, and so ... it doesn't function as a closed system” (Alfaro, 1996, p. 268). Expanding upon and building from where others stopped guarantees the continuation of knowledge and epistemology within a discipline. Appropriate use of citations allows writers to “reconstruct the literature in order to provide a discursive framework for their arguments and demonstrate a plausible basis for their claims” (Hyland, 1999, p. 353). To produce new knowledge in any area, new literature must be linked to existing work via the use of proper references to the existing literature (Bazerman, 1988; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Hyland, 1999). Yet the practice of intertextuality in academic writing is challenging, especially for L2 novice writers. Holmes (2004) pointed out that “one of the main challenges to the students and teachers of EAP writing ... [is] how to balance the constraints on the organization of the text (the generic features) with the interweaving of sources and the student's own ideas (the intertextual features)” (p. 80). Another challenge for L2 writers is to appropriate the use of citations to each discipline as every discipline has its own norms for using sources to produce new knowledge.

#### **3.2.3.4 Disciplinary nature of intertextuality**

While intertextuality is central across all disciplines, different disciplines perceive knowledge-making differently, given that their perception of knowledge as a concept differs. As Groom (2007) explained:

*For the scientist, knowledge is a series of objective facts about the external world. These facts are 'out there', waiting to be discovered; all that the scientist needs to do is formulate the right questions, and to perform the right experiments. For the humanities scholar, in contrast, knowledge resides not so much in the external world as in the subjectivity of the observer; knowledge is a matter of personal understanding and interpretation, and is therefore likely to vary considerably from individual to individual [...] The goal, in short, is not to discover the new, but to enrich, broaden and otherwise contribute to collective understanding of the known. (pp. 21-22)*

Knowledge perception in different disciplines can explain the variations in linguistic features and rhetorical practices, including intertextuality, across disciplines. According to Hyland (2004), disciplinary knowledge is both “situated and indexical [...]”; it is embedded in the wider processes of argument, affiliation, and consensus-making of members of the discipline” (p. 6). Thus knowledge construction in each discipline reflects the discipline’s view of knowledge and the social rhetorical practices that enact such a view.

In a disciplinary community, defined as “a stable yet continually evolving set of meanings, values, and practices which produces and is produced by a stable yet continually evolving set of conventional linguistic forms” (Groom, 2007, p. 25), the practice of intertextuality produces new knowledge presented in linguistic forms, written or spoken texts. Swales (1990) added that analysing linguistic features in disciplinary texts reveals important differences in disciplinary communities. It is critical that new members seeking to join a particular disciplinary community get accustomed to the community’s norms, values, and conventions to properly engage in intertextuality, since Hyland (1999) confirmed that different disciplines employ intertextuality differently. Variations of intertextuality impact the structure and construction of knowledge in every discipline; thus awareness of proper practices of intertextuality in each discipline is important.

### **3.2.3.5 Originality and intertextuality in academic writing**

The concepts of originality and authenticity in the academic context originated in western culture during the rise of printing presses, which allowed authors’ writing to reach many more people in different parts of the world (Flowerdew & Lee, 2007). Writers became concerned with keeping their “authorial rights” and

needed a system to acknowledge their words and ideas. This led to the establishment of copyright law, which is legally binding and criminalises the non-attributed borrowing of words and ideas. Gradually, it became essential for academic scholars to include authorial attributions in their research (ibid.). Authorial attribution, or what is known as citation practice, has been adopted to attribute the “individual acts of creativity” and give credit to their owners (Pennycook, 1996, p. 205).

Although authenticity and originality became an important “rhetorical aspect” of academic writing, some scholars argue that there is no “original” or authentic writing because of the influence of intertextuality (Howard, 1995; Pecorari, 2003; Pennycook, 1996). However, I think the originality of any scientific text is not challenged by intertextuality; to the contrary, appropriate “text borrowing” helps us understand writing originality as the ability to make “new meaning” through engaging with and relating to other sources for different reasons (Abasi, 2008; Bazerman, 2004; Swale, 1990; Thompson et al., 2013). Aside from using different sources to make meaning (construct knowledge), proper citation use also requires knowledge of a referencing system and the details of the source (e.g. date, author name, publisher) (Shi, 2004). Proper citations enable writers to demonstrate their knowledge of their subject area and “subtly demonstrate their memberships of the disciplinary community” (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011, p. 152). Therefore intertextuality has become a focus in literacy research, as discussed below.

### **3.2.3.6 Analysis of intertextuality in academic contexts**

Source-use practices have been a central focus in educational and literacy research. Lemke (1992) stated that “the identification, classification and interpretation of intertextual relationships is at the heart of much of the best educational research being done today” (p. 258). Fairclough (1992) added that intertextuality, in general, “ought to be a major focus in discourse analysis” owing to its influential role in the “transformation and restructuring of textual traditions and order of discourse” (p. 102). The transformation of textual conventions happens only when writers use other texts to produce their own. However, “productivity” of new texts is guided by the social context of the texts (Fairclough,

1992). This necessitates an exploration of the impact of the contextual layers surrounding a text.

Bazerman (2004) discussed some of the benefits of the analysis of intertextuality in written texts:

- identify techniques writers use to incorporate others' ideas and words
- identify ways writers position themselves within the discipline
- recognize ways writers evaluate sources to either build or oppose
- understand the intertextual skills writers possess and lack when negotiating with other texts to meet the level of intertextual skills
- notice the ways in which writers represent their identities in their writing.

There is pedagogical significance in intertextuality analysis in an academic context, considering that using other texts is critical in academic writing. Since academic writing in an educational context is usually composed for assessment purposes, it is crucial to investigate and understand students' writing practices in order to pedagogically support them and scaffold their writing skills and competence.

Bazerman (2004) also suggested procedures to analyse intertextuality in students' writing, providing a guideline of concepts to consider. He suggests the following:

- Identify the reasons for conducting the analysis and the questions you wish to answer.
- Identify the texts that must be examined and analysed.
- Identify traces of other texts by examining references to other texts and writers.
- Make observations and interpretations by considering the reference in relation to the context of the author's words.
- Look for subtle clues when dealing with unattributed or background intertextuality for analytical purposes.
- Look for patterns to start developing conclusions that depend on the reasons for the analysis.

While these steps can guide researchers who conduct linguistic analyses to identify intertextual traces in written texts, Bazerman (2004) does not acknowledge the role of the writing context in developing a conclusion about the practice of intertextuality. However, this limitation can be overcome by uncovering the role of the different contextual layers in shaping students' source-use practices by including a conceptual framework for investigating the writing context, such as Samraj's (2012) taxonomy. Also, this framework does not provide examples of "subtle clues," or words and phrases to address unreferenced traces for other texts. Accordingly, analysing these unattributed traces can be subjective and challenging for researchers. Yet analysis of intertextual traces can only be exclusive to referenced textual traces if no "subtle clues" are provided for unreferenced traces.

The study of intertextuality is fascinating and can enrich our understanding of a text's productivity, especially in the academic context. The analysis of intertextual links can be examined from different angles, depending on a study's aim. Some scholars focus on the ways other texts are presented in the investigated texts, while others might examine the contextual reasons that lead to certain intertextuality practices, considering the perception that the generation of new text is socially constrained (Fairclough, 1992). In the current study, citations, as manifest representations of intertextuality, are analysed for two purposes: (1) to understand the functions of citations students use in their texts, and (2) to understand why students use sources the way they do.

There are two types of intertextuality to examine when analysing intertextual links in academic texts. Any research that aims to examine the intertextual traces in academic texts must be clear about these two types and how to investigate each type.

### **3.2.3.7 Manifest intertextuality**

Fairclough's (1992) perception of intertextuality is presented in two notions: constitutive intertextuality or interdiscursivity, and manifest intertextuality. The former represents "the configuration of discourse conventions that go into its production" which the current text implicitly unfolds different conventions of discourse such as genre, register, style (p. 104). Manifest intertextuality refers to

the explicit presentation of other texts in the text under analysis. Intertextual relations are considered *manifest* when they “are ‘manifestly’ marked or cued by features on the surface of the text, such as quotation marks” (p. 104). Hatim (1997) associated clear, explicit citations in any text alongside other texts with what Kristeva (1986) called “horizontal intertextuality.” Horizontal intertextuality or “static quotative” intertextuality “involves direct reference to another text” (Hatim & Munday, 2004, p. 343). The extent of explicit manifestation of other texts in the new texts is referred to as “mediation,” which Beaugrande and Dressler (19981) defined as “the extent to which one feeds one’s current beliefs and goals into the model of the communicative situation” (as cited in Hatim, 1997, p. 31). Mediation can be less explicit when a writer summarizes, refutes, reports, or evaluates other texts and more explicit when the other texts are quoted (Hatim, 1997).

Bazerman (2004, p. 88) identifies different ways to present intertextual links in the new text:

1. Direct quotations that are usually identified by quotation marks, block indentation, italics, or other typographic settings.
2. Indirect quotations, which attempt to reproduce the meaning of the original but in words that reflect the author’s understanding.
3. The mention of a person, document, or statement, assuming readers’ familiarity with the original source.
4. Comments or evaluations on a statement, text, or otherwise invoked voice.
5. Recognizable phrases or terminology associated with specific people or groups of people or particular documents.
6. Language and forms that seem to echo certain ways of communicating discussions with other people or types of documents.

Bazerman (2004) also added that manifest citations can be identified in direct or indirect quotations and by mentioning a person, document, or statements. Any visible marker of other sources in the analysed texts is identified as manifest intertextuality. Overall, manifest intertextuality is a defining feature of science as

a social practice, reflecting that new knowledge is situated and not isolated from previous knowledge. It is also a requirement in academic writing.

Finally, examining the explicit intertextual traces in the text is not enough to understand the practice of intertextuality. Intertextuality as a feature of academic writing needs to be examined within its writing context. Prior (2004) stated that writing is not a fixed formula that produces “fixed kinds of texts”, but rather a process that requires exploration of the context to understand it (p. 167). Exploring the contextual factors affecting students’ citation use can enrich our understanding of writers’ reasons to use citations and can inform pedagogical interventions to support students’ source use. The next section presents a discussion of the way in which the writing context is understood and interpreted in practice.

### **3.3 Context of writing and construction of academic texts**

Understanding the features of academic writing requires investigating the context in which writing is produced. Context can be described as “the totality of conditions under which discourse is being produced, circulated and interpreted” (Blommaert, 2005, p. 251). Exploring the context of writing is significant to answer the question “why do members of specific professional communities use the language the way they do?” (Bhatia, 1998, p. 313). Every writing context is unique and complex and should be considered when conducting research about academic writing (Pennycook, 1994). Studies that examine the context of the writing process can facilitate identification of “the forces outside the individual which help guide the purposes, establish relationships, and ultimately shape writing” (Hyland, 2003, p. 18).

This section describes the essential nature of the academic writing context through exploring the different layers of context, and the role of texts and genres in defining a discourse community.

#### **3.3.1 Understanding the context of writing**

Bakhtin (1981) stated that language is part of the social context. Therefore, language must not be studied as “an abstract system”, but as a social practice



(see Section 3.2). Street (1997) claimed that words can be negotiated as determined by their context, and this understanding of language inspired the view of literacy as more than “a cognitive phenomenon”. The new tradition of viewing literacy beyond mental abilities is known as “New Literacy Studies” (NLS), (Gee, 1991; Street, 1997). The underpinnings of NLS, as related to reading and writing, are rooted in perceptions of language as socially dialogic, dynamic, contested, and negotiated. According to Gee (2010):

*The NLS instead saw literacy as something people did inside society. It argued that literacy was not primarily a mental phenomenon, but rather a sociocultural one. Literacy was a social and cultural achievement - it was about ways of participating in social and cultural groups - not just a mental achievement. Thus, literacy needed to be understood and studied in its full range of contexts - not just cognitive but social, cultural, historical, and institutional, as well. (p. 10)*

The NLS movement thus led to the formation of literacy as “situated social practice”. In NLS, knowledge of reading and writing is more than “technical and neutral” skill, but is socially constructed. Unlike other sign systems, the values of literacy across different communities stem from the context (Street, 2003). Carter (2006) argued that evaluating literacy practice as a single standardized practice in all contexts is “not only inappropriate but largely unethical in that they privilege particular contexts, identities, and knowledge while marginalizing all others” (pp. 97-98). Thus literacy practice, including writing, should be examined and evaluated in its own social context.

Viewing literacy as a “social practice” has directed our understanding of academic writing, especially in higher education where academic writing is a main assessment tool and a means of constructing disciplinary knowledge (Nesi & Gardner, 2012). The literature identifies four approaches to the conceptualization and understanding of students’ reading and writing practices in tertiary academic contexts: (1) skills-based approach, (2) text-based approach, (3) disciplinary socialisation approach, and (4) academic literacies approach (Baynham, 2002; Lea & Street, 1998). All of these approaches help us understand academic writing and the challenges it poses to students from which pedagogic interventions may be applied. Street (1984) described the skills-based approach as an “autonomous model,” referring to understandings of literacy as

is separated from the context and social purpose. In this approach, academic writing relies on the writer's linguistic level and knowledge of genre structure as well as its generic characteristics. Similar to a skills-based approach, the text-based approach does not relate text production to the writing context, and views writing as a "textual product" that requires good acquisition of linguistic forms (e.g. vocabulary, grammar). Pedagogical writing instruction in this approach depends on an "imitation of models or exemplary texts" where students are given good texts from a genre to later identify and practice the genre's linguistic features. Lea and Street (1998) believed that these two approaches fail to fully address the complexities and challenges of academic writing, which vary across genres, contexts, and disciplines. Green (2016) argues:

*While it is true that 'the conventions, intentions and assumptions of discourse communities are manifested in academic texts', the claim that 'it is through these texts that students will learn to understand the social practices of the discipline' (Wingate and Tribble 2012: 489) is only plausible up to a point. Firstly, this claim ignores the process dimension of practice: the fact that in order to create texts realising 'conventions, intentions and assumptions', students need to engage in a range of searching, reading and writing practices, engage with sequences of genres, interact with peers, tutors, administrators, use digital tools in specific ways, deploy strategies for developing and articulating arguments and so on. A finished text offers no insight into these. (p. 101)*

In the third approach, disciplinary socialisation, writing is a social activity shaped by the text's social context. This approach prepares students for discipline-specific writing using acculturation to the discipline's social practices, which enables students to become members of the disciplinary community by scaffolding their learning of the "specialized language," the conventions and values of the disciplines, and "the more general features of academic writing which makes it instantly recognizable" (Hoadly-Maidment, 2000, p. 167). However, the disciplinary socialisation approach seems "to advocate a uniform view of the academic culture", perceiving academic culture as homogeneous (Al-Badwawi, 2011, p. 46). In other words, this approach fails to acknowledge the social practices and values of academic institutions. This approach overlooks the construction of disciplinary texts being influenced by social practices in a multidisciplinary academic institution. On the other hand, the academic literacy

approach perceives academic writing as a social practice “that vary[ies] with context, culture, and genre” (Lea & Street, 2006, p. 368). This approach foregrounds the impact of institutional discourse and disciplinary communities in shaping students’ writing and text production. The role of the writing context influences understanding and interpretation of the academic writing process in higher education. Lea and Stierer (2000) identified this approach as a “powerful tool for understanding the experience of students and teaching staff, and for locating that experience in the wider context of higher education”, which consists of different disciplinary communities ( as cited in Al-Badwawi, 2011, p. 48). Thus, when using this approach to conceptualize academic writing in higher education, the ways that different contextual factors shape writing as social practice become important to uncover.

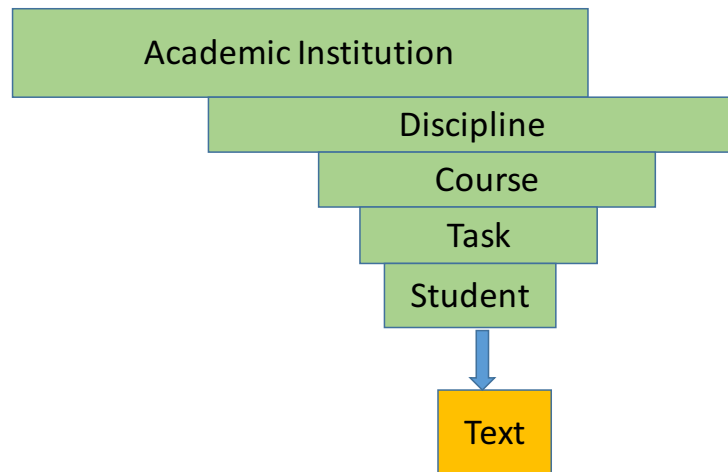
In practice, exploring the writing context involves identifying different levels of context surrounding and participating in academic text production. These contextual layers are vital as “texts are multidimensional constructs requiring multiple perspectives for their understanding” (Candlin & Hyland, 1999, p. 2). Aligning with the academic literacy approach provides an opportunity to examine a written text not as a product only, but also as a process. Even when the text is considered a product, it represents the outcome of social negotiation, interaction, and meaning contestation via the wider writing context. As Candlin and Hyland (1999) explained:

*Writing as text is thus not usefully separated from writing as a process and interpretation, and neither can easily be divorced from specific local circumstances in which writing takes place nor from the broader institutional and socio-historical contexts which inform those particular occasions of writing. (p. 2)*

Thus uncovering the contextual impact on students’ writing seems vital to understanding their writing and diagnosing writing challenges. Moreover, considering writing as a social process and “context dependent, encourages educators to understand written texts beyond their linguistic features to their contextual relations that explain the final product of texts” (Dremel & Matic, 2014, p.160). Interpreting a text’s linguistic features requires uncovering the context influencing the texts. Possible contextual layers that can influence the academic texts are addressed below.

### 3.3.1.1 Layers of context influencing the production of academic texts within academic institutions

Samraj (2002) suggested a taxonomy of contextual layers to aid the analysis of students' academic writing produced within academic institutions. In this taxonomy, context layers are related and connected to shaping students' written work. Context layers include the academic institution, the discipline, the course, the task, and the students; students' texts are the final product of the integration of all contextual layers.



**Figure 1: Layers of contexts taxonomy (Samraj, 2002, p. 165)**

However, this model (Samraj, 2002) suggests a well-ordered, harmonious set of layers, like floors in a building. Another view is to see the layers as interacting and possibly conflicting forces. These layers, as perceived in this study, are considered to be interacting in different directions, and their influence on text production can vary by text type (see Figure 2). For example, a final-year undergraduate research report will be more heavily influenced by all the layers, considering that the report can be viewed as a culmination of learning and writing skills a student has accumulated over the years. A regular course assignment, however, is influenced less by the institution and more by task and course requirements.



**Figure 2: An alternative dynamic/interactive model to Samraj (2002)**

Therefore, citation use as a fundamental linguistic feature of academic writing must be explored within the writing context to understand students' source use. When considering the ways in which writing context shapes students' written texts, Samraj's (2002) contextual layers can be used as a framework when examining students' source-use practices, since this taxonomy identifies clear context layers that can affect the construction of academic texts. Different methods can be used to explore these contextual layers in an educational setting. Nesi and Gardner (2012) acknowledged context document analysis as an effective method "to build a 'thick' description of the contexts and process of student writing" (p. 9). These documents include institutional policies, department documents, written feedback, course materials, assessment guidelines, and rubrics. Interviews can also be used to help us understand the influence of the different layers. A text's writer can provide rich, deep insights into their textual behaviour and the influence of the context (Alshenqeeti, 2014).

Here, I have argued that academic writing features, including intertextuality, should be investigated using the context of writing rather than being treated as textual features only. Rhetorical features of citation as a significant textual feature of academic writing can be best understood by knowing why writers use this feature the way they do. Analysing rhetorical features of citations includes understanding the factors which shape and influence the practice of these features in students' writing. This understanding is vital in order to pedagogically

help students use rhetorical features of citations that meet their disciplinary and institution discourse conventions.

Finally, understanding rhetorical practices of writing in an academic institution requires analysis of the written texts and the contextual layers participating in the production of the texts. This reflects my understanding of a discourse that goes beyond examining texts, as explained below.

### **3.3.2 Defining a discourse**

Schiffrin, Tannen, and Hamilton (2001) identified three perspectives of discourse: (1) anything beyond the sentence level that deals with formal properties of language (e.g., syntax, semantic, pragmatic); (2) concerned with language used in a particular situation, such as a conversation in a café; and (3) a wider range of social practices that is not limited to linguistic elements only, such as gestures, clothing, and tools that are expected from a person within that discourse community. Based on Schiffrin et al.'s three perspectives, discourse can be linguistically oriented or can be both linguistically and contextually oriented. Scholars define discourse differently based on their perceptions of what determines a discourse. For Stubbs (1983), discourse is “the linguistic analysis of naturally occurring connected spoken or written discourse” (p.1). This definition combines Schiffrin et al.'s first two categories. This linguistic perception of discourse is limited to formal characteristics of language, and it only focuses on the analysis of language stretches in a text. It does not extend beyond the textual meaning of the text and its linguistic forms.

However, Gee (2014) viewed Discourse as a combination of language and “other stuff” (other people, objects, values, time, places). Gee (2014) distinguished between discourse that refers to “language-in-use or stretches of language,” such as interviews or conversations, and the discourse that refers to “language plus other stuff.” He uses lower-case “d” (discourse) and capital “D” (Discourse) to refer to these two views of discourse respectively. Gee (1999) considered Discourses as ideologies, ways of life, and a macro-system of thoughts, whereas discourses are the actual texts and the observable interactions. For example, science as a macro-system constitutes a Discourse that consists of a set of social practices, institutions, roles, ways of behaving, values, beliefs, etc. Yet a

scientific activity—the construction and dissemination of knowledge—is, to a high degree, discursal. It involves the production and consumption of texts, spoken and written. An academic paper would therefore be part of the discourse enacting the Discourse of science.

However, the stability of a discourse is viewed differently. For example, on the one hand, discourse communities are viewed as stable and static (Prior, 1998), and on the other, scholars emphasize variations and diversity within the community:

*[discourse communities are] composed of individuals with diverse experiences, expertise, commitment and influence. There are considerable variations in the extent to which members identify with their myriad goals, methods and beliefs, participate in their diverse activities, and identify themselves with their conventions, histories or values. (Hyland, 2007, p. 9)*

Whether discourse communities are viewed as stable or flexible, the concept of a discourse community, in both cases, remains helpful as it “locate[s] writers in particular contexts to identify how their rhetorical strategies are dependent on the purposes, setting and audience of writing” (ibid., p. 9). Porter (1992) also adds that the concept of a discourse community is

*useful for describing a space that was unacknowledged before because we did not have a term for it. The term realigns the traditional unities—writer, audience, text—into a new configuration. What was before largely scene, unnoticed background, becomes foreground. (as cited in Swales, 2016, p. 10)*

Fairclough (2003) argued that we position ourselves, develop identities, and make decisions by taking on roles defined by discourses. However, this does not mean there is no room for individual cognition and subjective intake which, consequently, lead to different interpretations of discourses. For example, in educational contexts where teachers have to comply with the institution’s policies, teachers still use their subjectivity to interpret the institutional discourse; this will be reflected in their teaching, assessments, and relationships with students and colleagues. Adopting the discourses around us to shape who we are as well as our perceptions of reality, and yet being able to interpret discursive practices differently, is what makes discourse far from being eternal. Discourses have a history and they do change (Fairclough, 1992). Members of the discourse

can lead change in their social practices (discourse) and thinking because of new discoveries and influence from other discourses to which members may belong. Members who belong to different discourses can each influence change in their discourse. For example, being a member of the School of Education at University of Leeds and a member of CAS has definitely changed my perception of many social practices I once considered suitable for CAS. My membership in the Leeds city community has also led to my involvement in a different discursive process in which I have developed different meanings of reality, which will later affect my discursive interpretation of CAS social practices.

As for being a part of any discourse community, Gee (2014) argued that a person needs more than the language; he/she needs the other stuff, such as “acting-interacting-thinking-valuing-talking - (sometimes writing-reading)” in the “appropriate way” with the “appropriate” props at the “appropriate” times in the “appropriate” places (p. 26). Therefore, when engaging in a discourse analysis, language is only one tool that cannot provide, if used exclusively, a holistic understanding of the discourse community (Gee, 2014). The context of a language exists before language, and the factors that shape the context will shape the language. This makes the social context essential to understanding the reasons that language is produced the way it is. Fairclough (2003) is also an advocate of this view, making a contrast between “textually oriented discourse analysis,” which considers naturally-occurring language stretches only, and the other type of discourse analysis which is more socially oriented. Fairclough (2003) argued that these two approaches should not be used exclusively but rather to integrate linguistic and social approaches. Whether the discourse analysis is restricted to the language of the text only or the instances of language in use, both views are “still socially situated and need to be interpreted in terms of their social meanings and functions” (Paltridge, 2002, p. 8). According to Paltridge, discourse analysis

*focuses on knowledge about language beyond the word, clause, phrase, and sentence that is needed for successful communication. It looks at patterns of language across texts and considers the relationship between language and the social and cultural contexts in which it is used. Discourse analysis also considers the ways that the*



*use of language presents different views of the world and different understandings. (p. 2)*

Additionally, according to Fairclough (1992), discourses are embedded in institutions where members' social practices are organized, regulated, and administered, and the institution is driven by these social practices that can either facilitate or constrain. The institutional context also forms, supports, and reproduces the power relations of the discourse structure and social relationships between discourse participants. These power positions and knowledge can be shown and understood via texts (spoken or written language, and any form of semiosis). According to Fairclough (2010), institutional practices are largely textual and genre-related. He further stated:

*[T]he production of social life in social practices is partly the production of texts. The creativity of texturing as a mode of social production consists in generating new meanings through generating new combinations of elements of semiotic systems (including new 'wordings'). Any difference of wording entails a difference of meaning, though the nature of that difference is a matter for social negotiation and renegotiation as wordings are repeated in shifting contexts. (p. 174)*

As Fairclough (1992) added, there are different resources or means for texturing (genres) that a discourse either facilitates or limits, and different discourses have sets of genres representing the different ways to produce texts. Further, Fairclough (1992) viewed language as a major force in (re)shaping social practices in any discourse, which refers to "language use, whether speech or writing, seen as a type of social practice" (p. 28). Language plays a significant role in different contexts in everyday events in establishing the discourse and reinforcing its structural social power relations. Therefore, understanding a discourse requires examining the language in its social context. Brown and Yule (1983) argued that the analysis of discourse is

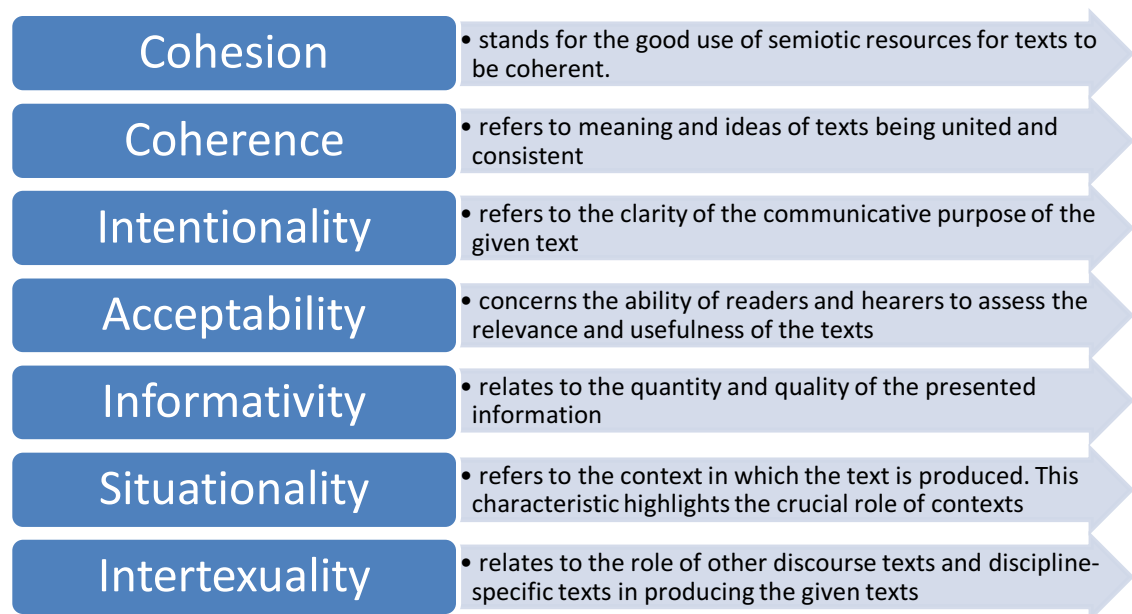
*the analysis of language use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes of functions which these forms are designed to serve human affairs. [Therefore] the discourse analysis is committed to an investigation of what that language is used for. (p. 1)*

In this context, language and texts serve as power tools that can create change in the discourse. However, text construction is shaped by the discursive social

practices in which the texts are produced and consumed. It is, then, crucial to examine the social factors affecting text production to understand texts; “the social is built into the grammatical tissue of language” (Chouliaraki & Fairclough, 1999, p. 140). The current study is aligned with a view of discourse that spans beyond textual analysis and considers texts as ‘social products’ whose social context must be considered (Fairclough, 2003; Gee, 2014; Johns, 2002; Paltridge, 2010). The next section highlights the role of texts, as final products of context, in understanding the institution’s discourse community.

### 3.3.3 Role of texts in understanding the discourse of academic institutions

Kress (2011) maintained that language forms, mostly writing, represent the material texts for understanding and investigating discourses. During discourse analysis, analysts usually “work with texts,” referring to an “actual instance of written or spoken data” (Bloor & Bloor, 2007, p. 29). In the institutional context, texts cannot be studied in isolation from other texts since institutional discourse consists of “bodies of texts” that significantly influence the production of new texts (Phillips, 2004). Any study of discourse requires scrutiny of its texts. These texts are defined as “communicative events” that possess seven characteristics (Alba-Juez, 2009). Descriptions of these characteristics are presented in Figure 3.



**Figure 3: Characteristics of texts (Alba-Juez, 2009)**

These text characteristics confirm that the situated context as well as existing texts influence new text construction. As Kress (2011) noted, texts are “socially made, with culturally available resources” (p. 207). Texts can be treated as tangible manifestations of the institution’s social principles that shape text construction (ibid.). The influential role of texts in discourse analysis leads to a discussion of the impact of institutions and the restrictions they impose on text production (Bloor & Bloor, 2007). Institutions are “conventions that are self-policing” and control the behaviours and practices of their participants (Phillips, Lawrence & Hardy, 2004, p. 637). Institutions, in this sense, dictate what is acceptable, what is unacceptable, and what must be done for membership and success in an institutional community. Fairclough (1995) elaborated:

*Each institution has its own set of speech events, its own differentiated settings and scenes, its cast of participants, and its own norms for their combination. [...] It is, I suggest, necessary to see the institution as simultaneously facilitating and constraining the social action of its members: it provides them with a frame for action, without which they could not act, but it thereby constrains them to act within that frame. (as cited in Phillips et al., 2004, p. 638).*

Through discourses, institutions are produced, and clear self-regulating mechanisms enable or constrain specific values, norms, behaviours, and practices during text productions (ibid.). An institution’s ability to form and enforce its own practices makes it unique and different. This strongly encourages the study of institutional discourse in its own time and context (Phillips et al., 2004). Every institution is particular in the types, purposes, structures, language forms, and genres of its texts. I argued that exploring an institution’s context requires an understanding of the institution’s texts that “produce the social categories and norms that shape the understanding and behaviours of actors” (p. 638).

Phillips et al. (2004) added that “discourses that are more coherent and structured are more likely to produce institutions than those that are not” (p. 645). Discourses can be considered coherent when the hallmark texts that constitute a discourse are unified, consistent, and connected. When these texts oppose or contradict each other, the discourses cannot form a clear structured institution (ibid.). For example, in an academic institution, different disciplinary discourses

comprise the academic institution. Each discourse has its own conventions and values to guide text construction, and the texts in each discipline should not oppose each other—they should all be aligned with the institution’s policies, values, and guidelines while simultaneously keeping their own conventions during new text construction.

Based on this understating of texts in an academic institution, citation use as a central feature of academic writing must be studied as an institutional phenomenon to provide a comprehensive understanding of students’ reasons to use sources the way they do and the contextual influences impacting their use. These contextual influences can be examined through the analysis of different levels of texts that leave “meaningful traces” in students’ citation-use practices. These texts can include institution texts (e.g. policies) as well as documentary resources (e.g. module specifications and outlines, writing rubrics and guidelines, and assessment policies) (Samraj, 2012).

### **3.3.4 The genre-based view of discourse**

Genre is a complex concept that has a great influence on how we understand and teach language. Each genre type has specific set of conventions, including source-use practice, that varies in different disciplines. Our understanding of genre is important to this study as each genre, according to Hyland (2015),

*refers to abstract, socially recognised ways of using language, but like any well-worn concept, genre is understood in a variety of ways: from an emphasis on context and Bakhtinian notions of intertextuality and dialogism to descriptions of configurations of systematic language choices. (p. 32)*

Martin (1984) asserted that genre is central in analysing discursal texts as it is fundamental to understanding how text writers use language to “accomplish things [...] in a culturally specific way” (p. 28). Given the role genre plays in the production of texts and discourse continuity, the concept of genre has been extensively studied in applied linguistics and language teaching, which has resulted in multi-perspectival pedagogical approaches to genre. Hyon’s (1996) seminal work distinguished three major “worlds” of genre scholarship within applied linguistics: New Rhetoric, English for specific purposes (ESP) and systemic functional linguistics (SFL). New Rhetoric or Rhetorical Genre Studies

(RGS) (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010) emphasizes the social purposes of genre that Miller (1984) defined as “typified rhetorical actions based in recurrent situations” (p. 31). Bawarshi and Reiff (2010, p. 87) explain that RGS recommends “an apprenticeship-based genre approach along with teaching students how to recognize a genre’s context and its relationship”. Flowerdew (2002) described RGS as a ‘non-linguistic approach’ to genre studies, as genre gains more insights into “the attitudes, values, beliefs, of the communities of text users” (Hyland, 2002, p. 114). Although this approach provides an understanding of “how actors adapt genres to suit unique conjunctures of space and time”, it does not explain a way of assessing why writers in varying contexts produce different generic texts and that diverse contexts evaluate these texts differently (Collin, 2012, p. 77).

ESP and SFL share a similar pedagogical approach to genre. Both approaches advocate for ‘visible pedagogy’ which “seeks to offer writers an explicit understanding of how target texts are structured and why they are written the way they are” (Hyland, 2004, p. 11). Explicit teaching of genre is a primary focus in these two approaches; however, the target audience who benefits from the explicit teaching is different. SFL targets school-age children whereas the audience for ESP can be L2 graduate-level students (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). The implication of targeting different audience in both approaches resulted in teaching different types of genre. SFL classifies genre at the cognitive macro-level known as ‘pre-genre’ in which genre is located “at the level of context of culture”. Pre-genres include explanations, narration, description and recounts (ibid., p. 44). On the other hand, the ESP approach locates “genres within more specifically defined contexts” that represent specific disciplinary settings. Genres, for ESP, can be “research articles, literature reviews, conference abstracts, research presentations”, etc. (p. 44). Finally, both approaches, SFL and ESP, have played a significant role in shaping the understanding of student writing and in the construction of EAP writing pedagogy (Green, 2016). Therefore, an informative view of genre can guide the investigation of academic texts for the purpose of understanding why writers write the way they do.

For the purpose of this study, similar to Swales (1990), I perceive genre, in the academic context, as complete written texts which have beginnings, middles and ends that requires many rhetorical practices, including synthesising, analysing, evaluation, hedging, intertextuality, citations, etc. to produce it successfully (Green, 2020). I also argue that in order to produce a specific type of genre successfully, L2 students should be familiarised with the overall purpose of the genre, its structure, and the specific rhetorical practices required for each section of the genre such as intertextuality, stance and construction of authorial identity (ibid.). Genre is also influenced by the contextual factors in which it is produced (e.g. discipline community); therefore “students will need to gain insights into the specific pedagogic genres required in their disciplines and their level of participation” (ibid., p. 16). Although genre, such as a research report, has a common typified structure in any context of production, the rhetorical practices that any construction of written texts (genre) requires are influenced by the context of texts. In academic discourse communities, these rhetorical practices are shaped by the type of instructions, scaffolding, institutions’ policies and the disciplinary community’s norms and conventions. Therefore, examining these rhetorical practices in relation to the context of writing is significant in understanding why a specific genre type is produced the way it is. For this study, rhetorical functions of citations are analysed in a specific type of genre which has common conventions for the use of citations.

### **3.3.5 Research report as a genre**

The type of genre examined in this study is the research report. Nesi and Gardner (2007) perceived the research report genre as academic written texts that can either be produced throughout the years of university study or in the final year of undergraduate study, which are sometimes called “graduation projects”. The research report genre can be done individually or in groups, and the aim is to “demonstrate familiarity with and expertise in the research methods of the discipline” (p. 137). This genre shares similar structural components across different disciplines and institutions. It may also share some structural similarities either in full or in part with other assessed assignments in the discipline, “but they include specific attention to developing, justifying and embedding the research

question in the literature of the field, and therefore generally include more references to ‘theory’ sources” (p. 138). According to Nesi and Gardner (2007), there are two distinct types of research report genres: complex topic-based macrostructure and complex genre-based macrostructure. The complex topic-based research report can be in the form of dissertations, research articles or long essays in the field of Arts and Humanities. The structure of this type is represented as “chapters or section headings that carry primarily ideational meaning [...] which point to the field rather than the genre” ( Nesi and Gardner, 2007, p. 138). However, in a complex genre-based macrostructure research report, the heading structure is very similar to the IMRD framework (introduction, methodology, results, discussion) which “carry[ies] primarily textual meaning [...] which point to the genre rather than the content of the field” (ibid., p. 183). For this type of genre,

*students need to grasp its overall purpose, the way each section contributes to realising the purpose, the pivotal role played by the research questions [...], and so where to go to find the specific information they need ( Green, 2020, p. 16)*

Research project reports and experiment reports are examples of this genre-based type. Nesi and Gardner’s (2007) analysis found that a research project report resembles a published journal article “where the aims of the study are contextualized in the literature” (p. 142), whereas the experiment reports are more concerned with the methodology and results of the study. Thus the use of other sources is more evident in research projects and they are used much less in the experiment reports.

Examining the use of sources in the research report genre in the context of this study will provide a better understanding of students’ source-use practice and whether their practices are in conformity with the description of Nesi and Gardner (2007).

### **3.4 Rhetorical functions of citations typologies**

One way of understanding source-use practice is through investigating the rhetorical functions of citations in academic texts. This section discusses how prior research investigated the rhetorical functions of citations and the typologies

they offered to understand and analyse the functions of citations in academic writing. The purpose of this section is to establish an understanding of the development of these typologies and to highlight their shortcomings. This is important to establish the rationale for the study and to justify the choice of typology for the analysis. The section consists of three sub-sections: (a) the methodological approaches to understanding the functions of citations; (b) the typologies of analysis of rhetorical functions of citations in academic writing; and (c) the practice of source-use at undergraduate level.

### 3.4.1 Methodological approaches to understanding the functions of citations

Two methodological approaches have been used to create lists of functions or classification schemes for citations. The first method is context or content analysis which relies on analysing the text and language surrounding the citation (Bornmann & Danial, 2008; Tabatabaei, 2013). One of the earliest comprehensive categories of citation using this approach was Moravcsik and Murugesan (1975). This study followed the pioneer studies in context citation analysis conducted by Garfield (1962) and Lipetz (1965), who both offered citation motivation schemes that were based on their content expertise and field knowledge (Bornmann & Danial, 2008; Tabatabaei, 2013). Moravcsik and Murugesan's (1975) study is among the first empirical studies to respond to criticism of the quantitative nature of citation count as an evaluative tool of scientific accomplishment. The aim was to investigate the qualitative nature of citations (the purposes for using the citations) by analysing the citations' motives through the content surrounding the citations. The researchers analysed 30 articles published in *Physical Review* between 1968 and 1997. Their citation categories were formed based on the number of questions.

**Table 3: Moravcsik and Murugesan (1975) Classification of Citation**

No.	Questions	Citation categories
1	Is the reference made in connection with a concept or theory (conceptual) or is it made in connection with a tool or a physical technique used in the referring paper (operational)?	Conceptual/Operational
2	Is the reference truly needed for understanding of the refereeing paper or is it mainly an acknowledgment that	Organic/Perfunctory



	some other work in the same general area has been performed?	
3	is the referring paper built on the foundations provided by the reference, or is it an alternative to it?	Evolutionary/Juxtapositional
4	Is it claimed by the referring paper that the reference is correct, or is its correctness disputed?	Confirmative/Negational

However, this scheme has been criticized and modified to make it more applicable to soft disciplines (e.g. applied linguistics) and to be easier to label and code when the number of citations is significantly high (Peritz, 1983; Swale, 1986). The classifying categories in the scheme can also be very challenging, for example for non-experts in the subject who need to decide between organic and perfunctory or conceptual and operational. Moreover, no linguistic markers or guidelines were provided to make sense of these general functions of citations that might not be feasible for non-expert writers to express.

Many other motivations of citation schemes (Chubin & Moitra, 1975; Frost, 1979; Peritz, 1983; Spiegel-Rosing, 1977) using content or context analysis were then introduced, and every author “has regarded his or her problem or approach as unique, and has gone on to construct a scheme with little attention given to comparing it with earlier work” (Small, 1982, p. 300). Most of these schemes have been developed in isolation of the previous typologies which were not replicated in different contexts. This has affected their reliability. Although these schemes use different terminologies in their classifications, most of them refer to the same meanings (ibid.). Smith (2005) reported “striking parallels” and similarities between the proposed schemes in context citation analysis. Some scholars, therefore, called for a unified scheme which relates to previous schemes and that should be applied in different contexts and disciplines for more reliability and validity (Bornmann & Danial, 2008; Smith, 2005).

Another methodological approach in analysing citation motives is through direct surveys and interviews with the citers (Bornmann & Danial, 2008). Brook (1986) pioneered direct interviews with publishing academics from different university departments with regard to their motives for citations in specific citation occurrences. He interviewed approximately 20 writers and used their answers to classify the citers’ motives, and classified them into three groups:

1. Persuasiveness, positive credit, currency and social consensus
2. Negative credit
3. Reader alert and operational information ( Brooks, 1986, p. 36)

These three proposed groups reflect “the parameters of citer motivations” (p. 36) as described by the interviews. His study revealed that persuasiveness was mentioned by citers as their most frequent motive for citation. In contrast to Brook (1986), White and Wang (1997) studied citation motives by interviewing citers from one discipline (faculty and graduate students in agricultural economics). The study analysis was targeting citations presented in different genres (reports, book chapters, articles, thesis proposals and dissertations) which can significantly affect the reliability of the model of citation motivation generated as a result of this study, given that every genre has unique conventions and norms, including citation practice (Swales, 1986).

Both methodological approaches, context/content analysis of citations and interviews and surveys with citers, have been criticized in the literature. Using the content and context analysis in understanding the motives for citation has been criticized as it “involves a large degree of personal judgment as well as an in-depth knowledge of the subject matter” (Peritz, 1983, p. 303). According to Bornmann and Danial (2008), most of the studies that relied on content and context analyses did not provide clear and practical standards regarding how the final decisions on motives were reached, which led to reliability issues. Some researchers have tried to offer “explicit textual cues” to indicate the motive, which can enable non-expert analysts to understand the motives (ibid.). However, Hanney, Frame, Grant, Buxton, Young and Lewison (2005), who added to the methodological development of citation studies by examining the categorization of citations in the assessment of the outcomes from health research, found that relying on the explicit textual cues in understanding the relationship between the citing and cited article to identify the citing motive for the purpose of determining the impact of cited works is unclear. Their findings were contradictory to prior studies, which only relied on content and context analysis of citations, and which showed a clear relationship between the number of times an article was cited and the classification of the cited article as being of high importance. The

categorizations of importance used in this study were *peripheral*, *limited*, *considerable* and *essential*, in which the first category indicates no importance and the later reflects critical importance.

Bornmann and Danial (2008) and Tabatabaei (2013) also highlighted some shortfalls of both surveying and in-depth interviews when eliciting the citers' motives. Providing the citers with a checklist or pre-defined motives is not a true reflection of the citers' motives of citation, but rather a reflection of the researcher's "personal judgments" of motives (Bornmann & Danial, 2008). The citer is forced to choose from the given list of motives, even if they do not reflect his or her true motives. On the other hand, direct interviews, where the real citers' words are used to express their motives for citing, can be disparaged. Citers can be intentionally untruthful about their motives for citing, or their memory can be inaccurate about their motives (Bornmann & Danial, 2008; Tabatabaei, 2013).

A final thought about these early typologies of functions of citations in academic writing that explored different methods for understanding why citers cite the way they do, is their isolation from each other (Brooks, 1986). These pioneer typologies in the field of functions of citation analysis were developed with little consideration of what is already in the literature. Using different methods of analysis should not mean disregarding previous work but rather building from it.

The following section discusses the role of the rhetorical functions of citation in pedagogically informing EAP literacy. It highlights the most cited typologies of rhetorical functions of citations offered to pedagogically support students' academic writing. Unlike pioneer typologies of functions of citations, discussed above, the following typologies are continuations of previous works. Building on previous typologies provides more validity to the typology and offers more opportunities to explore them in different contexts, which can reveal new context-specific functions.

### **3.4.2 Typologies of rhetorical functions of citations**

As previously discussed, citation is a distinctive and significant feature of successful academic writing used for various rhetorical functions, ranging from displaying scholarship in the field to making new knowledge and gaining

membership of the discourse community. In the next section, I discuss the most prominent frameworks of rhetorical functions of citations generated to inform EAP instruction and disciplinary-academic writing in postgraduates and expert writers' contexts. This is significant to identify the gaps and limitations of each typology and to justify the adoption of the typology of analysis in this study. I also discuss some of the few studies that have investigated source-use practice in undergraduate contexts. The aim is to establish an understanding of the limitations and findings of these studies which can subsequently inform the process of the current study and guide the interpretation of the findings in relation to other contexts.

#### **3.4.2.1 Frameworks of rhetorical functions of citations in postgraduate and expert writers' contexts**

A considerable amount of attention has been given to the strategies of citations (summary, paraphrase, and quotations) and forms of citations, namely integral and non-integral citations. Integral citations refer to the cited author(s) placed within the sentence structure with an explicit grammatical role, e.g. "*Miller and Tanksley (1990a) found no such correlation when studying tomato genomic clones*" (Thompson, 2001, p. 106), and non-integral citations refer to the cited author(s) in brackets, with no grammatical role within the sentence (Swales, 1986,1990) (e.g. "*Both diseases are of economic importance but black Sigatoka develops much more rapidly, causes more severe defoliation, and is more difficult to control than yellow Sigatoka (Stover and Dickson, 1976)*" (Thompson, 2001, p. 104). Other use of citations includes strategies of citations (quotations, summary and paraphrase) (Keck, 2006; Thompson, 2001) and appropriation of citations (patch-writing and plagiarism) (Howard, 1995; Pecorari, 2003, 2013; Shi, 2010). A review of most used EAP textbooks has demonstrated that citation practice was addressed more for its surface features than for its functions (Thompson & Tribble, 2001). Therefore, academic literacy scholars have extended the research of citation practice beyond its surface features to be more understanding of why students use citations and how EAP courses can support students' source-use practice to improve the quality of their writing (Shi, 2008; Thompson, 2005; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). Analysing the rhetorical purposes

of citations is central to understanding why writers use citations. However, this analysis must be directed by a clear analysis framework suitable for the data collected and the context of study. Previous studies have offered some frameworks which can guide our analysis of rhetorical functions of citations in academic writing. These prominent frameworks were formed within different contexts and by using different methodological approaches.

One of the first frameworks that examined citations beyond its surface features was offered in Thompson's (2001) study. This study examined a corpus of 16 doctoral theses from two disciplines: eight from agricultural botany and another eight from agricultural and food economics. The study examined citations found across all rhetorical sections of PhD theses regarding their syntactic position and the rhetorical functions they demonstrated. Thompson (2001) generated a classification scheme extending Swales' (1990) binary classification of integral and non-integral (e.g. Swales, 1990). Thompson (2001, p.106) sub-classified integral citations based on formal linguistic features into:

1. Verb controlling (the citation acts as the agent that controls a verb, in active or passive voice), Ex: "Miller and Tanksley (1990a) found no such correlation when studying tomato genomic clones"
2. Naming (the citation is a noun phrase or a part of a noun phrase), Ex: "Surprisingly no attempt was made on publication of the work of Fukud et al. (1989), to assay ACC oxidase from plant sources under these condition"
3. Non-citation (when the author's name is given without a year reference), Ex: "These lower order moments potentially provide enough information to accurately specify an appropriate lag structure (see Silver and Wallace)"

Non-integral citation is sub-classified, based on functional criteria into (Thompson, 2001, pp. 104-105):

1. Source (citation indicates from where the idea came), Ex: "Both diseases are of economic importance, but black sigatoka develops much more rapidly, causes more severe defoliation, and is more difficult to control than yellow sigatoka (Stover and Dickson, 1979),

2. Identification (citation identifies an agent within the sentence to which it refers), Ex: "It has been suggested (Wardlaw, 1972) that *M. fijiensis* might be of a mutant of *M. musicola*..."
3. Reference (citation is usually signaled by the inclusion of the directive "see"), Ex: "This equation can be rearranged to express Total Factor Productivity as a function of research spending (see Thirtle, 1988)"
4. Origin (citation indicates the originator of a concept or a product) (pp. 95-96), Ex: "The LOD score (Ott, 1985) is defined as the log<sub>10</sub> of ..."

Associating specific functions with each form of citation is an advancement of Swales' (1990) classification and the analysis of functions of citations. Employing Thompson's (2001) citations classification highlights the following significant findings with which many other scholars agree. According to this framework, writers from different and similar disciplines use citations differently (Thompson, 2001; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). Moreover, Thompson's classifications of citations reveal the different patterns of language that are associated with specific types of citations, as in naming or verb-controlling citations.

Thompson's study is among the preliminary studies of citation function in academic texts in different disciplines for pedagogical reasons, to improve teaching for academic purposes. However, Thompson's framework has several limitations. One drawback is the restriction of functions to one citation form. For example, the functions "source and origin" are restricted to non-integral citations when, in fact, they can be accomplished by each type of citation (Petrić, 2007; Samraj, 2013). Also, the subcategories of this framework are not only generated based on citation function, but they are based on a combination of both syntactic positions of citations and functions of citations. Thus this framework might not be entirely applicable for studies focused only on the analysis of citations' rhetorical functions. A third limitation is explained by Samraj (2013), who analyzed the rhetorical functions of citations in the discussion chapter of Masters theses and research articles from Biology.

Samraj (2013) began with Thompson's (2001, 2005) framework and found that the framework needed to be expanded to reflect more different, complex rhetorical functions of citations. She identified eight functions in her analysis. The

expanded taxonomy guided the second analysis of the same texts and included comparison of results, interpretation of results, explanation of results, evaluation of study, evaluation of field, research recommendations, applied recommendations, and background. In contrast to Thompson's (2001) classifications of citations, Samraj's expanded taxonomy is formed on the basis of citation function only; forms of citations are not associated with specific functions. Unlike previous studies (Mansourizadeh & Ahmed, 2011; Petrić, 2007), Samraj found that novice Masters students and expert writers use rhetorical functions of citation similarly throughout the discussion chapter; no vast differences were found in the two sets of texts. The study also showed that citations are used for different purposes in the discussion chapter, going beyond the comparison of results as some previous studies have suggested (Ruiying & Alison, 2003). Based on Samraj's findings, a need for more explicit teaching of intertextual link construction in academic writing was highlighted; this refers to giving students more controlled exercises, which would require students to identify the functions of citations shown in the given texts.

Although Samraj's framework is more detailed and based on rhetorical functions only, the findings would have been more effective if they had been applied in the different sections of the theses. Another limitation is the L1 context, which has been previously explored and which can be a challenge when compared to L2 contexts. The study also compares expert research writers and postgraduate theses, which can produce more functions that require a deeper understanding of the discipline content and more advanced linguistic demands, such as "evaluation of the fields" and "interpretation of the results."

In another seminal study, Harwood (2009) took a different approach to analyzing students' use of citations. Harwood supported Cronin's (2005) perception of the citation as a "private and subjective process" (p. 497). Therefore, it cannot be fully understood by textual analysts who rely on content and context analysis to classify citation functions. For this reason, Harwood used an emic, interview-based approach to identify citation functions by specifically asking citers for an "insider account." Participants included six published writers from the disciplines of Computing and Sociology. Harwood relied on interviews with writers about

one of their recently published works, inquiring about the functions of each citation. By conducting semi-structured interviews, Harwood (2009) identified 11 citation functions:

1. Signposting: directs to other sources to help interest less-informed readers to keep the argument on track and save space
2. Supporting: helps authors justify (i) the topic of the research; (ii) the method/methodology employed; and/or (iii) the author's claims
3. Credit: acknowledges authors' debt to others for ideas or methods to pay respect to the author or establish a "self-defense" motivation. The use of adjectives sometimes positively evaluates the citation
4. Position: allows authors to (i) identify representations and exemplars of different viewpoints; (ii) explicate researchers' standpoints in detail; and (iii) trace development of a researcher's/field's thinking over time
5. Engaging: appears when authors are in critical dialogue with sources. Most engaging citations also summarize the source's positions, meaning that one citation can have more than one function
6. Building: occurs when authors use sources' methods or ideas as a foundation to develop further
7. Tying: aligns authors with other sources' methods/methodology, specific schools of thought/disciplinary traditions, or debates on specific issues
8. Advertising: alerts readers to a writer's earlier work or others' work
9. Future: establishes future research plans
10. Competence: helps underscore writers' expertise by displaying knowledge of the field and an ability to conduct research
11. Topical: allows writers to demonstrate that their research is concerned with state-of-the-art issues

This study shows evidence that citations are used differently across the disciplines as demonstrated in previous studies (e.g. Thompson, 2001). According to the quantitative analysis, the functions that occurred most in Computing were signposting, position, and supporting; position, engaging, and supporting were demonstrated more frequently in Sociology. Findings also



showed that multifunctional citations appeared more in Sociology (a total of 273 citations) when compared to Computing texts (a total of 148).

The semi-structured interview approach facilitated citation-function analysis as it requires no content experts and no linguistic markers to understand citation functions. According to Harwood, the citer is the best person to describe a citation's function, given that the citation is "individual and subjective" (Borgman & Furner, 2002, as cited in Harwood, p. 516). However, there are some limitations to Harwood's emic approach. Harwood acknowledged that the participants might have difficulty recalling the true functions of their citations, especially when a text had been written some time ago. This may explain why one citation can have up to five functions. Another shortcoming is that some interviewees might be hesitant to share their "meaningful insights into their subjective view" of citation practice for fear of the reasons not satisfying the interviewer (Miller & Glassner, 2004, p. 127). This is more likely to happen when interviewing novice writers, especially in L2 contexts when both their knowledge of the citation function and their language proficiency is limited. Thus some novice writers might not be able to express their true motivations for citation use as expert writers do. Even expert writers (as in Harwood, 2009) "are unlikely to be transparent about (unsavory) motivations" (p. 515), as his informants wanted to acknowledge the strengths of previous research even if they criticize their works. The subjectivity of citations may also be a limitation of this study. Eliciting citation functions from each writer "may produce neither accurate nor consistent results" (Erikson & Erlandson, 2014, p. 627). Writers can express their citation use differently even if they refer to similar meanings. Thus, if researchers rely on informants' descriptions, they might receive a long list of citation functions.

Another framework of rhetorical functions of citations is Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011). The study findings were based on a small corpus of 14 research papers, written by non-native English writers from the Chemical Engineering discipline in a Malaysian university: seven Masters students and seven expert published writers. The Masters students' papers were first draft research papers written for publication, as publishing a paper was a graduation requirement. The study analyzed citations based on their syntactic criteria and their functions, and

the researchers used Thompson and Tribble's (2001) and Petrić's (2007) typologies to develop their analysis framework. The analysis revealed one more function, "support", which is used "to support the truth of claims and ... to serve as justification for findings" (p. 154). This added function is similar to Harwood's (2009) "supporting" citation. The researchers' final analysis framework covers the following:

**Table 4: Mansourizadeh and Ahmad's (2011) analysis framework**

<i>Focus of the analysis</i>	<i>Citations</i>	<i>Used typology</i>
Citation types	Non-integral	Thompson and Tribble ( 2001)
	Integral-verb controlling	
	Integral-naming	
Citation functions	Attribution	Thompson and Tribble (2001)
	Identification	
	Reference	
	Comparison of one's findings with other sources	Petrić (2007)
	Establishing links between sources	
	Support	New function similar to Harwood's(2009) supporting function

The analysis demonstrated that non-integral citations are used more in both expert and novice papers, consistent with Hyland (2000), who shared that hard disciplines use non-integral citations more to show objectivity in their findings. Regarding citation functions, the study also showed "attribution" as the most frequently used function in both expert and novice writing, but more often in novice writing, which aligns with previous studies (e.g. Petrić, 2007). Although expert writers use attribution citations frequently, they still demonstrate more complex, sophisticated citation use as compared to novice writers. Researchers attributed their complex citation use to their lengthier experience and the knowledge they had gained over the years.

Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) are among the few to explore source use and analyze text collected from L2 writers. Their study considered recommendations from the literature to improve EAP design to teach more complex citation functions more explicitly to familiarize L2 learners with the conventional citation

practices of their discourse community. In addition, the study raised awareness of the complexity of source use in academic writing and the need to address this complexity in the EAP curriculum. However, Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) did not provide a comprehensive understanding of the differences between the texts of postgraduates and expert writers. The analysis framework was only utilized to quantify citation functions in participants' texts without explaining the differences in the results by exploring the study context. Investigating the study context could uncover the challenges and obstacles that cause Masters students' use of citations to be less complex and more descriptive.

Petrić and Harwood (2013) also informed L2 academic writing instruction. The authors explored the rhetorical functions of citations from a different angle by investigating the relationship between functions of citation and task representations and requirements. A semi-structured interview with one successful L2 Masters student from the Management Studies discipline at a UK university was conducted in order to elicit the functions of citations from the student herself, as shown in her two assignments. The two assignments were part of the Masters program requirements, and both assignments were library research papers that required writing from different sources. These assignments differed in the level of explicit instructions given to students. One was a directed task with more details and clear guidelines about topic choice and structure. The other was an open task, which did not restrict students to a list of topics and encouraged them to be creative in their topic choice and relate it to the module theme.

Eight citation functions were identified in two student interviews: position, defining, supporting, application, topic relevance, disagreement, acknowledgment, and agreement. The terms describing these functions either reflect the student's own words or summarize what the student said. Analysis of the students' assignments identified more citation occurrences (89) in the open task assignment versus the directed task assignment (47). Analysis also revealed the task-specific nature of some citation occurrences. For example, "topic relevance" and "disagreement" citations were only found in the open-task assignment, whereas "acknowledgement" occurred only in directed-task

citations. The study showed that the frequency of some rhetorical functions was also task-specific. For example, the quantitative analysis showed a vast difference in the frequency of “position” citations in the open-task assignment (41), compared to the directed-task assignment (4). In addition, “application” was described more in the directed-task assignment (19) while it was elicited only once in the open-task assignment.

The interesting findings of this study highlighted the influence of task requirements on the use or absence of some rhetorical functions of citations in different types of written tasks. Petrić and Harwood (2013) further explain:

*task requirements and task representations encouraged Sofie [student] to cite for the purposes she believed were useful for task achievement, and conversely, discouraged the use of citation functions she didn't feel matched the task requirements (p. 121).*

This study highlighted more opportunities for further research to investigate why certain functions were not affected by task specifications and representations while others identified relationships between functions of citations and task types. This was informative to EAP instructors supporting L2 writers' use of sources to meet assignment requirements. Like previous studies, this study also demonstrated that participants tend to use citations for knowledge display and topic understanding in both assignments by using “defining,” “position,” and “acknowledgement” citations. According to the participant, demonstrating topic knowledge is important in both task types and essential to assessment.

Although the study demonstrates the influence of task requirements on students' source-use practice, findings cannot be seen as “common knowledge” among L2 Masters students in Management Studies (Petrić & Harwood, 2013). Findings were constructed from a successful student's answers, but they might not be applicable to low-performing students or students in non-native English contexts. For the same reason, the relationships between the task type and students' citation use warrants further investigation and analysis with a larger sample size.

One of the studies that extended the analysis of integral citations by relying on Thompson and Tribble's (2001) framework for the analysis of integral and non-integral citations is by Jalilifar (2012). Jalilifar examined the use of citation types (integral and non-integral) in the introduction sections of 65 international

published research articles (RA) and 65 Master theses in Applied Linguistics. Jalilifar considered the introduction section of MA theses and those of research articles to be, “a key genre in academic writing that is produced at advanced stages and aims to provide new knowledge claims” (p.28).

The study findings show that integral citations were used more by both MA and RA writers, but significantly more by MA writers. Verb controlling integral citations were the most frequent citations used by MA and RA writers (64.8%, 54.3%, respectively). Jalilifar extended Thompson and Tribble’s (2001) classification of integral citations by classifying the reporting verbs in verb controlling citations following Thompson and Ye’s (1991) classification into: “(a) true, using factive verbs; (b) false, using counter-factive verbs; or (c) non-factive verbs, giving no clear signal” (p.33). The purpose of the verb type analysis was to identify the writers’ stance towards the information taken from the source texts. The analysis showed that both MA and RA writers used non-factive verbs more frequently which indicated that writers were neutral and, “tend to withhold judgement for the cited texts” (p.33).

The second frequent citation form in both MA and RA introductions was integral naming citations and again, they were used more frequently by the MA writers. In terms of the classifications of non-integral citations, source citations were more frequent in MA and RA introductions while reference citations were used least. In general, MA writers used citations (integral and non-integral) far more than RA writers and their use of citations was more descriptive and less analytical, compared to the citation use of RA writers. Jalilifar (2012) ascribed the different use of sources in theses and research article introductions to the following:

*Ignorance of developing students’ knowledge of citation by some, if not all, supervisors; unawareness of novices of the impact of citation types on readers and the interpretation assigned to the text, unfixed boundaries concerning the established norms of citation use in postgraduate writing; and lack of literature on the conventions for citation practices in postgraduate writings (p.36).*

However, the given reasons for the different use of citations in theses and research articles were not elicited or interpreted from the writers’ responses. They were suggested by Jalilifar considering his knowledge and familiarity with

the Iranian context. Finally, the study calls for more attention to improve EAP courses to provide more relevant teaching materials to support students' understanding of genre-specific, and discipline-specific, source-use practice, to offer students a wide range of rhetorical citation functions and to train them to use different forms of citations when they write from sources.

The above typologies were generated in different contexts with varied participants, but they are all pedagogically motivated, or designed to improve the teaching of academic writing. Another observation of all the proposed typologies was that they all reported that both expert writers and novice postgraduate learners use citations primarily to display knowledge of their subject and discourse community. These studies also shared the finding that expert writers demonstrate more complex, sophisticated use of citation function and that novice writers need more scaffolding and support when using the different rhetorical functions of citations to strengthen their academic writing.

In summary, although typologies were developed in the aforementioned studies, these studies did not comprehensively address reasons that citers cite the way they do via exploring the writing context in which texts are generated. Moreover, these studies used one analytical approach to identify citation function, either textual analysis or surveying and interviewing the citers. None of the studies adopted the two methodological approaches to identify the functions that researchers could not identify through textual analysis or the new.

Petrić's (2007) typology of rhetorical functions of citations is described in the next section and presented in a sub-section because it can provide a good framework for the analysis of citation function in undergraduate writing due to the researcher (myself) being from a different disciplinary discourse. However, the typology has some limitations that must be considered before data analysis.

#### **3.4.2.2 Petrić's rhetorical functions of citations typology**

Petrić's (2007) typology was used to analyze the rhetorical functions of citations of L2 undergraduates' research-based projects. This typology is intended to guide non-experts of any discipline to analyze the rhetorical functions of citations in academic writing. Petrić's (2007) typology drew from Thompson's (2001,

2005) classifications of citations. Petrić (2007) excluded the form-based categories from the analysis, only utilizing the functional criteria of Thompson's (2001) framework (source, origin, reference, and example - see Section 3.4.2.1). More function-based categories were added as they appeared during data analysis.

Petrić (2007) analyzed 16 Masters theses written by non-native English students in a Gender Studies program at a European university where English is the language of instruction. Citations were coded according to their rhetorical function using a modified version of Thompson's (2001) classifications. Modifications included (1) combining the function of "origin," which refers to "the originator of a concept, technique or product" (Thompson, 2001, p. 105) with "attribution", because of the low frequency of the "origin" function in gender studies; and (2) using Thompson's criteria to classify both integral and non-integral citations, which differs from Thompson's (2001) original coding strategy, because these functions could be accomplished by using integral and non-integral citations. Moreover, Petrić (2007) made terminological changes to two of Thompson's classifications to dispel any confusion that the original terms might cause. For example, Petrić used the term "attribution" instead of "source" to refer to "this type of citation", while some might refer to its general meaning as "other authors' work". For purposes of clarity, Petrić also replaced "reference" with "further reference".

Petrić added new rhetorical functions, as they appeared in her sample, to Thompson's (2001) functional classifications, carefully considering linguistic cues that could indicate a writer's intent to categorize these new functions. Her final typology (Table 5) included nine functions that a non-expert in the subject could easily use to analyse citation function. This typology underwent coding, recoding, subdividing, and category merging following qualitative data coding guidelines (Coffey & Atkinson, 1996).

**Table 5: Summary of Petrić's (2007) typology**

Rhetorical functions of citations	Petrić's description	Linguistic cues or indications for the function	Examples from Petrić's (2007) corpus data
-----------------------------------	----------------------	---	---

<b>Attribution</b>	Citation attributes information or activity to an author. The attributed information may be a proposition, a term, or a stretch of text, while the activity may be a research, discourse or cognitive act.	This type can be realized as a summary/paraphrase or quotation	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 while women tend to be passive objects to be looked at, which in turn supports and symbolizes the patriarchal power relations between the sexes.
<b>Exemplification</b>	Citation provides information on the source(s) illustrated in the writer's statement. This type of citation can be used to create a link between general trends and the work of individual authors.	Usually preceded by "for example" or "e.g."	Many feminist scholars debate the concept of 'woman' and gender categories as such.  Monique Wittig, for example, argues that woman is defined only in relation to man, and since a lesbian does not depend on men either "economically, politically or ideologically...[she] is not a woman" and stands beyond the category of sex.
<b>Further reference</b>	Citation refers to works providing further information on the issue. This type shows the writer's ability to differentiate between relevant and additional information gathered from sources.	Usually in parentheses or a footnote and preceded by "see"	See Trafficking in Women and Prostitution in the Baltic States: Social and Legal Aspects (IOM, Finland, 2001).
<b>Statement of use</b>	Citation is used to state what works are used in the thesis and for what purposes.	It is found either in introductions and introductory paragraphs in chapters as a statement of prospective use, or  in conclusions or summaries of chapters as a statement of retrospective use	<i>Statement of prospective use</i>  In further analysis I will rely on Rosemary Hennessy's (1998) theorization of how queer visibility can be appropriated for commodity purposes.  <i>Statement of retrospective use</i>  For the theoretical implications of the concept of cognitive mapping, I have relied on Frederic Jameson's elaboration of that term.
<b>Application</b>	Citation makes connections between the cited and the writer's work in order to use the arguments, concepts, terminology or procedures from the cited work for the writers' own purposes.	No linguistic cues are provided; however, this citation type can be understood from the context when the focus is on the citer's work when using concepts or terminologies from the cited work	Having been in contact with high school life and students gave me a tacit or inarticulate knowledge that helps formulate interview questions in the language of the interviewee now that I became a "retrospective researcher" (Reinhartz, 1992, p. 27)



<b>Evaluation</b>	The citation evaluates the work of another author through the use of evaluative language. This includes positive and negative evaluation.	Explicit evaluative marker	<p><i>Positive</i></p> <p>Elizabeth Grosz's concept of "the body as inscriptive surface" is an ingenious way out of the nature/culture impasse.</p> <p><i>Negative</i></p> <p>Although I consider this definition to be useful, I think that due to its general character, it does not say much about the effects of gender in social and institutional relationships.</p>
<b>Establishing links between sources</b>	Citation points to links, usually comparison and contrast, between or among different sources used. It also includes cases where a common statement is attributed to a group of studies or authors, followed by a list of citations.	Comparison and contrast language	<p><i>Comparison between sources</i></p> <p>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, which is characterized by male dominance and control.</p> <p><i>Common statements attributed to a group of authors</i></p> <p>It is often mentioned in migration studies that the loss of the breadwinner role deteriorates men's status within the family and community (Al-Ali, 2002; Kibria, 1990; Matsuoka &amp; Sorenson, 1999; McSpadden, 1999).</p>
<b>Comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources</b>	Citation is used to indicate similarities or differences between one's own work and the works of other authors, typically when discussing the findings.	Language that shows similarities and differences	This conclusion supports one part of Krieger's argument that the basic function of community is affirmation of one's identity. While she further argues that community is also threatening to one's sense of self through eradication of differences (xii), such an attitude was not expressed by the respondents in my research.
<b>Other</b>	This citation includes cases where the relationship between the citing sentences and the citation is obscure.		What are the central research questions about women inmates, and what are the appropriate methods to be used in answering these questions? (Steward, 1994,p)

Petrić (2007) addressed the consideration of overlapping typology categories when one citation could indicate two functions. For example, she described the “statement of use” function as a possible implication of a positive evaluation function, since the citer used it sometimes for “explanatory power” (p. 247). However, in such cases, Petrić relied on explicit evaluative markers to distinguish between “statement of use” and “positive evaluation”. Petrić counted all functions for citations with multiple functions to avoid losing data.

Petrić (2007) identified quantitative and qualitative differences between high-rated theses and low-rated theses throughout their different sections. Quantitatively, attribution was the most frequently used function in both high- and low-rated theses (78.77% and 91.54%, respectively), and there were significantly more of this type in all theses’ sections. Petrić concluded that attribution “can be considered an unmarked citation function since it is the most common and rhetorically the simplest one” (p. 247). She added that attribution citations reflect the “descriptiveness” and “knowledge display” of L2 academic writing, especially in low-rated theses. Citation functions that required more analytical, complex thinking and language demands appeared less frequently than attribution, especially in low-rated theses.

Petrić (2007) suggested reasons for the different uses of rhetorical functions in high- and low-grade writing, finding both language insufficiency and inadequate understanding of citation as the main reasons for the differences. Petrić also showed that source-use practices influence the quality of academic writing, and this is reflected in higher grades being given for writing containing varying functions.

However, Petrić’s methodological approach has been criticized by others. Petrić offered some linguistic signals that can indicate citation function for non-experts in a subject. However, Harwood (2009) argued that understanding citation function through textual or context analysis might not reveal their true functions, as these methods require content knowledge. In other words, only citers can explain the true functions of their citations. Another limitation of Petrić’s typology is that expert-level writing might require different citation functions that may not have been included in her typology. Furthermore, Petrić did not consider the

writing context. The quantitative findings of citation functions were not explained or justified by the writing context. Petrić compared citation use between high and low-rated dissertations, but this does not explain the reasons that high grades were associated with more complex functions. Examining the assessment rubric and talking to the supervisors would have strengthened Petrić's observation about the relationships between academic success and complex citation use. Thus no conclusions can be established from students' writing alone. Examining the influence of discourse practices on text production will provide a more solid conclusion about the effects of different contextual factors on citation use, including the relationship between assessment and source use.

Another important observation about Petrić's typology is her categorization of the attribution function. Petrić admits that students, including her samples, mainly use attribution to display their knowledge of the topic rather than enacting their argumentation. However, the attribution function in Petrić's typology was given to two very distinct modes of writing: knowledge-telling and knowledge transformation. Petrić's attribution category does not reflect the difference between attribution for knowledge display (retelling what other authors wrote in isolation from the writer's argument) and attribution for knowledge transformation (establishing associations between different sources to elaborate an argument and refine prior knowledge). This is a very important distinction to make in order to understand the true rhetorical purpose of attribution, which can be significant in distinguishing between expert and novice writing. The explanation and examples provided by Petrić to explain the attribution function miss the significance of Scardamalia & Bereiter's (1987) distinction between knowledge-telling and knowledge-transformation in understanding the essential features of immature (novice) and mature (expert) composing processes respectively. For example, knowledge tellers "ought at a minimum to produce a statement of belief accompanied by a list of reasons, but not a developed line of argument" (p. 151), and their writing lacks the use of complex linking of ideas which results in an overall lack of argument coherence (*ibid.*). Although knowledge-tellers' writing may stick to the relevance of the topic, other 'linkages' among the different ideas

are significantly lacking. Scardamalia and Bereiter (1987) summarize writing within knowledge-telling and knowledge-transformation approaches:

*Novice writers depend on having knowledge already assembled (either in memory or through teacher-directed writing activities) in forms ready for written presentation. Experts can make use of complex knowledge-processing procedures to transform knowledge that is not assembled into coherent and effective form. Accordingly, what we see in the performance of expert writers is the execution of powerful procedures that enable them to draw on, elaborate, and refine available knowledge. For novices, however, writing serves more to reproduce than refine knowledge (p.171)*

As understood from Petrić's accounts, "the ability to use citation for knowledge transformation [at the master's level] is generally found in top grade theses only" (p. 248); however, her analysis of attribution function between high-rated theses and low-rated theses has not made the distinction between attribution for knowledge-transformation and attribution for knowledge-telling, considering the significant impact between the two writing modes in the production of texts. Petrić's typology seems to be predicated on the assumption that source-use is related to transformation of knowledge and her justifications for all functions of citations are supporting the enacting of argument. Therefore, it seems rhetorically inaccurate to allocate the same attribution function when the acknowledgment of authorship is participating in the establishment of the argument and when the purpose of acknowledgement is to reproduce the information of the source just to show knowledge of the content. I argue there should be a distinction between the two to better understand students' use of sources and to best reflect this understanding in any pedagogical intervention aiming to support source-use in academic writing.

Despite the limitations of Petrić's typology, it was still the framework chosen to guide the current analysis. First, this model is among the few that examine rhetorical functions of citations among L2 writers. Although the context of Petrić's study is different from this study's context, English is the language used for instruction in both contexts. Also, Petrić's participants' written work is similar to the texts to be analysed in this study, as participants produced a graduation project that followed the same structure as the theses from Petrić's study. The written project in this study has rhetorical macrostructures of introduction and

context of study, literature review, methods, analysis, and conclusion. The structural similarity between the texts from both studies makes Petrić's typology more relevant. In addition, Petrić's typology is generated by analysing written texts from gender studies, which is considered "soft science" (Becher & Trowler, 2001). Like Petrić, this study also examines written texts from two disciplines that are classified as "soft science": IB and Accounting. Moreover, Petrić's study participants are considered novice L2 writers with low English proficiency and little familiarity with academic writing norms and conventions, as compared to L1 writers. Petrić explained that some study participants' poor citation use was a result of their deficiency in English and their inadequate knowledge of the rhetorical functions of citations. Likewise, the participants of this study were novice students who struggled with their English proficiency and source use. Although participants in this study were undergraduate students, they shared learning characteristics with Petrić's participants, such as both sets of participants being L2 students in the L2 context and both being novice writers with language difficulties and academic writing demands that must reflect western conventions. In addition, Petrić's findings called for more consideration to improve EAP instruction related to teaching the rhetorical functions of citations in academic writing. This was a common goal of this study. Another useful feature of Petrić's taxonomy is that it is a continuum of prior scholars' typologies as it includes Thompson's (2001) classifications of citation functions as a starting point. Thompson's framework was also an extension of Swales (1990), who drew on previous literature to divide citation forms. The continuation of the knowledge from prominent research in constructing new knowledge is characteristic of good quality academic writing (Pecorari & Shaw, 2012). Finally, Petrić's typology is among the few applied in analysing citation function in the whole macrostructure of the Masters dissertations.

Considering all the reasons stated above, Petrić's rhetorical functions of citations typology was most applicable to the data in the current study. However, this study suggested more rhetorical functions of citations that are more specific to undergraduates' academic writing in an L2 context, which made this study a continuation of Petrić's significant work. This study explored the writing context

to explain the quantitative results of using Petrić's typology to draw conclusions about students' citation use.

In the next section, source-use practice at the undergraduate level, as explained in prior literature, is discussed to delineate the process of investigating source use in this study. This is necessary for understanding how the undergraduate context was explored, to inform the process of the current study and to relate its contribution and findings to different contexts.

### **3.4.3 Practice of source-use in undergraduate contexts**

Not many studies have investigated source use among undergraduates in L2 contexts. The appropriation of citations and strategies of citations in academic writing are the main concepts explored in L2 undergraduate contexts (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Keck, 2006; Moore, 1997; Pecorari, 2003; Shi, 2004). Limited attention has been given to citation functions in undergraduate students' writing. This section reports on how source-use practice at undergraduate level has been investigated and interpreted and provides a general understanding of source-use practice at the undergraduate level, highlighting gaps that should be explored. Findings from previous studies in the undergraduate context could also offer a better interpretation of the current study's findings.

In a recent study from the United States, Lee, Hitchcock, and Casal (2018) examined citation use in L2 first-year undergraduates. Lee et al. conducted a corpus analysis of 100 high-rated, source-based research papers written by students on a writing course. Participants were from various backgrounds. The researcher's analytical approach covered many aspects of citation use, including the surface forms of citations (block quotation, direct quotation, summary, and generalization), the rhetorical functions of citations, and the writer's stance using Coffin's (2009) framework. The study adopted Petrić's (2007) typology to analyze citation functions.

As seen in previous studies, attribution was the dominant function used (87.43%); thus students' writing was mostly descriptive rather than critical and analytical. The analysis identified few occurrences of the three other functions of exemplification (4.58%), evaluation (6.69%), and establishing links between

sources (1.23%). Despite the analysis including highly-rated assignments, citation use at its surface-level was seen in all analytical aspects covered in the study. Lee et al. (2018) affirmed that novice L2 undergraduate learners' abilities to form complex rhetorical citation functions is limited at this stage as they are still improving their language and learning academic norms and conventions. The study includes recommendations that students at this stage get more practice and instruction regarding the diverse purposes of citations in academic texts. However, this study has a number of limitations. (1) Findings were based on an analysis of high-rated, source-based assignments, which may not reflect the citation use in low-rated papers. (2) Although the study analyzed L2 undergraduate assignments, its context was L1 and findings could be different in the L2 context as discourse practice varies across contexts and disciplines (Hyland, 2007; Thompson 2001). For the same reason, undergraduates' source-use practice in disciplinary writing might be different from that seen in the study, given that the data were taken from a first-year writing course. (3) The analysis was purely quantitative, which might not reflect students' true intent for the citations used (Harwood, 2009).

In another important, mixed-method study of undergraduates' citation practice (Wette, 2017), 27 source-based assignments by third-year undergraduates from different subjects were examined. All participants had successfully completed their EAP courses and started their disciplinary courses at the time of study. Study participants attended a New Zealand university and were from different L2 backgrounds and disciplines. In the 27 assignments, the features of the 210 citations found were examined for their paraphrase quality, citation density, citation types, reporting forms, and rhetorical functions. The citations were compared to those of more competent citers as well as less experienced writers. Wette (2017) identified six rhetorical functions of citations:

1. Attribution of information or idea to a source; no other discernible function;
2. Acknowledgement by name of the originator of an idea, research finding or concept;
3. Support for the writer's argument through evidence from research findings or an example;

4. Support or confirmation from an authoritative source for the writer's argument/claim;
5. Identification of multiple sources with similar arguments, claims or research findings;
6. Direction to the reader to consult a source for further information (p. 50)

These functions were formed by the writer, who understood them from students' descriptions of their purposes for citing. There is no difference from previous studies' findings, and attribution citations were the dominant type (76.8%) followed by "acknowledgment of originator of ideas or findings" citations. Limited use of other citation functions was attributed to insufficient subject knowledge and a lack of confidence in criticizing other sources. When students were asked why they did not feel confident engaging with sources critically, one of them answered "my opinion might not be valid, so I need to cite someone else to make it stronger." Another student said, "I don't have the authority to say this on my own." Such perceptions of sources' authority shaped students' citation use. According to Wette (2017), students consider citations tools to "display familiarity with core texts" (p. 53), which explains the nature of undergraduates' writing being mostly descriptive. The study also revealed informative pedagogic insight regarding how L2 undergraduate students handle sources, the challenges they face, and the skills they need to improve their source use.

However, there are some shortcomings of this study. The researcher acknowledged that the study was "highly labor-intensive" (p. 55), simultaneously covering many features of citation practice (paraphrase quality, citation density, citation types, reporting forms, and rhetorical functions of citations), which required lots of effort and time. In similar studies, most researchers explored a single feature of citation practice, which resulted in a comprehensive understanding of that particular practice. In addition, the citations analyzed were from various disciplines, thus they cannot represent the practices of a single discipline.

Thompson, Morton, and Storch (2013) explored the source use of 13 first-year L2 undergraduate students studying in Australia. Although the rhetorical functions of citations were not specifically studied, the study's focus was on



revealing students' perceptions of their selection and use of sources and their authoring practice when using sources. These aspects of students' source-use practices are central to understanding why and how students use citations. Their source selection and reasons for choosing certain types of sources over others can give a clearer picture of students' reasons for citing.

Five interviews of students from different disciplines were conducted in this longitudinal study over two academic semesters to elicit their perceptions of source use as mentioned above. The assignments, used as data, were written for different courses. Interview analysis elicited the most frequent types of sources that students use when writing. Students mentioned that they frequently used websites and course materials in their writing. However, this may be a disadvantage because using these sources often limits their use of discipline-specific databases, which houses the scholarly writing of their discipline. The study also elicited the criteria guiding students in source selection. Participants shared that their first motivation for source selection is the source being reliable and authoritative. Students also listed *ease of understanding* and *relevance of sources* among the top reasons for selecting sources. This explains why attribution and acknowledgment of sources were the common functions of citations used by novice writers and evidenced in other studies (Petrić, 2007; Wette, 2017, Lee et al., 2018). Interviews also revealed why students use sources, the most common answer being *to support their opinions and arguments*. Students explained that they did not mention opposing viewpoints in their writing owing to ignorance of the opposing side or an inability to argue a different opinion. Thus students only used sources that supported their argument.

The study raised the pedagogical implication that EAP instruction should better support students' intertextual practice to boost their confidence in their ideas and enable them to address opposing sides. The study further demonstrated the influence of teachers' low expectations when students use sources, as students were encouraged to depend on course materials when writing and only seek information relevant to their argument. This can justify students presenting knowledge-display writing. However, this study was a general investigation of

undergraduate students' perceptions of their source-use practice; no specificity can be made for students' disciplinary practices. One of the study's aims was to observe students' source-use progress and change throughout the year, but the authors do not explain observation or measurement of these changes.

One of the few studies that sheds light on the practice of source-use in a group of Arabic undergraduate students is by Qin (2016). Qin examined the functions of citations which second-year students, from different disciplines, used when writing their argumentative essays (total of 20) by adapting the 'Toulmin Model of Argument (1958, 2003)' structure as a framework for analysis. The model consists of seven features: (1) claim; (2) data; (3) warrant; (4) counterargument claim; (5) counterargument data; (6) rebuttal claim; and (7) rebuttal data. The analysis of students' texts resulted in identifying two more categories of functions: introduction and thesis. In the 20 essays analyzed for the purpose of the study, Qin found that students used citations mostly for data and claims (24/23 respectively) whereas, rebuttal claims and rebuttal data were the least used citations (2/1 respectively). Qin also observed that most students provided summaries of their sources rather than integrating their sources to advance their arguments.

Another aspect that Qin examined through the analysis of her participants' texts was identifying the relationship between the use of source texts and the quality of students' argumentative essays through using a 5-scale, scoring rubric adapted from McCann's (1989) and Nussbaum and Kardash's (2005) rubrics. The rubric covered three dimensions: (1) 'the overall effectiveness of argument including the presence or absence of the possible opposing views' (counterarguments); (2) 'overall organization'; and (3) 'language use in general' (p.36). Qin found that essays which were marked poorly relied heavily on copying from sources and failed to use the source texts to support their arguments. She stated:

*It seems that greater use of source texts created the impression of more reliance on source texts, and consequently failed to show a writer's own efforts in arguing for his or her point of view. On the other hand, because the writing task required the students to use information from source texts in their writing, it would be appropriate to extract some source text information for their writing purposes, such*

*as using research studies in source texts as evidence to support their points of view or using the opposing views and data presented in the other source text as counterargument claim and counterargument data (p.39).*

Although Qin (2016) recommended explicit teaching of the use of sources in academic writing, the study does not provide an insight into whether there was a relationship between the instructions provided to students and the few cases of good-quality texts that were highly scored and that included more paraphrases from the source-texts to introduce opposing views or challenge these opposing views.

Another similar study that also analyzed L2 argumentative essays is by Kibler and Hardigree (2016). Kibler and Hardigree (2016) conducted a longitudinal study to examine the development of source use by one, successful L2 student in writing argumentative essays across high school and university. This included examining the development of evidence use in argumentative writing, texts that included, "logical appeals, claims, evidence, backing, and rebuttals" (Kibler & Hardigree, 2016, p.84), in terms of analyzing the type (paraphrases/quotations) and function of evidence (support claim, illustrate authors' positions, introduce source texts, give background about topic, establish links between sources and critique a claim) and the reporting verbs used to report the evidence. Thirty-six texts across grade level and course types, and sixteen interview transcripts, were analyzed to understand how Fabiola's (the participating student) use of sources in writing argumentative essays had developed and how her perspectives on the use of evidence had changed throughout her study progression. Kibler and Hardigree found that Fabiola's paraphrasing had noticeably developed from copying of sources to more accurate paraphrasing. This was attributed to the growth of Fabiola's level of English proficiency.

The findings also showed that Fabiola's use of sources for more rhetorical purposes, had slightly developed through the years; the more frequent function was asserting/supporting claims. As for the use of reporting verbs, the study showed that Fabiola had increased the range of reporting verbs she used over time. Some reporting verbs were found to be associated with specific, rhetorical functions, e.g., 'argue' was used for asserting/supporting claims and illustrating

authors' positions. Although Fabiola's source-use practice in writing argumentative essays had developed over the course of the study, Kibler and Hardigree still considered this development to be 'modest' for such a successful student. They recommended more explicit instruction to support students' source-use practice and literacy skills through their undergraduate years.

Although the findings provided a detailed account of one case study (Fabiola), Fabiola's developmental trajectory of source-use practice over nine years cannot be considered as a fixed and common trajectory that all students are expected to achieve. This is dependent on different factors such as instructions, feedback, grade level, and level of English proficiency. Also, the study did not include an examination of the development, or change, in the use of sources when Fabiola started writing within her discipline. The study, however, "Speaks to the need for instructors across disciplines to understand writing development as a years-long trajectory that may not demonstrate predictable growth in a semester or even a year" (p.104).

This section has presented some observations related to source-use practice at undergraduate level. These informative observations provided insights into undergraduate students' citation use and factors affecting this use.

### **3.5 Challenges of source-based writing and suggestions for pedagogical actions**

This section presents some of the important studies which have examined the challenges that novice writers face when they write from sources. Some of these studies offer practical suggestions for pedagogical reform and interventions to inform the teaching and supporting of source use.

Wette (2017) has provided very detailed insight into the challenges that L2 undergraduates deal with when writing from sources through examining the prior research in L2 source-use practice, including her own work (Wette, 2010). These challenges

*encompass a range of language-related, disciplinary and personal factors. They include shortcomings in students' reading and writing*

*strategies, and their limited knowledge of text content, text language, disciplinary citation practices and the rhetorical purposes of citations. (Wette, 2017, p. 152)*

Wette (2017) viewed these challenges in relation to the four stages of development in source-based writing that she identified: (a) novice/entry-level writers; (b) post-novice writers; (c) intermediate-level writers; and (d) proficient writers. For example, Wette argued that viewing plagiarism as a moral rather than an academic literacy issue during the novice stage of writing denies students the remedial instruction needed to support them to move from the patchwriting stage (Howard, 1993) – near-copy - to a more acceptable level of accuracy and comprehensibility when writing from sources. Wette asserted that in order to move from the novice to the advanced stage, technical, linguistic, rhetorical and disciplinary support from teachers and institutions are required (Wette, 2017). As for post-novice writers, Wette (2017, p. 159) stated that students at this stage should be over the patchwriting phase but still need to develop their skills in using sources to synthesize, show their identity and stance as writers, and take an active role in the production of new knowledge.

The outcome of Wette's (2017) examination of previous studies about the source-use of L2 writers is a suggested trajectory of source-use practice by L2 novice writers through all four stages of development. Wette's trajectory summarizes "the key phases of development that L2 writers are more likely to pass through" (p. 159). This is important to guide teachers in appropriate instruction and assessment tasks for each development stage (ZPD) so that they meet the complexity level of each phase and offer realistic expectations of the outcomes of each stage of learning. Wette also provided some suggestions for units of pedagogical instruction to support writing from sources at each developmental stage (2017, p. 161-163). She offered course content to inform and guide the development of students' source-use practice at novice/post-novice and intermediate/proficient stages of development. While the course content for the novice and post-novice stages covers "the mechanics of writing using sources, legitimate and illegitimate source text use, and the range of rhetorical purpose of citations" (p. 161), the course content for the intermediate level should emphasize the conceptual and disciplinary aspects of writing using

sources (e.g. rhetorical functions of citations, writers' stance and identity, and discipline-specific use of sources). Finally, Wette believed that students' development in writing from sources can be supported not only "through instruction, practice and feedback, but also through the growing sophistication of their understanding of disciplinary concepts and citation practices, and increased confidence in the ability to contribute to disciplinary discussions (p. 167).

Another study that offered a detailed review of the problems and causes of L2 misuse of sources was conducted by Liu, Lin, Kou & Wang (2016). The review consisted of 53 articles which share four characteristics: (a) a methods section; (b) human participants engaging in English academic writing; (c) focused on L2 writing in English rather than in the official language of the EFL country; and (d) focused on topics of plagiarism or source-use in writing. Based on their review of prior literature, Liu et al. (2016, p. 42) categorized problems and causes of L2 English source-use into three categories which were then subdivided into nine themes, as shown in Table 6.

**Table 6: Existing problems related to L2 source use**

Categories	Existing problems related to L2 novice's writers source-use
Source-use norms	<p><b>Cultural relevance:</b> recognizing the role of culture in superseding the complex role of source-use</p> <p><b>Intertextuality:</b> L2 writers lack the skills to use sources to synthesize and to contribute to the construction of their academic discourse</p> <p><b>Citation practice:</b> L2 writers lack the skills and knowledge to use citations for complex rhetorical functions and to incorporate their sources into their writing</p>
Source-use acquisition	<p><b>Plagiarism awareness:</b> L2 writers have inaccurate interpretations of plagiarism and mistake patchwriting for paraphrasing owing to their low level of English language proficiency</p> <p><b>Illegitimate textual borrowing:</b> L2 novice writers have very poor skills in using sources appropriately, which leads to extensive copying and serious transgressions</p> <p><b>Reading-to-write process:</b> L2 writers lack the linguistic and cognitive resources to effectively integrate sources during the reading-to-write process, which leads to near-copied content and omission of relevant source content.</p>
Ethical practice in L2 academic writing	<p><b>Institutional policies:</b> University policies lack sufficient guidelines on plagiarism. Tertiary education, in general, lacks consistent regulations about the misuse of sources as well as explicit teaching on source-use norms</p> <p><b>Faculty behaviors:</b> University teaching lacks explicit instruction related to source-use and some teachers lack knowledge of illegitimate behaviors when using sources</p> <p><b>Software detection:</b> Software programs are used as disciplinary tools to penalize students who plagiarize, rather than as educational tools to support source-use competence. Identifying strings of copied texts is superficial and can hinder the development of writers</p>

Moreover, Liu et al. highlighted the “inter-relational network” among the nine themes on the practice of source-use of L2 novice writers. For example, when there is a lack of discipline-specific guidelines and instructions related to the use of sources and plagiarism, inconsistent definitions of plagiarism among teaching staff and their complete reliance on software detection to evaluate their L2 students’ misuse of sources are expected outcomes. Another insightful outcome of Liu et al.’s (2016) review of source-use studies is a list of pedagogical recommendations derived from the nine existing problems that L2 novice writers face when writing from sources. Liu et al. offered three main principles to guide any pedagogical support related to writing from sources: (1) transparency, (2) knowledge, and (3) engagement. At the institutional level, policies and regulations about the practice of source-use must be clear and well informed and

delivered to all teaching staff and students. These policies should also meet the contextual and learning demands and learners should be made aware of norms and conventions of citation practice. At the teaching level, EAP teachers should explicitly introduce western citation norms, explicate the reading-to-write process (source selection, critical reading, mechanics of citations, establishing an argument, and producing knowledge), and teach the intertextual features and rhetorical functions of citations. Moreover, EAP teachers should provide specific feedback on the use of sources and should promote their students' autonomy in detecting and avoiding plagiarism. However, the recommendations suggested by Liu et al. did not include any pedagogical role for the subject teachers or for the academic disciplines. Their recommendations do not seem to recognize the significant role of subject teachers in developing students' source-use practice.

Doolan and Fitzsimmons-Doolan (2016) reported on curricular interventions developed for a first-year writing course. The interventions targeted L2 international undergraduate students in a western university. The aim was to promote reading-to-write development by moving from understanding the content of sources to focusing on developing more effective skills in writing synthesis. An important curricular intervention was the sequencing of tasks and course materials so that instructions are supported at a more local level. This sequencing of tasks aimed at moving students from receiving reading strategy instruction to applying their summary and paraphrasing skills when writing a large assignment. Through this intervention phase, students were provided with a number of sequenced opportunities to engage in summary and paraphrasing activity using different source texts that ranged from small to larger assignments. This was good practice for students to apply the skills they had been taught and the feedback they had been given, and to "transfer their summary skills from smaller to larger assignments" (p. 723).

The interventions focused on teaching three skills: (a) strategic readings (evaluating the credibility and readability of texts); (b) selecting and organizing summary information (effective inclusion of topic sentences, accurate interpretation of the source, linking of details to main idea and use of the writers' own words); and (c) linking source texts to source text interpretations



(representing the source texts in one's own writing "through sentence-level and discourse-level language use patterns" ) (p. 727). Finally, reflecting on their own teaching experience and curricular interventions, Doolan and Fitzsimmons-Doolan (2016) provided five tips to advance L2 writers' summary and paraphrase writing. First, they advised teachers to choose the reading sources for their students at the first stages of writing. This is to be aware of the readability and appropriateness of the source texts that their students use in their writing, and to allow for group work and analysis of reading and writing from the same source texts. Second, writing teachers need to provide their students with a lot of structured practice in order to facilitate students' move from comprehension to interpretation. Third, reinforcing the reading-writing connection through "giving students strategies for reading and a roadmap for how to move from reading to writing helps promote L2 writers capable of self-assessing the stage in the reading-to-write process" (p. 731). Fourth, students need to be provided with repeated and detailed feedback using different modes, such as verbal reports and written comments. This is to provide students with different opportunities to learn from the given feedback in the areas in need of improvement. Fifth, linking the interpretive instruction (comprehending, interpreting and appropriating the source texts into the students' texts) to larger writing projects can facilitate the transfer of students' summary and paraphrasing skills into larger assignments.

Another study that investigated how L2 students draw on external sources in developing their own writing is Wang (2016). The study examined 40 self-nominated assignments of 10 Chinese ESL students studying for Masters in Education in Australia, along with their teachers' feedback. The study analysed four dimensions of students' intertextuality practices: (a) intertextuality representation (direct quotation, indirect quotation, summary, synthesis); (b) source type (attributed and unattributed); (c) source function (background information, evidence, beliefs and idea, and others); and (d) endorsement (non-endorsement, endorsement and dis-endorsement). The findings showed that all participants used indirect quotes (with very little lexical or syntactic alteration when appropriating source texts in their own text). The textual analysis also reflected the few occurrences where sources were used to synthesize, or as

evidence to advance an argument. The interviews with the participants revealed that the influence of Chinese culture, and reliance on authoritative scholars, had a great effect on Chinese students' tendency to reproduce knowledge rather than challenge it through critical writing. Another factor that played a role in shaping Chinese ESL students' intertextual practices was their lack of academic competence involving "high demands of language and intellectual capacity in manipulation of words and phrases and a wide range of both general academic and specialist vocabulary" (ibid., p. 69). It would be very challenging for students lacking these linguistic demands to be analytical when they write. Wang (2016) recommends that students' academic literacies are supported when language learning is perceived as "constitutive", that is, significant in human cognitive and intellectual development. Therefore, educational institutions should not only rely on EAP instruction for developing students' intertextual practices, since "efforts in EAP education have been directed towards the technicality of following some basic structures and the use of some specific vocabulary" (p. 70). However, Wang (2016) did not offer pedagogical actions for reforming EAP instruction to play a more effective role in developing L2 writers' intertextual practices.

Karatsolis (2016) is another important study that examined source-use in novice and expert writing in an innovative way, exploring novice and expert use of sources by pairing a novice writer with an expert one and comparing their texts. The study aimed to describe the patterns of source-use across four different disciplines (Computer Science, Chemical Engineering, Materials Science Engineering, and Humanities and Social Sciences) using structured discourse-based interview data of documents (prospectus, thesis chapters, research articles) written by 16 participants in expert/novice pairs. Each pair consists of a dissertation advisor and a PhD student in the late stage of completing his/her dissertation. The coding analysis resulted in identification of four patterns of relationship between the analysed text and cited sources: (a) reference; (b) evaluation; (c) elaboration; and (d) relation to current project. The analysis of source-use patterns by level of participation revealed that advisees used sources for reference, evaluation and elaboration for the most part, and more than their advisors, but the difference is not statistically significant. However, this result was

not consistent across all pairs or disciplines. For example, one advisor from Material Science Engineering, who was newly appointed as an assistant professor, used citations relatively similarly to his advisee, with fewer citations showing relation to current work. Another outcome of the analysis was that PhD students used fewer sources for positioning their argument in relation to prior literature than their advisors. Karatsolis explained that “it may be that the ‘official’ entry into a field is also accompanied with a slight ‘bump’ to another level of participation, where one has to establish a position in relation to the work of others almost from the beginning” (p. 445).

As for the difference of patterns of source use across disciplines, the study revealed that the two engineering disciplines displayed similar patterns of source-use, presenting a less comprehensive review of what other studies have said and more innovative solutions to the investigated problem. On the other hand, writers in Humanities and Social Sciences disciplines focused more on positioning their argument in relation to prior research and used significantly more references to sources than the Computer Science writers.

Karatsolis (2016) also noted the influence of genre on patterns of source use. For example, the differences between advisors and advisees’ patterns of source use in journal articles were minimal, “which could also be a result of co-authorship or vetting of the advisee’s published work” (p. 446). Finally, although the corpus of the study was relatively small and concrete conclusions about the different patterns of source use across genres and disciplines could not be drawn, the study provided detailed insight into the “differences between disciplines across levels of participation or even the various ways of incorporating information that arise from other texts” (p. 432).

Another pedagogical reform suggested by prior studies is to refine our perception of plagiarism and inappropriate use of citations among L2 writers. Appropriation of sources is one of the most studied aspects of citations (Shi, 2004). Pecorari (2003) is one of the studies that provided a better understanding of the inappropriate use of sources among non-native speakers of English (NNSEs). She used samples of texts written by 17 NNSEs to compare each text to the original sources it cited (using writing samples from 9 Masters students from

three British universities and 8 PhD theses completed in the UK). Pecorari found that textual plagiarism was very common in all the texts she examined. Because of this widespread plagiarism among L2 writers, Pecorari's findings supported Howard's (1995) model of patchwriting as a learning strategy that most L2 novice writers go through for further growth as writers. Alongside Howard (1995), Pecorari recommended that distinguishing between intended misuse of source and patchwriting is a very important pedagogical first step in supporting novice writers' use of sources. Pecorari explained:

*Separating these two acts [prototypical plagiarism and patchwriting] makes it possible to treat instances of source misuse appropriately, with pedagogical efforts directed at the students who can benefit from them and disciplinary measures for those whose intention is to deceive. (p. 343)*

Wette (2018) provided a rich insight into undergraduates' source-use practice in an L1 context. This is a mixed-method study that aimed to investigate the views and perceptions of a group of L1 and L2 undergraduate first-year students doing their Bachelor of Health Sciences degree, report on their skills in source-based writing, and examine the role of instruction given to students about their disciplinary writing conventions. Data about students' attitudes towards and perceptions about writing from sources were collected from a questionnaire completed by 66 students. The information about the quality of source-text use and the students' ability level in writing from sources were collected from textual analysis of 13 completed assignments and supported by data from interviews with the students. The analysis focused on specific citation features: placement of citations, source types (article, book chapter, report), citation type (paraphrase, summary, primary, secondary, research evidence), reporting forms (integral, non-integral, single source, multiple sources), formatting (in-text citations/reference list in APA style, density), rhetorical purpose of citations (attribution, present and endorse the source texts, acknowledge the name of the originator of ideas or concepts, support argument, and identify multiple sources with similar findings), and quality of citations (no copying, inaccurate content, patchwriting, accurate content).

Wette found that students were confident about their strategies and abilities when using sources. Wette attributed this surprising degree of confidence to the

guidance and support provided to students by their disciplinary teachers. Students were given information about the sources they needed to cite, the purpose for citing them (mainly attributing information and presenting ideas they endorsed), and the assignment specifications related to effective ways of transferring the information from the source text into their essays. However, students' use of sources, according to Wette, reflected the modest expectations of their teachers, who were only expecting students to show their understanding of the source contents to refine their arguments. The analysis of their citations showed that

*students had not yet developed an awareness of how to, or even of the need to synthesize information across multiple sources, recognize the fundamentally persuasive role of academic discourse by discussing source content and using it to promote their own arguments, or to convey an appropriate authorial self who interacts with source content and with the needs and expectations of readers.*  
(p. 70-71)

This could explain why students perceived the linguistic aspects as the main challenge they faced when writing from sources, rather than the “conceptual and disciplinary complexities” (p. 71). Lastly, although the size of the citation analysis and the number of participants in the interview was small, the study provided evidence about the important role of disciplinary teachers in shaping the practice of students' source-use at undergraduate level.

Wette (2019) extended her insightful investigation of the role of instruction in using sources when writing in the discipline. The study explored the perspectives of subject teachers, tutors, students, an academic literacy developer and a library professional on embedded instruction to support and improve undergraduate students' source-based writing in their first year of their Population Health degree. Wette collected her data from multiple sources including interviews, documents (course outline, assessment criteria, and sample of assignments from previous courses), observation notes of lectures and tutorials, a questionnaire, discussion board queries, and an evaluation completed by students at the end of the course. The course content was delivered through weekly tutorial sessions and two workshops organized by the academic literacy developer and the librarian. The course aimed to develop students' skills when

writing from sources to successfully meet the writing expectations of their discipline and to address some of the challenges that students face in this writing. Wette listed the challenges that she solicited from her informants to examine what challenges were met by the course. These were:

- following assignment task instructions;
- selecting and evaluating sources;
- critical evaluation of source content;
- accurate paraphrasing and summarizing of source content;
- synthesizing content from multiple sources;
- integrating sources with personal viewpoints;
- using sources to support sustained arguments;
- using sources for a range of rhetorical purposes;
- accurate in-text and end-of-text referencing. (p. 40)

The findings of the study support the claim that “discipline-specific instruction can be a productive way of connecting academic literacy skills with disciplinary thinking and writing practices” (p. 43). Embedding the teaching of source-based writing into the course objectives, teaching material and assessment requirements involved the subject teachers to contribute knowledge of particular discipline-specific source-use skills. Moreover, the collaboration between subject teachers and the academic literacy developer was very beneficial to students and subject teachers. The academic literacy developer participated in structuring the writing tasks, forming the task questions, allocating marks for each skill related to source use, writing the evaluation rubric, and informing subject teachers about the challenges related to source-based writing that L2 students might face. The involvement of the librarian played an important role in supporting students with their database and library search. In summary, this collaboration at undergraduate level “allowed students to be assessed not only on their knowledge of course content, but on a broader range of learning outcomes, and provided opportunities for students to be socialised into the social sciences perspective on academic writing” (Wette, 2019, p. 42). However, there were some source-use skills that subject lecturers believed were yet to be developed, “including an awareness of the need to cite current sources of

relevance in the local context, adopt an evaluative stance, and to synthesize evidence from multiple, possibly conflicting sources” (p. 43).

Finally, Wette reached her findings without measuring the improvement in students’ source-based skills after the collaborative instruction and assessment of the investigated course; rather, she relied on the “evaluative and self-evaluative views” of the study participants (p. 43). Overall the study provided a detailed account of a collaborative teaching initiative between subject teachers and an academic literacy developer in teaching and assessing source-based writing at undergraduate level.

A detailed model of demystifying citation functions to students is suggested by Harwood (2010) as one outcome of his study, which investigated rhetorical functions of citations of computer science postgraduates. The model offered five sequenced pedagogical activities that both EAP and subject teachers could do with their students to “demystify” the knowledge of rhetorical functions of citations. First, Harwood recommends that students are asked to speculate about the reasons why they cite when writing their assignments, or articles for publication. According to Harwood, this is a very important first step because some students “had never consciously considered their reasons for citing”; listing as many reasons for citing as they could allowed students to consciously consider the effects of and motives for citations in different genres (p. 309). The following activity should encourage students to guess the definitions of some of the rhetorical functions of citations that teachers want their students to know. In the activity, the teacher asks students to match the functions with their definitions. The next activity should focus on the most frequent functions needed for the task (according to the type of genre) or required in the discipline. In this activity, students should be asked to match each function with the right extract (from any publications related to the discipline) that reflects the use of that function. This activity aims to familiarise students with the most used functions when writing for a specific genre or discipline and to “raise awareness” about the discipline-specific features of citations. The rationale of Activity 4 is to provide students with quantitative information about the differences in frequency of different citation functions between two (or more) genres or disciplines. This is to

show students that citation practices vary across disciplines and genres. Questions like identifying the interdisciplinary differences and similarities and reflecting on their own previous writing and whether they have used these functions as experts in the field do, should be included in this activity. The last activity aims to solicit teacher's views on appropriate and inappropriate uses of rhetorical function in the discipline or in a specific genre. In this activity, students should obtain a copy of a recent article written by their teachers and ask them about the function of each citation. Students can then compare their teachers' use of citations with their own citation use and share the results with their peers. The activity aims "to get students to take on the role of disciplinary researchers of intergeneric variation in citation functions" (p. 314). These activities can be very informative to teaching practitioners who find it challenging to support students' understanding and practice of source-use in academic writing.

Beaufort (2004) is a longitudinal study that offers in-depth examination of the development of writing in the discipline of one undergraduate student, majoring in History, over a period of three years. Although the study's focus was not on the use of sources, the use of sources to establish an argument and synthesize were important elements in examining the development of writing. Beaufort used multiple instruments to obtain her data: interviews, analysis of 12 of participant Tim's essays, source materials used in the essays, teachers' comments, and the comments of a third reader who was an expert historian. To analyse such a huge amount of data and to cover all aspects of disciplinary writing knowledge and practices, Beaufort used "a conceptual model of disciplinary writing expertise that takes into account five knowledge domains - discourse community knowledge, subject-matter knowledge, genre knowledge, rhetorical knowledge, and writing-process knowledge" (p. 137).

The study found that the five knowledge domains necessary to understand the disciplinary writing practice are "interrelated" and "interactive". For example, a development in subject-matter knowledge influences the "skill with which the content aspect of a genre is handled" (p. 173). Regarding development in the five aspects of knowledge, Beaufort observed "small gains" in knowledge of discourse community, subject matter, and writing process; development in skills



related to critical thinking, genre and rhetorical aspects of knowledge was even slower. Beaufort attributed this slow development in disciplinary writing skills to lack of explicit instruction about writing in the discipline, including source-based writing, lack of feedback on aspects of writing (the focus of feedback was on the content), and resistance to discourse-community norms when the knowledge of conventions and expectations of a particular discourse are not explicitly explained (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Since discourse community knowledge “is the broad overarching domain which informs each of the other knowledge domains essential to composing”, a lack of familiarity with the norms and practices (including source-use) specific to a particular discourse community can significantly affect the growth of the other domains of knowledge ( Beaufort, 2004, p. 141).

Although the study findings were derived from one particular case, Tim, it provided a roadmap to a better understanding of the development of disciplinary writing by examining the five overlapping realms of knowledge. Beaufort’s (2004) examination of Tim’s writing development provided further support for the importance of scaffolding and explicit instruction to facilitate the learning of writing in the discipline.

To conclude, this section presented the challenges of source-based writing and offered some pedagogical recommendations for supporting students’ source-use practice.

### **3.6 Rationale for the study**

The rationale for this study emerged from two sources: (1) the limitations of previous studies of citation function, and (2) a call for further studies across disciplines, contexts, and genres related to undergraduate students’ source use in authentic academic writing. A key limitation of previous studies is the dearth of research investigating citation use in the L2 academic writing context, particularly in Oman; we know little about this. Moreover, the literature does not provide a full understanding of the reasons undergraduate students use citations the way they do. The few studies covering the contextual factors that influence students’ source use mostly involve postgraduate students or expert writers

(Abasi & Graves, 2008; Davis, 2013; Hirvela & Du, 2013; Howard & Jamieson, 2011; Keck, 2006, 2011; Petrić & Harwood, 2013). Studies of undergraduate L2 students' citation practices are mainly focused on examining appropriation of citations (e.g. plagiarism, patch-writing practices), and strategies of citations (Shi, 2010; Tomás, 2011) in novice writing. Little attention has been devoted to the functions of citations with aims to academically support novice writers and help them write more effectively to meet their disciplinary communities' conventions (Kick, 2006; Pecorari, 2003, 2013; Shi, 2008). The few studies of source use in undergraduate texts have mostly worked with first-year students and examined written essays designed and controlled by researchers. None of these studies have investigated or analysed source use in undergraduate research reports.

Among the few studies of citations in undergraduate students' writing in an L2 context is Pennycook (1996), who studied the Chinese and Korean contexts and concluded that L2 students' perceptions and practices of textual borrowing are affected by their culture and educational system. Therefore, it is important to investigate the factors affecting students' source-use in every cultural context and, coupled with the assertions of scholars, to recognise that disciplinary discourse, epistemology, and linguistic features vary across disciplines and contexts (Bhatia, 1998; Becher & Trowler, 2001; Hyland, 2007; Peacock, 2006; Uba, 2017). Moreover, the necessity to explore source-use practices stems from its importance in academic writing as appropriate use of citations is significant for academic writers to produce writing that conforms to the discipline and to academia (Hyland, 1999). However, there is a lack of research in students' source-use practice, especially L2 undergraduate students, from non-western contexts and from Accounting and IB.

In light of these realizations, this study investigates this unexplored context to determine differences in source-use practices. This research contributes to the literature related to the rhetorical functions of citations, particularly in Accounting and IB in Oman, as discourse and epistemology vary across disciplines and contexts (Hyland, 2007; Thompson 2001).

### 3.7 Research questions

As mentioned, the rhetorical functions of citations in final-year undergraduate Accounting and IB students' research reports were investigated. Table 7 lists the research questions that steered the investigation and analysis and the theories that informed the development of the research questions. Chapter 4 includes the details of the methodological design.

**Table 7: Mapping of the research questions onto the theoretical framework**

Research Questions	Theoretical framework
1. What rhetorical functions of citation do CAS final-year students in the academic discipline of Accounting use in their graduation research report?	Formation of the question is informed by the significance of intertextuality in scientific writing.
2. What rhetorical functions of citations do CAS final-year students in the academic discipline of IB use in their graduation research reports?	Formation of the question is informed by the significance of intertextuality in scientific writing
3. What variations of frequencies of rhetorical functions of citations exist between Accounting and IB textual analysis of research reports?	Formation of the question is informed by the impact of intertextuality in the construction and continuity of the academic discipline
4. What possible contextual factors might influence the students' use of rhetorical functions of citations in both disciplines?	Formation of the question is informed by Vygotsky's work on how different layers of context shape learning, supporting or constraining learning

### 3.8 Summary of the chapter

This chapter has covered the theoretical underpinnings of understanding the significance of source-use practices when constructing scientific knowledge. Sociocultural theory and its main element (ZPD) was highlighted to address social interaction and scaffolding in the learning process, as well as the

importance of the learning context. The theory of intertextuality and its impact in scientific knowledge-making was also included, linking the discussion to effective original academic writing in different disciplines. The role of the writing context in academic text construction was covered, as it is argued that writing is a social practice that should be taught as such. To support this, the concept of writing and the social theory, perception of discourse, and several different perspectives were explored. I then argued that texts form the discourse and noted the types of texts helpful in discourse analysis. Views of three different schools of genre in relation to understanding the concept of discourse were later discussed, and the current study's position was articulated. This chapter also identified the research report as a genre with recognizable characteristics across institutions and disciplines. The third part of this chapter presented previous studies of the rhetorical functions of citations, highlighting key limitations of these to justify the rationale of the current study.

## **Chapter 4: Research Methodology and Methods**

### **4.1 Introduction**

In the previous chapter, I outlined the background of this study, critically reviewing related literature to appropriately contextualise my research and indicate the motivation behind it. This chapter provides a detailed account of the methodological design of this study, starting with explaining the philosophical worldviews that justify the methodological designs selected. I argue that this research is *interpretive* in nature as the aim is to gain a deeper understanding of how and why final-year undergraduate students from International Business (IB) and Accounting disciplines at Colleges of Applied Sciences (CAS) use sources the way they do.

I discuss the reasons for choosing an exploratory mixed-method design to answer the research questions, given that this study explores the use of citations regarding their rhetorical functions (quantitative analysis) and the possible factors that influence the use of citations (qualitative analysis). I then explain the case-study strategy for this research, which aims to gain a deep contextual understanding of how reference sources are used by students in practice. Later, the research instruments (textual analysis, semi-structured interviews and document analysis), research site and participant sampling are explained and justified. The procedures for data analysis are also presented in detail. Finally the methodological concerns, research trustworthiness and ethical considerations are discussed.

### **4.2 Philosophical worldviews influencing the research strategy**

It is important to identify the philosophical assumptions and backgrounds regarding the nature of reality and knowledge in any academic research. These philosophical assumptions influence the practice of the research and guide the behaviour of the researcher (Creswell, 2009, 2013). Guba (1990) used the term 'worldview' to refer to the philosophical assumptions that frame the research

approach in undertaking a social study, where a worldview refers to “a basic set of beliefs that guide action [...] taken in connection with a disciplined inquiry” (Guba, 1990, p. 17). Other scholars such as Kuhn (1996) used the term ‘paradigm’ to refer to the “entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques, and so on shared by the members of a given community” (cited in Bryant, 1975, p. 354). Like Creswell (2009), I refer to these beliefs which guide my research as ‘worldviews’, as this term presents “general orientations about the world and the nature of research that a researcher holds” (Guba, 1990, p. 26). These orientations about the world are developed and shaped by the researcher’s discipline and area of study, the beliefs of the researcher’s teaching faculty, and the previous research experiences (Creswell, 2009). These orientations and beliefs are not static; rather, they are ‘constructed entities’ (Shannon-Baker, 2015, p. 319) that are flexible and fluid, as they can change depending on the context of research, the phenomenon under study, and the knowledge of the researcher. Thus I do not consider these beliefs and orientations a system of restrictions that limit the research process and presentation. Rather, they serve as a guide “that influence[s] how researchers select both the questions they study and methods that they use to study them” (Morgan, 2007, p. 49).

There are two main philosophical dimensions to any research worldview that justify the fundamental beliefs and assumptions underpinning the study: ontology and epistemology. Ontology is “a concept concerned with the existence of, and relationship between, different aspects of society, such as social actors, cultural norms and social structure” (Jupp, 2006, p. 202). It concerns our beliefs about reality and truth, one ultimate reality, or multiple realities, depending on contextual factors and whether the truth is understood in relation to social actors or is independent and isolated from any social influence (Bryman, 2012). Epistemology is “a field of philosophy concerned with the possibility, nature, sources and limits of human knowledge” (Jupp, 2006, p. 202). Epistemology is concerned with how we understand and use the knowledge of reality and how the beliefs of the researcher can uncover this knowledge and explain it to others (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007). Therefore, the epistemological beliefs held by a researcher inform the tools and types of methods needed to acquire and

explain the knowledge of any reality. In other words, the ontological and epistemological positions of the researcher are reflected in the research strategy and the methods for research. The two main ontological and epistemological positions in social research are positivist and interpretivist.

#### **4.2.1 Positivist and interpretivist worldviews**

A researcher's perceptions of reality (ontology) and how to understand the truth of reality (epistemology) have a central influence on their behaviour and practice in their social research. Positivists view reality as independent from social influence and actors: "[t]he nature of social reality for positivists is that: empirical facts exist apart from personal ideas or thoughts; they are governed by laws of cause and effect; patterns of social reality are stable and knowledge of them additive" (Tuli, 2010, p. 100). Positivists believe in objective and value-free research in which the researcher's moral values play no role in his or her scientific research. Followers of this perspective tend to use quantitative strategies throughout the research process, in which quantification is the main emphasis in the collection, analysis and presentation of data (Al-Sadi, 2015). The quantitative strategy measures or tests a large sample size of participants or cases to make generalisable and replicable statistical findings. Two examples of what this approach is appropriate for are testing new medicines and examining the effectiveness of interventions across a population, more generally. In such cases, different researchers studying the same problem are more likely to reach similar results in any context, because positivism believes in "the existence of a universal generalization that can be applied across contexts" (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 71). However, the positivist approach does not equate solely to the use of quantitative methods; rather, these methods are facilitation tools which can help achieve generalisability and objectivity in the research findings.

The positivists' worldview of reality and knowledge is challenged by their objectivist stance which discounts the role of social actors and the context of study in shaping a social phenomenon. The objectivist position also advocates the passive influence of the researcher and study participants in understanding a social problem, which contradicts positivists' admission that "knowledge is a result of social conditioning" (Wahyuni, 2012, p. 71). The understanding that a

social phenomenon needs to be framed within its social context has led to the rise of the *interpretivist* worldview. In this worldview, studying social phenomena and human behaviour does not determine 'absolute truth', as every context is unique, which means subjectivity in interpreting social reality is necessary.

Interpretivist (also known as 'constructivist') research is developed from the ontological assumption that social reality is socially constructed and, therefore, must be socially interpreted (Creswell, 2009; Tuli, 2010). Interpretivists believe their social reality is complex, varied and multiple and it must be understood "from the experiences and subjective meanings that people attach to it" through interacting or talking to the study participants (Tuli, 2010, p. 100). Interpretivism is generally designated as an approach to qualitative research that it "oriented towards discovery and process [inductive], [has] high validity, [is] less concerned with generalizability, and [is] more concerned with deeper understanding of the research problem in its unique context" (ibid., p. 100). This means that researchers' and study participants' values and experiences have a great influence on the process of data collection and data analysis (Wahyuni, 2012). The influence of study participants in a specific context is the reason why different studies present multiple perspectives of a social reality.

Creswell (2009) summarises the central beliefs of interpretivism in relation to qualitative research, as follows:

- Meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting. Qualitative researchers tend to use open-ended questions so participants can share their views.
- Humans engage with their world and make sense of it based on their historical and social perspectives. Thus qualitative research seeks to understand the context or setting of the participants by visiting this context and gathering information personally.
- The basic generation of meaning is always social, arising in and out of interaction with a human community. The process of qualitative research is largely inductive. (p. 16)

In brief, any researcher should be "bound within a net of epistemological and ontological premises [worldviews] which, regardless of ultimate truth or falsity,



became partially self-validating” (Bateson, 1972, p. 314, as cited in Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, p. 26). Any of these positions serve as a guide to the researcher’s decisions throughout the study process. Shannon-Baker (2016) explained that these epistemological positions “can help the novice researcher align their choices with their values [...]. Also, when a researcher provides information about their beliefs, it gives their audience a better understanding of the potential influences on the research” (p. 321).

#### **4.2.2 Situating the study in a philosophical research worldview**

In this study, I align my beliefs with Denzin and Lincoln’s (1998) statement that:

*All research is interpretive, guided by a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be understood and studied. Some of these beliefs may be taken for granted, only assumed, others are highly problematic and controversial. However, each interpretive paradigm makes particular demands on the researcher, including the questions he or she asked and the interpretations that are brought to them. (p. 26)*

I believe in the role of subjectivity in understanding and explaining any “human phenomenon, human interaction, or human discourse” (Litchman, 2014, p. 38). More evidently, interactions with study participants can help the researcher understand why and how the participants perceive or understand the phenomenon under study. In this study, I needed to speak to students and their teachers and evaluate various documents provided to students to support their source-use practices. This allowed for the interpretation of students’ performances and knowledge related to rhetorical functions of citations in their discipline. Although this study adopts a *quantitative* strategy to count and compare the different rhetorical functions of citations that students from IB and Accounting used in writing their research reports, my analysis of these functions required an interpretation of the linguistic content of the citations. Moreover, understanding some of the rhetorical functions of citations that I could not identify from the linguistic content of the texts required interaction with the writers to inquire about their purposes when they used these citations. It is important to note that one citation can have more than one function, and the functions of citations can be interpreted differently by different researchers in different

contexts. There is not one definitive way of understanding the rhetorical functions of citations, given the many typologies that have been proposed in different contexts for various writing levels. The quantitative count for each citation function in this study does not aim to represent a generalisable practice in undergraduates' writing, but rather, it aims to reflect how CAS undergraduate final-year students in the disciplines of Accounting and IB use rhetorical functions of citations in their final-year research reports.

However, I expect my findings to be replicable and transferable to other similar contexts, although the impact of any context will influence the interpretation of the results. This study also required close involvement with the participants to engage with them and to understand their perceptions of their source-use practice and what influenced them to use sources the way they do. This means I cannot remain distant or objective when the study aims to understand students' use of sources that vary in different discourses, disciplines and contexts (Hyland, 1999). Although I align my study to the interpretivist worldview, this does not mean that the study is purely qualitative, as interpretivism does not equate solely to qualitative techniques. I believe that any social phenomenon is a multi-dimensional reality which should not be studied in isolation from its real-life context. The *quantitative* component of this study involved an interpretation of the linguistic contexts of texts from my perspective and that of the participants. Moreover, the *qualitative* component was conducted to provide possible contextual factors to explain the quantitative results. The next section further explains the mixed-method strategy of this research study.

### **4.3 Mixed-method research**

There are two traditional research paradigms: qualitative and quantitative (Bryman, 2001). The purist adherents of these viewpoints believe strongly that these two paradigms cannot, and should not, be combined. Guba (1990), a qualitative purist, stated that "accommodation between paradigms is impossible" (p. 81). However, a third paradigm has been established and it is shaped by the combination of the two traditional paradigms: a mixed-method approach. This approach started as "a third methodological movement" in social and humanities

science (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). This research approach was not intended to replace the two traditional paradigms, but rather to “potentially capitalize on the respective strengths of quantitative and qualitative approaches”, and to overcome the weaknesses of each (Östlund et al., 2011, p. 369). It was meant to “bridge the schism between quantitative and qualitative research” (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 15). It also helps to bring more insight and understanding to the case under investigation by integrating more data from different sources using different methods (Denscombe, 2008). Moreover, employing a mixed-method strategy enables the researcher to ‘triangulate’ their study, because relying on multiple sources leads to a converging of data which can increase the validity of the research results (Yin, 2014, p. 17). Research is increasingly becoming more dynamic and complex which requires researchers to use different methods and utilise a combination of varying research techniques to provide a complete understanding of the issue they study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 15).

There is no unified definition for mixed-methods research, and scholars with different views and orientations have tried to describe it (Creswell, 2014). One of these attempts is made by Creswell and Tashakkori (2007), who describe it as “research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings and draws inferences using both quantitative and qualitative approaches or methods in a single study or a program of inquiry” (pp. 3–4). Another definition, by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004, p. 17), is “the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study” (p. 17). Both definitions legitimise the collaboration of the two traditional research paradigms: quantitative and qualitative. They also present mixed-method research as “inclusive, pluralistic and complementary”, and an enabler for the researcher to choose the methods that can best answer the research queries (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 17).

Some of the values for using mixed-method design, as summarised by Creswell and Clark (2006, pp. 9–10), include overcoming the weakness of both quantitative and qualitative research, offering more comprehensive evidence for

the problem under study, helping to answer more questions about the problem that cannot be answered by quantitative and qualitative research alone, encouraging researchers to integrate the qualitative and quantitative approaches to gain deeper understanding of the research problem, and encouraging researchers to familiarise themselves with different research paradigms and schools of thought, instead of relying on one research worldview. However, mixed-method design is not without its problems. The researcher must spend a lot of time doing both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. It also requires a well-planned presentation of how quantitative and qualitative approaches are integrated and implemented in the research. This can be complicated if the researcher has insufficient knowledge about any of the approaches (Creswell & Clark, 2006). With willingness to overcome these challenges by giving more time, effort and clear details, mixed-method research is worth doing to reach a deep understanding of the research problem.

When conducting a mixed-method study, the justification for combining qualitative and quantitative methods, and the relationship between them, should be clear, and, if possible, the findings should be integrated (Onwuegbuzie & Teddlie, 2003). Greene, Caracelli, and Graham (1989) summarised five major reasons for choosing mixed-method research: triangulation, complementarity, initiation, development, and expansion. Creswell and Creswell (2018) also list some reasons for using mixed-methods as a research strategy:

- Comparing different perspectives drawn from quantitative and qualitative data
- Explaining quantitative results with a qualitative follow-up data collection and analysis
- Developing better-contextualised measurement instruments by first collecting and analysing qualitative data and then administering the instruments to a sample
- Augmenting experiments or trials by incorporating the perspectives of individuals
- Developing cases (i.e. organisations, units, or programs) or documenting diverse cases for comparison

- Developing a more complete understanding of changes needed for a marginalised group through the combination of qualitative and quantitative data
- Evaluating both the processes and the outcomes of a program, an experimental intervention, or a policy decision (p. 216)

In the case of the present research, the rationale for adopting a mixed-method strategy was to first determine whether the comparison between the quantitative results of the textual analysis between the IB and Accounting research projects is reflected in the students' perceptions and understanding of how and why sources are used in their writing. Talking to students about why they use sources the way they do in their writing can significantly affect the understanding of the quantitative comparison of rhetorical functions of citations between IB and Accounting research reports. Second, this study also drew on qualitative follow-up data collection (interviews and document analysis) and analysis to explain the quantitative results (number of occurrences of each function in each chapter in every research report). Third, this research adopted a mixed-method design for triangulation purposes, which aims for "convergence of results from multiple methods" and designs investigating the same phenomenon or the same case, given that the case-study approach allows the researcher to use different methods (Greene et al., 1989, p. 256). Finally, a mixed-method design can be adopted "in its own right or it may be subsumed within another research strategy as in the case of adopting a case study design" (Brannen, 2005, p. 5). More discussion about case-study research is presented in Section 4.4.

This study uses Creswell's (2009, 2018) sequential explanatory mixed-method design, which is discussed and justified in the following section.

### **4.3.1 Mixed-method sequential design**

When considering the adoption of a mixed-method design, researchers should consider the sequence and order of their methods (Brannen, 2005). Based on the sequence and dominance or importance of the methods used, Creswell and Creswell (2018) identified three designs for mixed-methods: convergent mixed-methods design (one-phase design in which qualitative and quantitative data are collected at the same time, analysed separately and then the results are

compared); explanatory sequential design (two-phase design in which quantitative data is collected and analysed first and then the qualitative data is collected and analysed to explain the quantitative results); and exploratory sequential design (two-phase design in which the collection and analysis of qualitative data start first and are then followed by the quantitative phase). The current study adopted an explanatory sequential mixed-method design, which

*Involves a two-phase data collection project in which the researcher collects quantitative data in the first phase, analyses the results and then uses the results to plan (or build on to) the second, qualitative phase [...]The overall intent of this design is to have qualitative data help explain in more detail the initial qualitative results. (Creswell & Creswell, 2018, p. 222)*

The key strength of this design is that the same participatory sample used in the quantitative phase is used in the qualitative phase, given that the second phase provides more depth and insight into the results of the first phase. Drawing on different samples in any of the phases might risk the validity of the results given that the second phase involves explaining the results of a different sample (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

In the current study, the sequential explanatory design is implemented in the collection and analysis of data. In the first quantitative phase, the different rhetorical functions of citations shown in students' written texts are quantified. However, I do not consider this phase as purely quantitative where the researcher is objective and the role of participants is passive. As previously explained, identifying the functions of citations requires an analysis of the linguistic context in which the citation occurs, and sometimes the researcher has to ask the citers to explain the functions the researcher is challenged to identify. Thus, although this phase presents the results in numbers and charts, the process of identifying and counting these functions involves interaction with the study participants and content interpretations from the researcher's side. The result of this phase is used later to inform the exploration of context in the second phase.

The second phase in this design is qualitative data collection, which can help explain why students use the functions of citations as shown in the textual analysis in the first phase. Semi-structured interviews with all the writers of the

texts, their teachers, and some administrators, were conducted. All the documents provided to the students related to supporting or regulating students' source-use practice (including plagiarism policy, course outlines, assessment materials, teaching materials and marking guidelines) were analysed to examine the kind of support and expectations provided to the students in relation to their discipline's discursive practices. The qualitative phase investigated the context of writing to explain why students use sources the way they do. The next section explains why this research is a mixed-method case study.

#### **4.4 Case study design**

*A strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context using multiple sources of evidence. ( Robson, 1993, p. 146)*

A case study “uses in-depth investigation of one or more examples of a current social phenomenon, utilizing a variety of sources of data” (Jupp, 2006). Yin (1989) added that a case study allows researchers to investigate a current phenomenon within its real-life context by using different methods to ensure “that the issue is not explored through one lens, but rather a variety of lenses which allow for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood” (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 552). This is the strongest feature of a case study, as the phenomenon is investigated in its relevant and natural setting to reach a full understanding of its complexity, because case studies allow “the questions of why and how to be answered” (Farquhar, 2012, p. 8).

Another important feature of a case study is being ‘unique’ in examining a small geographical context or not very large number of cases. This means that case studies allow researchers to investigate data ‘at the micro level’, which then produces more rich data with which to approach the phenomenon (Zainal, 2007, p. 2). Another characteristic of case studies is the collection of data from multiple sources, which then are converged in the analysis process rather than handled individually. This kind of convergence strengthens the study findings “as the various strands of data are braided together to promote a greater understanding of the case” (Baxter & Jack, 2008, p. 552). A case study is also flexible and not rigorously planned. Given that the study's assumptions are guided by the

fieldwork, dealing with unexpected findings and re-orientating the study to deal with any unexpected development is feasible when adopting a case-study approach (ibid.).

Moreover, a case-study approach is widely used to understand human behaviour because it allows researchers to maintain a close and holistic exploration of a complex issue (Zainal, 2007). It has been commonly implemented in social science studies, most prominently in the domains of education and sociology (ibid.). Braine (2002) advocated the use of case studies in examining academic literacy behaviours and practices of graduate L2 students, given that they enrich our knowledge about students' behaviour, attitudes and learning strategies. A case study is the appropriate choice for gaining deep insight into students' perceptions and understanding and strategies of acquisition of a phenomenon in an academic context.

In summary, case-study research has three key aspects. It is not a research method but rather a strategy that defines "the overall direction of the study upon which the rest of the research rests" (Zainal, 2007, p. 8). It is used to study a contemporary social phenomenon happening now and about which little is known. This phenomenon can involve a person, a group of people, an event or an organization. A case study also requires the researcher to be involved in the context of the studied phenomenon in order to examine the contextual factors that shape it. Lastly, a case-study strategy relies on different sources (surveys, documents, artefacts, observations, and interviews) that can provide deep insight into and understanding of the phenomenon. The reasons for adopting a case-study approach in this research are explained below.

#### **4.4.1 Reasons for using case-study research**

Researchers are advised to consider a case-study approach when one or more of the following features are applicable:

- When the research questions aim to explore contexts or real situations related to the problem under study, as a case study strategy "offers rich and in-depth insights that no other method can yield, allowing researchers to examine how intricate sets of circumstances come



together and interact in shaping the social world around us” (Dornyei, 2007, p. 155). One objective of this study is to provide a deep understanding of the contextual factors that can explain the rhetorical functions of citation practices that students demonstrate in their final-year research report project.

- When the research aims to provide a practical reform to the problem under study, a case study is the ideal strategy to help the researcher and participants “to conceptualize the problem, understand more fully its wider significance and act more intelligently in resolving it” (Golby, 1994, p. 16, as cited in Al-Issai, 2017, p. 108). The study focus asks *why* and *how* CAS-undergraduate students use citations the way they do. The research is expected to utilise the findings to suggest a path for pedagogical reforms to the EAP teaching and assessment materials that can best support the teaching of rhetorical functions of citations to L2 undergraduates in L2 contexts.
- When the study aims to gain a deep understanding and provide a thorough explanation through using multiple data sources, as case-study research “usually involves a number of different data sources and methods, [so] further insight is gained from considering the question from a multi-dimensional perspective” (Farquhar, 2012, p. 8). To provide a multi-dimensional perspective about why students understand source-use practice the way they do, I needed to uncover the different contextual layers that can influence students’ source-use practice. This involves interviewing students and their teachers, analysing any documents related to source-use practice (provided by the academic institution, department and teachers) and analysing students’ written texts. Understanding source-use practice in the context of this study is not feasible if I depend solely on analysis of the students’ texts. Adopting a case-study strategy allows me to thoroughly investigate and understand the issue from different data sources.
- When the researcher aims to address the complexity and particularity of a single case, a case study is again the ideal approach. Stakes (1995) stated that “a case study is the study of the particularity and complexity

of a single study” (p. xi). This study investigates source-use practice involving eleven students (in IB and Accounting) in their real-life situations in which “the boundaries between phenomenon and contexts are not clearly evident and where multiple sources of evidence are used” (Yin, 1989, p. 23). Each case in this research is treated uniquely and investigated by drawing on different sources of data to be able to generate findings and draw conclusions. The uniqueness of each case in this research is addressed by involving all participants’ perspectives and understanding their source-use practice.

Just as there are many motivations for case-study research, there are some challenges and methodological limitations that a researcher should consider before embarking upon this approach. The discussion of these challenges is found in Section 4.4.3.

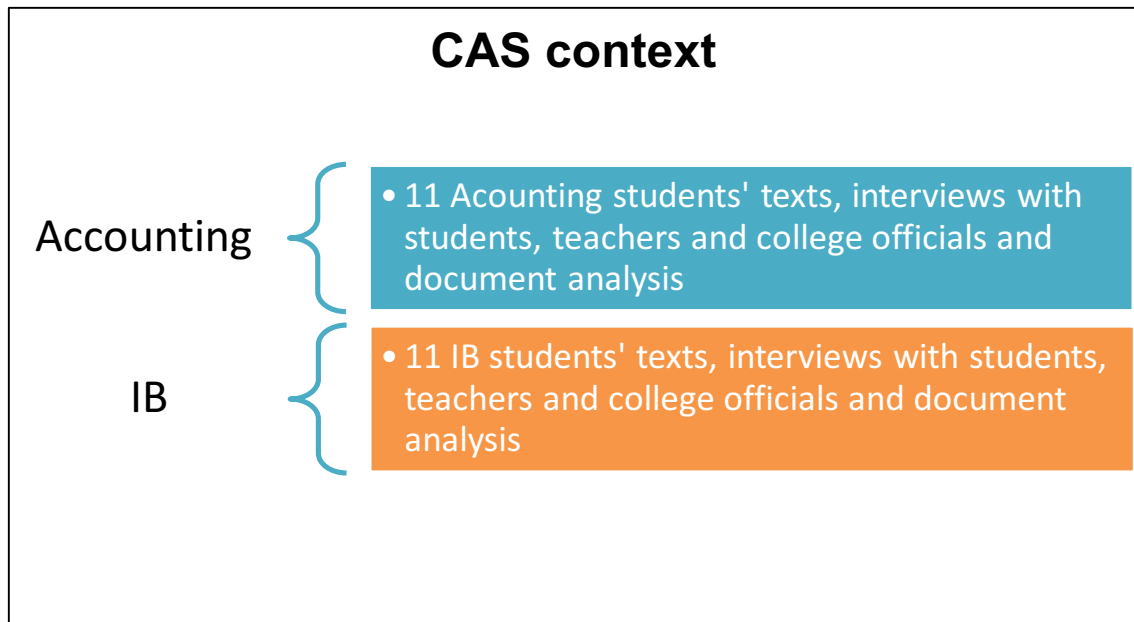
#### **4.4.2 Types of case study**

Yin (1989, 2003) identified four types of case studies: descriptive, explanatory, single or multiple-case studies, and exploratory. A descriptive case study describes a social phenomenon in a “full portrayal” (Jupp, 2006, p. 20) by keeping a written record of everything the researcher observes about the phenomenon, as it occurs. This type of case study is not relevant to the current study, as its main goal is not to describe the source-use practice among CAS-students. I did not go to the study site while the writing took place. The writing is a process which takes approximately four months to complete. I examined the completed texts submitted by students at the end of the semester and I did not provide a description of the source-use practice as it occurred.

The explanatory type of case study specifically explains ‘why’ and ‘how’ a contemporary phenomenon occurs. This type requires that the researcher has no control over the phenomenon (Yin, 2014). An explanatory case study “consist[s] of an accurate description of the facts of a case, considerations of alternative explanations, and a conclusion based on credible explanations that are congruent with the facts” (Mills, Durepos & Wiebe, 2010, p .2). The present study can be described as an explanatory case study, given its aim to understand

and explain why students use sources the way they do by identifying the contextual factors that can influence students' source-use practice.

Case-study research can include single and or multiple-case studies (Yin, 2003). The present study is a multiple-case study or collective case study (Stake, 1995). This research examines source-use practice through investigating two cases (the discipline of Accounting and the discipline of IB). Units of analysis consist of eleven students from International Business (IB), eleven students from Accounting (ACCT), ten teachers (TIB or TACCT), and four college administrators. An analysis of each text and interview was carried out, and the results from all participants in each discipline were drawn together to yield an overall picture of the rhetorical functions of citations each discipline used and what possible factors influenced this practice. Both disciplines belonged to the same context and same academic institution (CAS). In other words, the current case study integrates the two cases into one multiple-case design to explore differences within and between the two cases, as shown in Figure 4. Therefore this study is a multiple-case study as it aims to explore the source-use practice of the IB and Accounting disciplines at CAS through analysis of texts, interviews and documents.



**Figure 4: A multiple-case study**

The fourth type of case study is exploratory. Case studies are usually exploratory in nature (Jupp, 2006). Exploratory case studies are used when there is little known about the phenomenon. ‘What?’ questions can represent this type of case study, in which the case is open to possibilities and directions and can provide findings that require future investigations. All research questions in the present study start with ‘What’, which points to the gap in knowledge for the issue under investigation. There is very little known about undergraduate students’ use of sources in academic writing in general, and there is a dearth of research specifically regarding undergraduates’ source-use practice in L2 contexts. Although the outcomes of exploratory case-studies cannot be limited, this type of study allows for the exploration of as many questions as needed. The context of writing in this study is informed by the quantitative results of the first phase. Therefore, the questions asked during the interviews only explored the contextual factors that can affect students in the Accounting and IB disciplines to use rhetorical functions of citations the way they do. Given that this study investigates a small number of participants in one academic institution, it limits the scope of the exploration process.

In summary, this study adopted a multiple-case study strategy that explored the source-use practice of eleven final-year students from the IB discipline and the same number from the Accounting discipline, at CAS. It also explained the possible factors that influence students’ use of rhetorical functions of citations in a comprehensive and detailed manner. Finally, given that this research is mixed-method, adopting a case-study approach worked particularly well as it “allows the researcher to take the rich empirical data yielded from case studies and apply either quantitative or qualitative methods or quantitative and qualitative methods to the data” (Mills et al., 2010, p. 2) .

#### **4.4.3 Methodological concerns in case studies**

Despite the advantages of conducting case-study research that can provide an understanding of a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, case studies are not free from criticism (Rowley, 2002; Yin, 1989). A common concern about case studies is the generalisability of the findings, since case studies often rely on a small number of participants to be able to provide a deep insight about

the investigated phenomenon. However, Rowley (2002) argued that the generalisation of a case study is 'not statistical', but rather 'analytical', through the detailed understanding that a case study can provide regarding the phenomenon. In other words, case studies can provide more opportunities for further research and replication attempts for the same phenomenon but in different contexts (ibid.). Potter, Neilsen and Hellens (2010) further added that generalisation of case studies refers to the "concept of development, theory generation, the drawing of specific implications, and rich insight development" (p. 30). In other words, the generalisability of case studies derives from the newly-investigated contexts that can provide more understanding of a social phenomenon than has been generated from previous investigation in different settings. The current study is expected to contribute to the continuum of development of a more comprehensive understanding of source-use among undergraduates in the disciplines of IB and Accounting, which can later foreshadow more research and more replication attempts that can further validate the study results.

Case studies are also criticised for a lack of rigour and objectivity (Potter et al., 2010; Yin, 2003). However, to provide a 'rich' description of a social phenomenon and the influence of its context in shaping the phenomenon, the researcher should interpret the complex relations and perceptions which can significantly influence the phenomenon under study (Potter et al., 2010). In the present case study, different sources of data were probed (through quantitative and qualitative methods) which added to the rigour of the study and its findings. The study also acknowledged the role of the researcher in interpreting the data collected from the interviews and documents. The interpretive role of the research and the active role of the participants are the strengths of case studies, as they offer more insightful perception of the social phenomenon. More discussion about the trustworthiness of this research is presented in Section 4.9.

#### **4.5 Recruitment of participants and choice of research site**

This section describes the sampling procedure and the characteristics of the study participants. It also explains the choice of research site.

### 4.5.1 Sampling

The sampling strategy is an integral part of the research design as it influences the effectiveness and value of the “data collected, the type of analysis possible and the extent of opportunities to draw wider inference” (Ritchie et al., 2014, p. 112). Mason (2002) defined a sampling strategy as “principles and procedures used to identify, choose, and gain access to relevant data sources from which you will generate data using your chosen methods” (p. 120). Since the research sample belongs to a wider context, there should be a meaningful rationale for choosing a specific sample over others (ibid.). Mason advocated for ‘meaningful samples’ that can best allow the researcher to generate data that advances the understanding of the phenomenon under scrutiny. Ritchie et al. (2014) suggested considering a number of factors when deciding on the research sample and its size:

- The scope of the study: The more focused the scope of the study, the better the understanding of who the sample should be. In the current study, the scope (source-use practice in CAS final-year undergraduates in the disciplines of IB and Accounting) is intensely focused and the bounds are identified (final-year research report assessment).
- The nature of the topic: When the topic is clear and relatable, it is easier to engage and approach participants. The topic of this study is very relevant to the participants as it represents a key factor in their writing assessment. Explaining the topic of this study to the student participants was not a challenge in any way. Students were very engaged and enthusiastic to share their understandings of the topic and the challenges they encountered throughout their study at CAS that might have hindered their effective use of sources.
- Quality of data: If the researcher is seeking rich and experiential data, then fewer participants are needed. This study aimed to achieve a thorough understanding of source-use practice, therefore a small number of participants seems sufficient to obtain deep insight into the topic.
- Study design and research methods: A study design that does not require direct interaction with participants (such as quantitative design, e.g.

questionnaires and surveys) may require more participants, whereas qualitative designs (using interviews, observations, etc.) need a smaller number of participants. Although this study is a mixed-method case study, it is interpretative in nature. Thus the quantitative results were further explored by interviewing each text's writers (students) and their teachers to be able to understand why students use sources as demonstrated in the quantitative analysis. Thus using many participants would require the help of assistants, more time and more effort (p. 199).

There are two different sampling approaches: purposive sampling and convenience sampling (Mason, 2002; Ritchie et al., 2014). The convenience sampling approach refers to the selection of participants made purely on the basis of their availability (Ritchie et al., 2014 ). However, this approach can place some limitations on the validity of the study findings given that the sample is not systematically chosen and the lack of diversity might be an issue for drawing any further conclusions from the collected data (ibid.). The current study adopted a purposive sampling approach in which the selection of participants was 'criterion-based or purposive' (Mason, 2002; Ritchie et al., 2014). The participant sample was chosen because they all shared specific features needed to enable the exploration of the topic and answer the research questions. The main criteria for choosing the participants are shown in Table 9.

Before discussing the specific features of the participant sample, it is important first to describe the English proficiency level of the CAS students who participated in this study, as prior literature has highlighted the significant impact of citers' level of English proficiency on their use of citations (Lee et al., 2018; Pecorari, 2006; Shi, 2004; Spack, 1997). When students at CAS finish the Foundation Programme and start their first year of study, their English level is expected to be 5.0 in Academic IELTS (MOHE, 2018e). Graduates of the CAS level of English are expected to be 6.0 in Academic IELTS. However, these IELTS scores are not set with proper testing or comparison with the objectives and assessment of CAS academic programmes and graduate-level attributes. The only thing CAS does to attest students' IELTS levels is to select some students from the Foundation Programme to do IELTS at the end of each

academic year in an official IELTS test centre. For example, the selected CAS sample (60 students who successfully finished the Foundation Programme in the college where this study was conducted) chosen for IELTS test between 2014 and 2016 scored less than band 6 in IELTS expect for 5 students who scored 6, the mean score for the 60 students was 4.0 (MOHE, 2016). Yet there has been no reform regarding the Foundation Programme objectives, assessments or curriculum design to pedagogically improve students' linguistic demands in order to meet the appropriate IELTS equivalence. Moreover, there seems to be no inclusion of supporting students' linguistic needs in the curriculum design or review of the academic programmes at CAS, as explained by the HoD:

*The programme review does not include the language level of students. This is the English Department's responsibility. We review the content of our courses' objectives and assessments. Students should come to us with good level of English.*

Any description of participants' high level of English proficiency throughout this study was based on students' cumulative grade point average (3-3.6/4) and their teachers' description of them as high achievers and competent in English, see Table 8. Students' grade transcripts were obtained from the Registration Department and reflect their teachers' descriptions of them as high achievers with a high level of English. Students described as high achievers were the ones with high GPAs throughout their study, including their grades in their EAP courses, which range between B and A grades. Table 8 provides more details about the participants' GPAs and their grades in the last EAP course they did, EAP grade can indicate the level of English proficiency since the assessment of any EAP course at CAS includes assessment of the four skills of language (reading, writing, listening and speaking).

**Table 8: Participant students' GPA and EAP grade**

<b>Accounting participant student</b>	<b>GPA /Last grade in EAP</b>	<b>IB participant students</b>	<b>GPA / `Last grade in EAP</b>
<b>ACCT1</b>	2.8/C+	<b>IB1</b>	3.2/B
<b>ACCT2</b>	2.87/C+	<b>IB2</b>	3.1/B
<b>ACCT3</b>	3.6/A	<b>IB3</b>	2.7/C-
<b>ACCT4</b>	2.7/C	<b>IB4</b>	3.1/B



ACCT5	3.2/B	IB5	2.7/C-
ACCT6	3.2/A-	IB6	3.3/B+
ACCT7	2.9/B-	IB7	3.1/B-
ACCT8	2.7/C	IB8	2.8/C+
ACCT9	3/C+	IB9	2.8/C
ACCT10	2.7/C	IB10	2.7/D
ACCT11	2.7/D	IB11	3.2/A-

**Table 9: Criteria for participant sampling**

Criteria for student sample	Criteria for teacher sample
All students needed to be in their final semester of their Bachelor's degree. This study analysed students' final graduation research reports, which are only offered in the final semester of their study.	Teachers must have been teaching the investigated subject for at least two consecutive semesters. This allowed the researcher to talk to expert teachers who had obtained enough experience to share in relation to the study topic.
All students had to have finished their EAP courses provided by the English Department before starting their graduation project. This was because students might be confused between the source-use practice required by the English courses and that demanded by their discipline.	Teachers must have been teaching at CAS for at least two years. This criterion allowed the researcher to talk to teachers who were experienced with the college's policies and practices.
All students must have started their academic degree at CAS and must have been admitted to the college in their current discipline. Students who were transferred from other academic institutions were not included in the study. This was to enable the researcher to relate students' learning experiences with the research context (CAS) and with their disciplines.	Teachers must not have been in their last semester of teaching in the college. This is because the researcher may have needed to establish further contact with the teacher to clarify any statement or details provided.
All students must have been graduates of public post-basic education before they joined CAS. Students from private international schools were not included in the study. Previous studies indicated that language proficiency has a great effect on students' source-use practice (Pecorari, 2003; Shi, 2004). Therefore, the study participants had the same educational backgrounds to reflect the real picture of how they used sources in their disciplinary writing.	Teachers must have been specialists in the investigated discipline. This was to allow the researcher to explore the teachers' understandings of the source-use conventions of their discipline.
All students must have been taking the investigated courses for the first time. Students who were repeating any of the courses were not included in the study. This was because this study was investigating an authentic practice in an authentic setting in which students were writing	

their texts without being affected by their previous unsuccessful performance in the course.	
--	--

Following the above criteria, participants were chosen from two courses that both Accounting and IB students must take in their final semester of study. Both courses were chosen based on the following criteria:

- The two courses must require a written text as a major assessment with no less than 30% of the course assessment weighting.
- The two courses must achieve three credit hours.
- The two courses must require students to cite other sources as part of the assessment and grade.

Adhering to the above features, I selected the following courses:

1. International Business Administration Project: This course aims to develop students' research skills by asking them to investigate a real-life problem within the context of international business. Students are expected to reflect on the managerial values of academic research and its importance in recognising a real-life problem, undertaking the appropriate analysis and providing the final findings and action points that can best address the problem under investigation (MOHE, 2018b). The outcome of this course is a research report comprising five chapters: introduction, literature review, methodology, data analysis and results, and conclusion and recommendations. The table below displays the details of the course.

**Table 10: IB course details**

<b>Name of the program: International Business Administration (IBA)</b>	<b>Degree of the Program: Bachelor of Science (BSc)</b>
Course Title: International Business Project	Course Code: BUSN 4404
Academic Department : IBA	
Academic Year: 2017/2018 Semester: Autumn 2017	Credit Hours: 03
Assessment: Written Research Report Viva Voce Examination	70% 30%
Research report first draft submission: Week 11 Research report final draft submission: Week 14	

2. Accounting Project: This course aims to develop students' research skills by asking them to investigate a real-life problem within the context of Accounting. Students are expected to reflect on the managerial values of academic research and its importance in recognizing a real-life problem, undertaking the appropriate analysis and providing the final findings and action points that can best address the problem under investigation (MOHE, 2018c). The outcome of this course is a research report comprising five chapters: introduction, literature review, methodology, data analysis and results, and conclusion and recommendations. Table 11 below displays the details of the course.

**Table 11: Accounting course details**

<b>Name of the program: Accounting</b>	<b>Degree of the Program: Bachelor of Science (BSc)</b>
Course Title: Accounting Project	Course Code: ACCT 4404
Academic Department: IBA	
Academic Year: 2017/2018 Semester: Autumn 2017	Credit Hours: 03
Assessment: Written Research Report	70%
Viva Voce Examination	30%
Research report first draft submission: Week 11	
Research report final draft submission: Week 14	

The teaching and learning components of these two courses are summarized in the course outline as follows:

*The course consists of multiple components including discussion with and guidance from the research supervisor, identifying the research problem, maintaining a journal of tasks and activities, collecting and reviewing literature relating to the topic selected, collecting and analysing the relevant data and information and submitting the research report with suitable recommendations and conclusions. (MOHE, 2018b, 2018c, p. 5)*

#### **4.5.2 Establishing contact with the participants**

Most participants in the current research study (teachers and students) were familiar to the researcher. I have been a teacher and a head of the English department at CAS for six years. I taught some of the students and I connected

with the remaining students for administrative purposes while they were doing their English courses. The teacher participants are colleagues of mine and we met during workshops and communicated during committee meetings and other collaborative work. However, contacting the participants was official and documented. When I obtained the official authorisation from the Ministry of Higher Education to access the site and collect the data I needed (see Appendix E), I contacted the Dean of CAS to inform him about the nature of my research and the data I needed to obtain for my study. This contact was established using emails and the 'WhatsApp' communication software during my stay at Leeds, UK. The Dean gave me permission to contact the participants. I then contacted the head of the Business Department and requested the names of the instructors teaching IB4404 and ACCT4404. He sent me the information for the coordinator of the two courses who sent me the information I needed. The coordinator was very helpful. We agreed that he would meet with the staff and inform them about my study and the nature of their potential participation. When he met with the teachers, they suggested I contact them through WhatsApp to introduce my study and discuss the study information sheet which explained the nature of their contribution. Following this, I encouraged them to express any concerns they might have about their participation. The teachers expressed their approval and desire to participate in the study during our WhatsApp discussion. I therefore sent an electronic copy of the consent form to my colleague in CAS to copy and distribute to the course coordinator, who disseminated them to all the participating teachers for a signature. The coordinator then sent me copies of the teachers' signed forms. I contacted the teachers, again through WhatsApp, to arrange interview times and discuss other logistical matters, such as the location and time for the interviews, the process of obtaining copies of the students' work, and the teachers' feedback comments. The same process was followed when contacting the students. The participating subject teachers spoke to their students about my study and asked for their permission to send me their WhatsApp numbers so I could contact them and explain my study and the nature of their participation. I contacted the students following the same steps as for their teachers. After answering their queries, all students expressed their passion and excitement to participate in the study. I then sent the consent forms to their

teachers for distribution to the students for a signature and confirmation of their approval. The contact with the participants was done a month after the course began, when the classes were settled, registration was finalised and course materials had been given to teachers and students. The participants were under no pressure to take part in the research. Both teachers and students showed interest and passion to talk about their teaching and learning experiences related to disciplinary source-use practice. One of the students expressed that he hoped this research would address the challenges faced when dealing with sources, and he wanted the Business department to give more attention to the quality of their writing (IB5).

After obtaining all consent forms, I set up two WhatsApp groups for teachers and students, and they were prompt in their answers to my queries. We finalised the best times for me to conduct the interviews and confirmed the time and place for each interview. The scheduling process was time consuming, as there were many clashes and discussions about the best time to hold the interviews. The decision regarding when to conduct the interviews was made based on the teachers' agreement that the interviews should be held when the first draft of the students' reports were due. This gave students time to build their confidence about their work in order to talk about it and about the challenges they faced, as well as the support they received. Involving the teachers in deciding the best times to conduct the students' interviews was helpful to this study, as students were confident and able to talk about their experiences with their source-use practice.

### **4.5.3 Research site**

There are many factors researchers consider when choosing their research site. According to Walford (2001), researchers often rely on the convenience of the site in which they can gain easy access and support. They also consider time, financial and personal costs when choosing the site. These personal and convenience factors (or practical reasons as described by Mason, 2002) are important. However, choosing the research site because it is of specific relevance is a crucial component that all researchers should consider in their decision making (ibid.). Given that site choice is an important element of the

research question (the L2 writing context) and that the case-study participants were familiar with the researcher, this helped in drawing conclusions and providing a 'rich description' of the research problem. In this study, the research site was of interest to the researcher, given that it is named in the publications related to this study. Since the current study focused on uncovering the contextual layers which influence L2 undergraduates' source-use practice, the context was crucial to the study's implications and recommendations. The research site (CAS) was chosen because I have worked there for the past six years. My knowledge and familiarity with the CAS context and my connection to the administration was advantageous in facilitating my contact with the students and teachers and obtaining the necessary documents for the study.

#### **4.6 Pilot study**

A pilot study was conducted in April 2017. The aims were to:

- familiarize myself with the data collection procedures: contacting participants, obtaining their consent, and collecting relevant documents;
- test the data instruments in the field;
- identify any possible technical or contextual problems that would affect the process of data collection;
- reshape the research questions and methods based on the lessons learned from the piloting stage.

The original aim of the study during the piloting phase was to examine source-use practice among final-year students from the International Business major and the Communication Studies major. During the pilot stage, textual analysis of students' texts was not conducted. The original research instrument was to directly ask the students about their intentions for each citation. The investigated texts in the pilot study were source-based essays of 2000-3000 words. Six essays from each discipline were collected and citation occurrences were highlighted. Students were then asked about their intentions for each citation. The discourse-based interviews were conducted as planned and all participants were excited about the topic of the study as they appreciated the importance of

investigating source-use practice in CAS. Although the investigated texts reported in this study were not similar to the texts used for the pilot study, the pilot study participants were taken from the main target population intended for the main study: final-year CAS students writing disciplinary source-based texts. After interviewing students about their citations in the analysed texts, the same students were interviewed again to investigate the role of context in shaping their citation practice.

#### **4.6.1 Modifications informed by the piloting stage**

A very important lesson learned from the pilot study is that relying on asking students about their intentions for every citation they used was not a suitable research instrument for the context of this study. The pilot study revealed that most interviewed students were not able to explain the rhetorical functions of their citations, owing to lack of knowledge about the complex role of citations in academic writing. The interviews showed that students' understanding of citations was on their mechanical use - citations as tools to show knowledge of the content and to avoid plagiarism. Therefore, the decision made after this stage was to conduct text analysis using Petrić's typology to identify the rhetorical functions of citations in CAS students' texts (see section 3.4.2.2). Although in the pilot stage student essays from both disciplines showed some complex use of citations, such as evaluation, and comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources, most students were unable to express or explain these complex rhetorical functions. A possible explanation for this could be that students were modelling what they had learned from the articles/lectures without recognizing the role of the rhetorical functions of such citations or their impact in shaping the quality of academic writing.

Another modification that was informed by the piloting stage was including more sources of data in the research design. I decided to conduct interviews with the subject teachers to investigate the type of support they provided to improve their students' source-use practice. The original research design did not include interviewing teachers and only relied on teachers' written feedback to explore the type of feedback given to support students' their citation practice. Interviewing students about their citation practice in the pilot study revealed the

significant role of the subject teachers in shaping students' citation practice. Therefore, investigating the teachers' perceptions, attitudes and input related to writing in the discipline became important to uncover.

#### **4.6.2 Differences between the current study and the piloting stage**

From the beginning, the main target population of this study was final-year CAS students in their final semester of study. In order to keep the same target population, a number of changes were made to the current study that were informed by the procedures and outcomes of the pilot study, as explained below:

- The investigated disciplines in the current study are Accounting and IB. Communication Studies was excluded because there was no source-based writing assessment in the final semester of the Communication Studies degree programme during the data collection phase; the assessment investigated in the piloting stage was suddenly cancelled.
- Because of the change in the investigated disciplines, the collected texts in the current study were different from the texts in the pilot stage. The texts analysed in the current study are graduation research reports (see section 4.7.1.2).
- I extended the sources of data to include interviews with subject teachers to investigate the impact of teachers in shaping students' citation practice when writing in the discipline.
- The interview responses in the pilot stage resulted in some modifications in the original interview questions. For example, questions about the role of subject teachers in supporting citation practice when writing in the discipline were added (see Appendix A). Also, some examples demonstrating the use of citations in different rhetorical functions were given to students to investigate their knowledge of citations used for different rhetorical purposes and their understanding of the impact of citations in the quality of academic writing (see Appendix A).

Finally, the pilot study was informative in shaping the final design of the study. The piloting stage was the perfect opportunity to test the research



instruments, gain first-hand experience with the research context and participants, familiarize myself with the logistics of the fieldwork, and modify the research design and instruments based on the lessons learned.

## **4.7 Data collection and instruments**

The collection of data in this study goes beyond examining students' written texts and includes the exploration of students' and teachers' understanding of source-use practice and their perceptions of the role of context in the way they use sources. Thus the study combines analysis of both the texts and the context of participants' writing when examining the practice of source-use at CAS.

### **4.7.1 Text analysis**

This section discusses the quantitative portion of the study: textual analysis. Textual analysis is an important technique used to investigate the nature of discourse. Examining texts can provide clear and tangible conclusions about discursive practices, including source-use practice, as shared by the discourse community (Swales, 1998). This section also details the quantity of texts, the process of their collections, and the descriptions of their contents.

#### **4.7.1.1 Principles underlying text analysis as a research method**

Using text analysis as a research method reflects my belief that texts play a significant role in understanding the characteristics of any discourse (Fairclough, 1992, 2003). Texts as "a tissue of signifiers" and meaning-making manifestations that are part of social events, can provide different materials for analysts, such as the beliefs, culture, understanding and constraints of the writers (Belsey, 2005). Fairclough argued that texts as forms of social actions are major sources "of evidence for grounding claims about social structures, relations and processes" (1992, p. 211). However, I believe text analysis, when combined with other methods of analysis, can provide a more thorough understanding of the discourse in which the text is produced, as textual analysis alone can be limited. Focusing only on texts fails to reflect the three analytical elements of the meaning-making process: the production of text, the text itself, and the reception of the text (Fairclough, 2003, p. 10). Therefore, examining the texts alone cannot

provide a clear understanding of the discursive practices under investigation. In this study, text analysis is perceived as one method that can contribute to our understanding of the discourse and its practices which can be interpreted and explained by other methods such as interviews, observations, documents, analysis and focus groups.

#### **4.7.1.2 Types of text analysis**

There are two complementary ways to analyse text: linguistic analysis and intertextual analysis (Fairclough, 2003). Linguistic analysis focuses on the internal relations of texts, which include semantic relations, grammatical relations, lexical relations and phonological relations. Intertextual analysis examines how texts are related to other texts (intertextuality) or how texts are related to the social events surrounding the construction of texts (Fairclough, 2003). Although these types of analyses are generally conducted separately, Fairclough (1992) argued that they are complementary to each other. For example, when analysing rhetorical functions of citations in academic written texts, some researchers rely on the linguistic signals writers use to indicate the reasons for using external sources, as the “intertextual properties of a text are realized in its linguistic features” (Fairclough 1992, p. 195). In the current study, the analysis of rhetorical functions of citations also relies on the linguistic context to identify the possible functions each citation represents.

#### **4.7.1.3 Text analysis in this study**

In this research, students' texts are analysed as follows:

1. Analysis of functions of citations: Identifying and counting the rhetorical functions of citations (intertextual feature) as they appear in the texts following Petrić's (2007) typology (see section 3.4.2.2). Additional rhetorical functions are identified that are not included in Petrić's (2007) typology. More explanation about this is provided in Chapter 5.
2. Linguistic analysis: Identifying the rhetorical functions of citations entails further linguistic analysis. Petrić (2007) associated some linguistic signals with most of the functions listed in her typology (e.g. 'see'), associated with further reference functions. The linguistic signals are all considered

when identifying the citation functions, aside from offering new linguistic cues for the new functions identified.

#### **4.7.1.4 Description of the texts analysed in this study**

I analysed twenty-two texts in this phase, eleven from Accounting and eleven from IB. The texts are final-year research reports which students must complete during the last semester of their Bachelor's degree. These texts were collected from the graduation course (see section 4.5.1). Students are expected to use the knowledge gained from their study when writing this research report, which can be best described as a mini-dissertation. The macro-structure of this research report comprises five chapters typical of the research report genre (see section 3.3.5): introduction, literature review, methodology, results and data analysis, and conclusion and recommendations. The description of the report materials means students are given a very tight and prescriptive list of what they must cover in each chapter. The objective of the introduction chapter is to set the scene of the research problem, provide a background and context for the study, define terms, and outline the significance of the study as well as its scope. The literature review chapter provides a summary of relevant literature and states how the study contributes to the body of knowledge. In the methodology chapter, students are expected to describe the research questions, research methodology, population and sample of the study, data collection instruments, reliability and validity of the study, and the ethical considerations. The fourth chapter explains the data analysis process and presents the interpretations of the results. The conclusion chapter provides the final conclusion and recommendations of the study. As demonstrated in the course outline, the total number of words for their report is between 8000 and 10,000 words (MOHE, 2018b, 2018c).

There was no formal teaching in the investigated course. There were, however, five supervision meetings in which students could discuss their queries about their reports with their supervisors (see section 6.5). As well as the supervision meetings, students were given some documents to support their writing of graduation reports. These were: report format, course outline, report evaluation criteria and APA handout. The report format offers a template for every section

in the report, from the title page to the appendices. For each section, the document provides a brief description of what needs to be included (see Appendix I). For example, in the literature review chapter, where the use of sources are mentioned, students are expected to include the following:

**Introduction** (organization of the chapter – overview)

**Review of Literature Summary** (what is known and unknown about the topic)

**Contribution of the Study** (what this study will add to the field)

This chapter begins with an introduction that explains the purpose of the literature review and concludes with contribution to the study. The literature review should be carefully organized by subject headings, and the headings should mirror the research questions. The literature review establishes a context for the investigation. Various sources are used to identify important previous work. Significant findings and major conclusions from cited sources are evaluated and interpreted in terms of their impact on the present work. Each reference must have an APA citation and a full reference list at the end of the report. (MOHE, 2018d. p. 7)

According to the description of the chapter, students are expected to review important literature, evaluate it, interpret it and relate it to their study. However, there is no mention in any of the documents about how students should use sources for more complex rhetorical purposes to establish the significance of the study. The expected guidance and support from subject teachers in writing the graduation reports is summarized in the Course Outline (p. 6):

*Every student will choose a topic in consultation with his/her supervisor and take regular guidance and instructions as and when required. The supervisor should be available to assist the student throughout the project and provide guidance in writing the final report. Students are expected to utilize skills and understanding obtained from all courses in the degree that they have previously completed.*

Yet there was no clear description in the course documents about how teachers were supposed to provide guidance on and support for source-use practice in writing their graduation reports. There was, however, a description of the supervisor's role in dealing with plagiarism:

*In accordance with college regulations, the use of someone else's words, work or ideas, whether published or unpublished, without proper acknowledgement is plagiarism. Such a practice is dishonest and disciplinary action may be taken. Before submitting the final hard copy of the research project to the research supervisor the students have to upload the soft copy of the report to Safe Assign on BlackBoard to check plagiarism, if any. If there is any plagiarism make the required corrections suggested by your research supervisor and submit the final hard copy to the research supervisor. (MOHE, 2018c, p. 7)*

Moreover, there was one evaluation rubric used to evaluate students' reports from both disciplines. The assessment of citation practice was not clearly defined in the evaluation rubric (refer to section 6.4). Three marks were allocated to references with no indication about the conditions required to give the marks (see Appendix H). However, in the Project Report Format document, students were asked to "list all references in APA style" as the only description provided for the reference list (MOHE, 2018d, p. 12). In addition, eight marks were allocated for the literature review chapter in which students were expected to review prior studies to establish the significance of their study. Similarly, there were no specific requirements or conditions for the use of sources in reviewing and evaluating the literature. As for the assessment of other chapters in the report, evaluation of the use of citations was not addressed and marks were not allocated.

Finally, there seems to be a reliance on students' ability to transfer the knowledge and skills, including the use of citations, which they assumedly obtained from their previous courses in writing their graduation reports. Neither the course documents nor the evaluation rubric seemed to provide a detailed account of the expectations and the requirements of the use of sources in writing a research report in the disciplines of Accounting and IB.

#### **4.7.2 Interviews**

Using interviews is recommended for "exploration of attitudes, values, beliefs and motives" (Barriball & While, 1994, p. 329). To understand human social phenomena, interviewing is the most common and powerful research method as it is a 'flexible and adaptable' way of discovering the truth (Lincoln & Denzin, 1998, p. 47). Interviews are an important means of data collection in case

studies as they enable the researcher to understand interviewees' perceptions of and attitudes towards the investigated case (Patton, 2002). Kvale (2007) best summarized the nature of interviews:

*knowledge is understood as buried metal and the interviewer is a miner who unearths the valuable metal. The knowledge is waiting in the subject's interior to be uncovered, uncontaminated by the miner. The interviewer digs nuggets of knowledge out of a subject's pure experiences, unpolluted by any leading questions (p.10).*

There are different types of interviews: structured, semi-structured and unstructured. Choosing the type of interview depends on the extent and depth of answers sought (Robson, 2011). The less structured the approach, the more flexibility and depth can be obtained (ibid.). Interviews can also be conducted using different platforms: face-to-face verbal interchange either individually or in groups, telephone surveys, and self-administered questionnaires (Lincoln & Denzin, 1998). The current study used face-to-face semi-structured individual interviews with students and teachers. A semi-structured interview

*has predetermined questions, but the order can be modified based upon the interviewer's perception of what seems most appropriate. Questions' wording can be changed and explanations given; particular questions which seem inappropriate with a particular interviewee can be omitted, or additional ones included (Robson, 2011, p. 270)*

However, conducting interviews is not without challenges. Facilitating interviews is time consuming and they require a large amount of preparation (contacting participants, scheduling times, confirming times, absence of participants and rearrangements of times), interpretation bias, and social interaction skills not established by all researchers. I made sure to record all interviews to avoid any inaccurate articulation of the responses. To avoid any bias in my interpretation of participants' responses, my findings are supported with quotes directly from the participants and from other sources of evidence, such as official documents. Regarding the interactions with participants, this was well established with participants who knew me as a teacher, head of the English Department and a colleague, by contacting them before the interview to familiarize them with my study objectives and explain to them the nature of their hoped-for participation. I also talked to them about feeling pressured by my position at CAS to participate

in the study or to influence their responses to my questions. Both students and teachers assured they were keen to take part in the study as they found the topic to be a real problem worth investigating. They felt the study could provide a better understanding of the problem and its challenges.

### 4.7.3 Official documents

An analysis of official documents is a valuable source of data in educational research. Official documents can be paper, electronic or visual sources, and they are best used as secondary sources in conjunction with other methods of research (Wellington, 2000). Using documents along with other sources of evidence is a good means of triangulating the research, as it helps to increase trustworthiness (ibid.). Swales (1998) advocated the analysis of documents when trying to understand a complex text (textography) given that documents can provide a rich contextual understanding of the practices of the institution in which the text is produced. In the current study, I perceived documents as social products that could enrich my understanding of the role of institutions and departments in shaping students' source-use practice. They were used in conjunction with interviews and textual analyses of students' research reports to support the study findings and for triangulation. The study considered the following documents: plagiarism policy, course outlines, course assessment guidelines, an APA handout for any documents given to the students to support their writing, EAP/ESP course descriptions, and assessment materials.

## 4.8 Mapping of the methods onto the research questions

Table 12 presents a mapping of the research instruments onto the research questions and shows the type of findings (quantitative or qualitative) the study aims to generate in order to answer each research question.

**Table 12: Research instruments of the research questions**

	<b>Research Questions</b>	<b>Methods</b>	<b>Findings</b>
<b>RQ1</b>	What rhetorical functions of citations do CAS final-year students in the academic discipline of Accounting use in their graduation research reports?	Analysis of Accounting students' research reports	Quantitative results

<b>RQ2</b>	What rhetorical functions of citation do CAS final-year students in the academic discipline of IB use in their graduation research reports?	Analysis of IB students' research reports	Quantitative results
<b>RQ3</b>	What variations of frequencies of rhetorical functions of citations exist between Accounting and IB textual analysis of research reports?	Analysis of Accounting and IB students' research reports	Quantitative results
<b>RQ4</b>	What possible contextual factors might influence the students' use of rhetorical functions of citations in both disciplines?	1. Interviews with students, teachers, head of the Business Department, Head of Learning Resources Centre, College Dean and head of Scientific Research Department 2. Document analysis	Qualitative findings

## 4.9 Data analysis procedure

This section discusses how the analysis was conducted in both phases of data collection: students' texts and interviews and documents.

### 4.9.1 Quantitative text analysis

Analysing citations first began by identifying all citations in the texts that could be included in the analysis following Petrić's (2007) criteria:

- When the author(s)'s name was shown, even if the year of publication was not shown, the citation was included.
- Any bibliographical footnote as well as the mention of an author in the text was included.
- Any instances (such as *He writes*, *Her article explains*) which clearly referred to a previously mentioned source were included.
- Instances (such as *most authors* and *some writers*) that did not point to a specific author or source were excluded.
- Citations that were outside of the main text, such as explanatory footnotes, were not included.

After identifying the citations to be included in the analysis of rhetorical functions of citations, the following were considered in order to decide the functions of each citation:

- Each text was analysed individually.



- Each citation occurrence was highlighted with a marker pen based on the above criteria.
- Based on the syntactic position of the citation, I counted the integral and non-integral citations (see section 3.4.2).
- The semantic context in which the citation occurred, the sentence where the citation occurred and sentences before and after these were carefully read twice or more to determine any linguistic cues which could indicate the function of each citation.
- Petrić's (2007) typology was followed as a guideline for the possible rhetorical functions that citations can indicate (refer to section 3.4.2.2).
- Linguistic cues in the citing context were the main criteria for assigning a particular function for any citations. Linguistic cues can include evaluative language, expressions of comparisons, and linguistic markers to refer to further references (see Petrić, 2007).
- Any occurrences of citations that could indicate new functions that are not included in Petrić's (2007) typology were highlighted with different highlighter pen colours for a more careful examination of their semantic contexts. Two new functions were identified.
- For the new functions identified in the analysis, I contacted the writers to ask them to explain their intention and motivation for these particular citations. Almost all writers were contacted and they all seemed to align in their views. There was only one participant, from the discipline of Accounting, whom I could not reach because he changed his contact number. I named the new categories to reflect the participants' explanations of their intentions for citations.
- In developing the two new categories, I followed the three principles of coding qualitative data by Miles and Huberman (1994): data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. I placed the relevant citations under the appropriate category and disregarded any citations that were not relevant to the category. I then re-categorized them to verify the final decisions made.

- Every citation in the text was coded for the first time and re-coded when I read the text again. This was to ensure that I reached the same conclusion for each citation.
- Excel spreadsheets were created to record the functions for each citation occurrence and their frequencies. I also used the Excel software to create charts and tables for the quantitative results.

In summary, the citation analysis in this study identified the type of citations (integral and non-integral) and the functions of citations using citations' semantic contexts. Cross-case analysis was followed in the analysis of student texts. Every text was analysed individually and separately, and the analysis was guided by Petrić's (2007) typology. The quantitative results across the two disciplines were compared in order to identify any differences in their use of sources. Moreover, this analysis resulted in the extension of Petrić's (2007) typology by identifying two more categories: citations as structure signals and citations as acknowledgment of authorship for content display. However, this analysis was limited in giving a clear understanding of the participants' source-use practices. It can only demonstrate the types of functions that students tend to use in their writing. To establish a thorough understanding of this phenomenon, semi-structured interviews and document analyses were conducted to answer the fourth research question: What possible contextual factors might influence the students' use of rhetorical functions of citations in both disciplines?

#### **4.9.2 Qualitative analysis**

The qualitative data was gathered to explore the institutional and disciplinary contexts of writing that play an important role in shaping students' writing practice, including their source-use practice. As aforementioned in Section 4.6, the qualitative data were collected by conducting interviews with the participants and analysing documents related to academic writing in the disciplines of IB and Accounting.

The interviews involved eleven students from each discipline, and twenty-two interviews in total. The interviews also involved all subject teachers who were teaching the two courses, IB4044 and ACCT4044, which was ten teachers in total. Each interview was recorded and then transcribed with an average of 1800

words per transcribed interview. Each interview consisted of three parts: exploring the participants' understanding of their disciplinary academic writing, source-use practice in their discipline, and the college and disciplinary factors influencing their source-use practice. The teachers' interviews also tackled the same issues, but from the teaching perspective. Four other interviews were conducted with officials in the college to validate the concerns expressed by students and teachers in regards to the college role in shaping students' writing practice. These officials are: the Head of the International Business Department, the Head of the Scientific Research Department, the Head of the Learning Resource Centre and the College Dean. The purpose for interviewing the Head of the International Business Department is to investigate the departmental practices in supporting the use of sources in disciplinary academic writing and to follow up the claims made by teachers and students in regards to the department's role in the learning and teaching of writing in the discipline. The Head of the Scientific Research Department and the College Dean were interviewed to follow up the role of the college's policies and logistics in the development of students' academic writing and in the professional development of teachers to support their teaching practices. Finally, the interview with the Head of the Learning Resource Centre was carried out to further examine the facilities and logistics offered by the college to support the practice of writing.

The interviews with the students, in both IB and Accounting, were conducted in Arabic rather than English to enrich the quality of the data, as students find it easier to express their thoughts in their L1. Therefore, in order to address methodological and ethical concerns that might affect the trustworthiness of the study, I explain how the interviews were translated, as well as the role of the researcher in the processes, in section 4.8.2.1.

Document analysis is used as a complementary approach to enrich understanding of the contextual factors that can constrain or influence students' source-use practice (Wellington, 2000, p. 114). Document analysis entails a careful examination of the content of the written documents to analyse the different relations of the text words and parts in order to make interpretations of the text message, audience and context (Robson, 2011). The collected

documents in this study were examined to identify any conditions, requirements, support and considerations of academic writing features related to IB and Accounting discursive practices, specifically source-use practice.

The following sections explain the process and challenges of translating my own research data, the process of transcribing interviews, and the analytical approach used.

#### **4.9.2.1 Methodological approach to translation**

Temple and Young (2004) stated that translations in qualitative research play a part in constructing and describing the social reality of the participants, and therefore translators “must also form part of the process of knowledge production [in the study]” (p. 164). Unlike other worldviews, such as positivism, which perceives translation in cross-language research as a neutral and objective act, my study’s interpretive worldview perceives translation as an interpretive act and a social practice that requires an integration of “cultural interpretation of the participant’s statements into the analysis process” (Squires, 2009, p. 279). Moreover, with this interpretive view, the researcher or a member of the research team is “better-placed than a professional translator to acknowledge and affirm the nature of the research work, including the contextualization of data in its transformation from one language to another” (Nurjannah, Mills, Park & Usher, 2014, p. 5). Moreover, the integrity of the study findings is reflected in the reliability of the translation process and whether it can successfully represent the complexity of the participants’ responses and positions (AL-Amer, Ramjan, Glew & Darwish, 2016). Based on my epistemological view of translation, as an interpretive exercise that can valuably contribute to constructing the research outcomes and meeting ethical standards, I decided to translate the interviews from Arabic to English on my own. Being a fluent speaker of Omani Arabic enables a reliable understanding of the participants’ accounts and perspectives, which an outsider might find difficult to interpret. Being bilingual enabled me to fully capture my participants’ responses and present their meanings accurately in the target language of English. To further validate the quality of my translation, I asked a colleague of mine, who works as an English teacher at another college in CAS and who specializes in translation from University of Sydney in Australia,

to translate some of the audio interviews. For ethical reasons, I cut the introductory portions from the audiotaped interviews and from the translated transcripts, and deleted any mention of the participants' identities to maintain their anonymity. All four transcripts were returned to me within a week, and I compared my translation to my colleague's and found no significant differences apart from some minor issues with verb tense, which were reconciled by consulting a third bilingual staff member who also specialized in translation.

According to Birbili (2001), it is not always possible to find direct "lexical equivalence" in two languages. Hence the translator should direct his or her focus "towards obtaining conceptual equivalence without concern for lexical comparability" (p. 2). Obtaining the conceptual equivalence relies on a translator's "proficient understanding of a language" and "intimate" knowledge of the context (ibid.). My role as the translator of my data and my translation approach to gaining comparability of meanings was facilitated by my proficiency as a bilingual speaker and by my deep knowledge of the students' academic context and the institution's learning culture. However, this approach has not affected my dedication to being just and authentic to my participants' responses. I tried my best to reflect their sentence structure, grammatical forms, pronouns and prepositions while ensuring a good level of readability of the translated texts. Also, as recommended by Squires (2009), samples of my translation were validated by a bilingual translator who had no other role in this study.

There were some difficulties translating my Arabic data to English owing to the different "linguistic structure" between the two languages (Al-Amer et al., 2016). Table 13 below illustrates some of the challenges I faced and how I managed them, some of which are also addressed in Al-Amer et al. (2016). These challenges were encountered owing to the differences in linguistic and stylistic structures between Arabic and English. However, being in an academic institution and interviewing final-year students supported the use of Modern Standard Arabic (a standardized version of Arabic used for formal communication and academic writing) throughout our communication. This saved me a lot of time when dealing with the participants' colloquial dialects (since they are from different regions of the country).

**Table 13: Examples of the challenges of translating Arabic to English**

Challenge	Example in Arabic	Word-for-word literal translation from Arabic to English	Translation to English	Action taken
No grammatical structure for present perfect tense, use of a phrase to link the past to present	منذ بدأنا الدراسة في هذا التخصص ، لم نستخدم المصادر لهذا الغرض.	Since started we in this discipline, did not use the sources for this purpose	Since we started our study, we have not used sources for this purpose	Add present perfect tense to reflect the link between the past and the present
Use of determiners to refer to the gender of objects: masculine and feminine	في القسم، لم نتعلم في هذا عن آلية استخدام المصادر.	In the department, did not learn this mechanism of using sources	We have not learned how to use sources in this department	This (or these for plural forms) is used for both genders in all translated texts as English does not show gender of objects
	لم أنفع كثيرا بما تقدمه هذه الكلية من مشاغل تدريبية	Did not benefit much from what offered this college from training workshops	We have not benefited from the training workshops this college is providing	
Stylistic and structural challenges: 1. Starting the sentence with a verb	نركز على تجميع البيانات وتحليلها بصورة أكبر من التركيز على استخدام المراجع	focus on collecting the data and analyse it more than using sources	We focus on the data collection and data analysis chapters more than focusing on the use of sources	Order the sentences to match the English grammatical forms for readability issues
2. Use of very long sentences	-عندما نستخدم المراجع، نحرص على استخدام مصادر معتمدة.	when using sources make sure on using authentic sources	When we use sources, we make sure that the sources we use are scientific and academic	Try to break-up long sentences into short sentences that faithfully convey the whole intended meaning.
3. Overuse of personal pronoun, second person (you) and first person (we)	-انت في الكتابة الاكاديمية تعتمد على تلخيص المراجع من حيث تلخيص الاهداف والنتائج والتوصيات	You in academic writing depends on summarizing the sources by writing the objectives, results and recommendations	You rely on summarizing the sources by summarizing the main objectives, findings and recommendations	Translate the personal pronouns as they were said

#### 4.9.2.2 Data transcription

For the purpose of this research, which aims to understand the contextual layers that can have a direct effect on students' source-use practice, I made a full transcription of the audiotaped interviews. I only omitted the opening part of the interviews in which I tried to establish a rapport with the participants. Although transcribing twenty-two interviews with students, ten interviews with their

teachers and four interviews with college administrators with full transcription was a very exhausting task, I did it to obtain full accounts of the participants' perceptions of their disciplinary source-use practices and to gather their thoughts on the institution's or department's roles in scaffolding or hindering students' source-use practice.

I performed the two tasks of data translation and data transcription simultaneously. However, only English version of transcripts were produced. I listened to the interactions with my interviewees, immediately translating and transcribing their responses at the same time. It was the perfect opportunity to get involved with my data and consider what my coding process would be like. Transcribing my data myself made me feel closer to my participants' feelings and thoughts which helped me to translate their accounts faithfully and accurately, to the best of my ability. Although I only translated the students' interviews, I did transcribe all interviews (thirty-six interviews) by myself with no help.

#### **4.9.2.3 Thematic analysis**

Miles and Huberman (1994) suggested three stages of qualitative data analysis: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing and verification. In the first stage, the large amount of data obtained was organised and summarised by "reducing the data into meaningful segments and assigning names for the segments" (Creswell, 2007, p. 148). Both interviews and documents were thematically analysed to organize the data into a manageable format. Thematic analysis is widely used in qualitative research as an analytic method. It is defined as "a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (Braun & Clarke, 2008, p. 79) through coding and categorizing the units of data collected from the interviews and documents into different themes (Yin, 2014). Braun and Clarke (2006) suggest following the six phases in their framework during the analysis, but they acknowledge that data analysis is a "recursive process, where movement is back and forth as needed, throughout the phases", and which depends on the research questions and data (p. 86). Therefore the researcher should decide what phases to cover as long as they fit the research requirements and the nature of the data. Finally, Braun and Clarke's (2006) guide to thematic analysis is not necessarily unique. However, this

framework includes more tasks that involve the analyst from the data collection process to the endpoint of writing the final report. A similar framework to Braun and Clarke's is Miles and Huberman's (1994). Both frameworks cover the same stages, but Braun and Clarke's is a more concise and detailed version of the stages of thematic analysis. Each stage is divided into a number of phases and tasks. Table 14 presents the tasks required for each phase of Braun and Clarke's framework, with the matching stage from Miles and Huberman's model of qualitative analysis.

**Table 14: Braun and Clarke's (2006) phases of thematic analysis and their matching description in Miles and Huberman's (1994) stages of qualitative analysis**

Thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2008, p. 87)	Tasks included	Matching stage in qualitative analysis (Miles and Huberman, 1994)
Familiarising with data	"Transcribing data, reading and rereading the data, writing down initial ideas"	Data reduction
Generating initial codes	"Coding interesting features of the data systematically across the entire data set, collating data relevant to each code"	
Searching for themes	"Collating codes into potential themes, gathering all data relevant to each potential theme"	
Reviewing themes	"Checking if the themes work in relation to the coded extracts and the entire data set, generating a thematic map"	Data display
Defining and naming themes	"Ongoing analysis for refining the specifics of each theme and the overall story that the analysis tells, generating clear definitions and names for each theme"	Conclusion drawing/verification
Producing the report	"The final opportunity for analysis. Selection of vivid, compelling extract examples, final analysis of selected extracts, relating back of the analysis to the research question and literature, producing a report of the analysis"	

In this study, thematic analysis was adopted as shown, in the phases above, by identifying the 'common threads' that extend across the examined documents and interview transcripts to be then presented in a logical and meaningful way (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Familiarization with the research data is the first phase of Braun and Clarke's (2006) framework for thematic analysis. It is not recommended that researchers skip this phase as it provides the 'bedrock' for the analysis (ibid.). According to Braun and Clarke, familiarization with the data requires researchers to immerse themselves by collecting the data themselves, to make sense of the data which might help them form analytical thoughts about the possible themes which will



result from the analysis. Translation and transcription of data are other tasks researchers can do by themselves to provide them with an in-depth knowledge of the data content. As for this study, familiarizing myself with the data involved collecting data in an interactive manner (interviews), translating and transcribing data myself, and developing an in-depth understanding of my data by reading my data in an *active* way. During this phase, I found myself more immersed in my data and more knowledgeable about my participants' experiences. It also helped me take notes and consider ideas about the possible codes to use in my analysis in the subsequent phases. After this phase, I started the analysis by generating the initial codes across my entire data set.

Gibbs (2007) identified the coding process as “a way of indexing or categorizing the text in order to establish a framework of thematic ideas about it” (p. 39). Codes in general refer to “the most basic segment, or element, of the raw data or information that can be assessed in a meaningful way regarding the phenomenon” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 63, as cited in Braun & Clarke, 2006, p. 88). Coding is a helpful phase to manage and organize datasets, to be more structured and divided into meaningful sections (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Gibbs, 2007). Having a structured dataset can facilitate the examination of data and the development of repeated patterns (themes) for the next phase. Coding can be done manually or using a software programme. In the case of the current study, I used NVIVO software as a data management tool, not for analysis. NVIVO helped me to organise my data and make sense of the created codes. The coding of the interview transcripts was done manually. I avoided using automatic coding through NVIVO, because I wanted to immerse myself in the data provided by the study participants. My coding process was systematically conducted throughout the entire dataset. As recommended by Braun and Clarke (2006), I attributed equal time and effort to all data items, and I was consistent with keeping my coding memos that displayed my rationale behind each code and which could later help me identify possible themes. The identification of the codes in this study was both ‘data-driven’ and ‘theory-driven’, as I identified interesting segments of data that could form the foundation of repeated patterns. I also relied on my notes from previous literature to identify themes that were

addressed in previous studies. Below are some examples of the initial generated codes from different transcripts. These examples are screenshots from NVIVO in which the coding of the dataset was conducted.

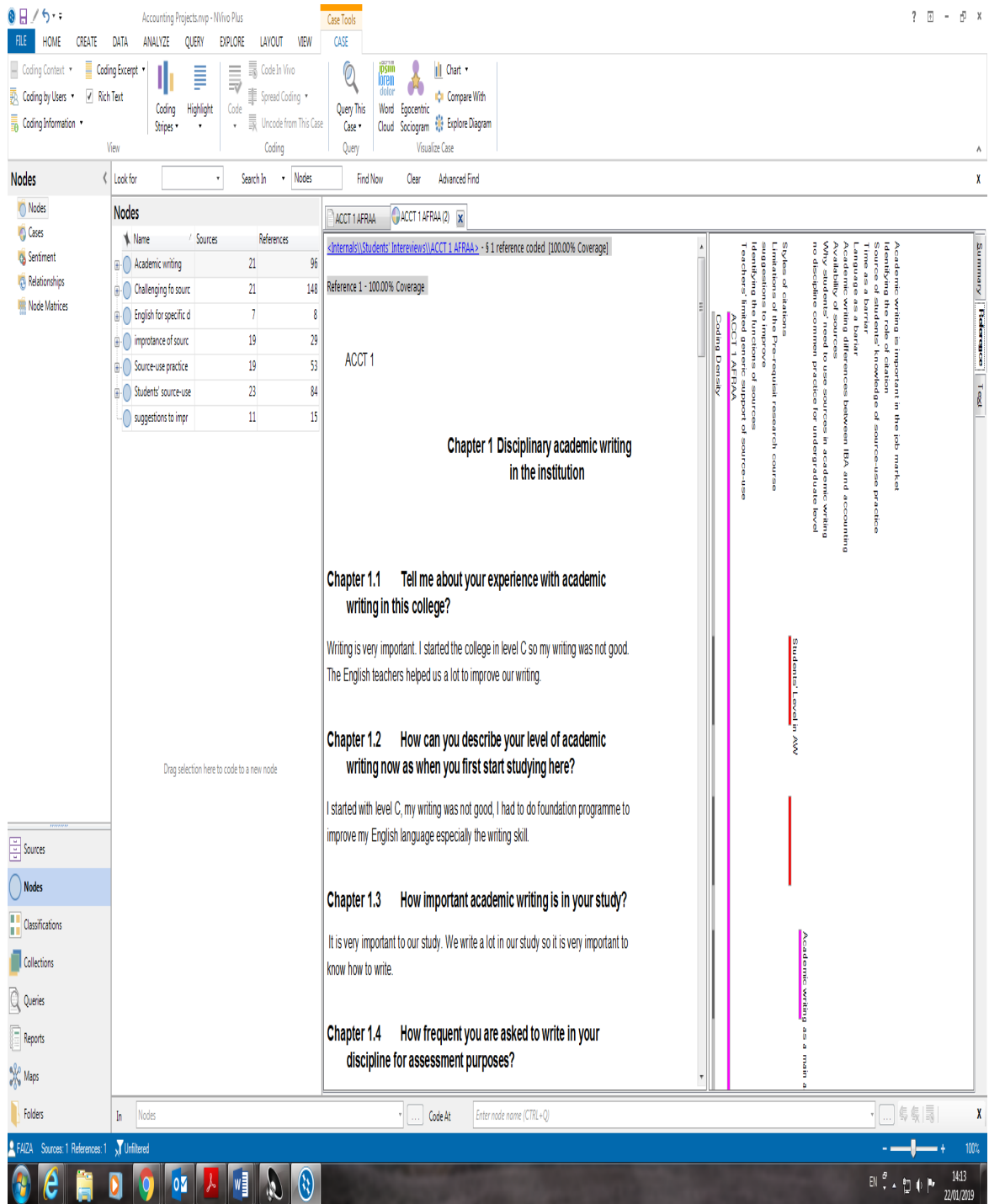


Figure 5: A sample of a coded transcript

The screenshot displays the NVivo software interface. The main workspace shows a list of nodes and their associated text excerpts. The nodes are listed in a table with columns for Name, Sources, and Reference. The text excerpts are displayed below the table, showing various student responses related to writing performance and feedback.

Name	Sources	Reference
Academi	21	96
Challeng	21	148
English f	7	8
improta	19	29
Source-	19	53
Students	23	84
suggesti	11	15

The text excerpts are as follows:

- Reference 1 - 1.56% Coverage**  
Writing is very important. I started the college in level C so my writing was not good. The English teachers helped us a lot to improve our writing.
- Reference 2 - 1.49% Coverage**  
I started with level C, my writing was not good, I had to do foundation programme to improve my English language especially the writing skill.
- Reference 1 - 3.47% Coverage**  
My writing performance and experience depends on the teacher who teaches this skill. I'm not confident with my writing now and I am a graduate and that is because our writing hasn't improved since we started our accounting major. Although we have to write a lot, but there is improvement because our teachers don't give us feedback on our writing.
- Reference 2 - 1.16% Coverage**  
My writing is not good. It could have been much better if our teachers cared to help us improve our writing level.
- Reference 1 - 0.61% Coverage**  
It was ok, but it has improved since I started my study.

**Figure 6: An example of listing all excerpts that share one code**

Figure 5 shows that each question in the interview was formatted as a heading. This is to organise all the answers to every question into one document to later compare the answers to the same question from all participants, in order to allocate the relevant code. The right section of the figure shows the coding stripe feature in NVivo that enables the user to obtain the different codes given in all parts of each interview. This feature is very important for organizing the codes and making sense of them. Figure 6 shows how every reference for each code

can be obtained as one list. This was important in the verification process for each code and in the development of every theme.

A list of the initial codes generated in the analysis is shown below. Using NVIVO to generate the initial codes helped me find the number of sources in which each code was identified and the number of references that represent the segments that are coded with the code in question. This was vastly helpful for locating any code in any source for editing, revising and confirming purposes.

**Initial codes:**

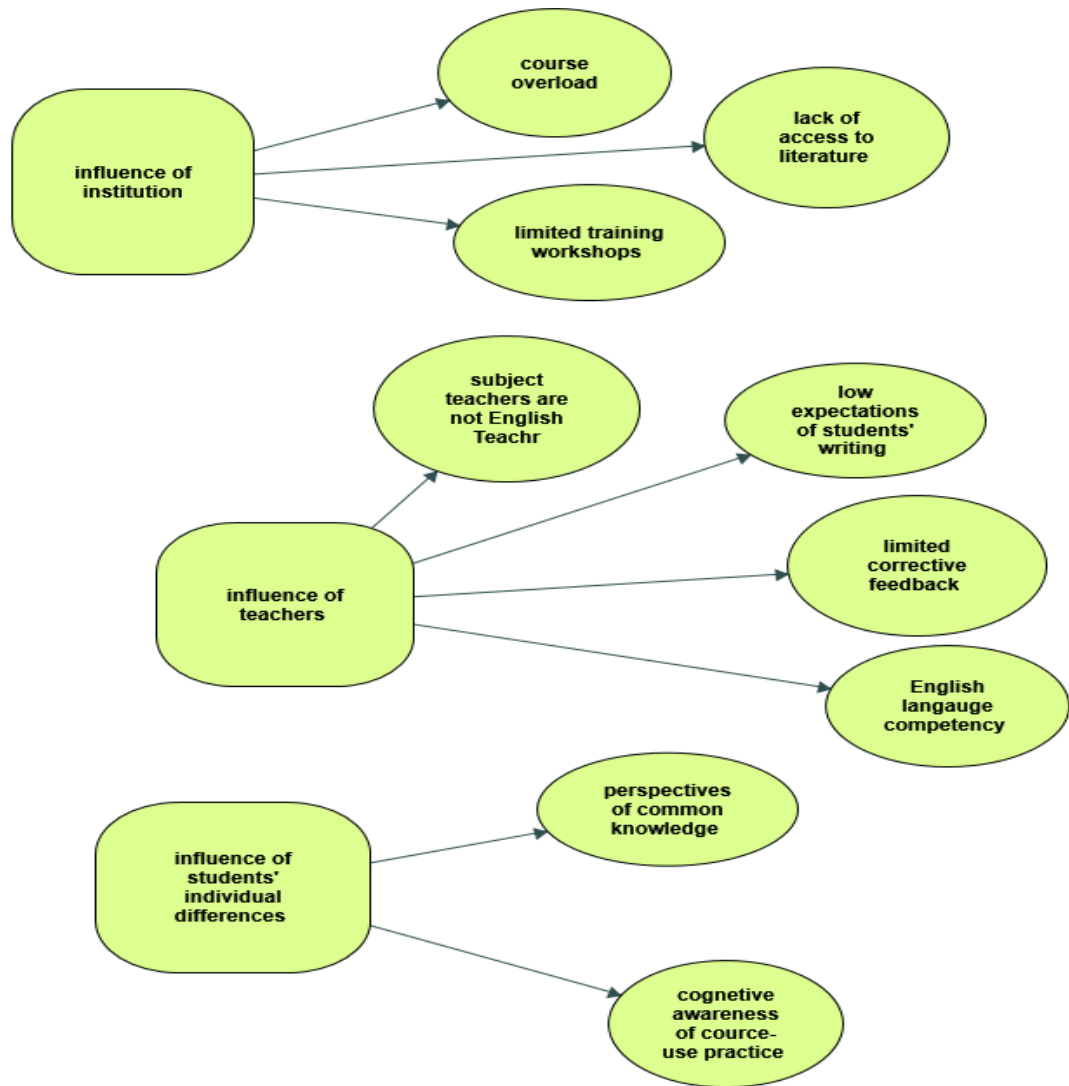
- Writing in the discipline (any reference to features or practices of writing in the discipline)
- Source-use practice in academic writing (any reference to the understanding of the use of citation in academic writing)
- Suggestions to improve source-use practice (any reference to what needs to be done to support the teaching and learning of source-use)
- Importance of using sources in academic writing (any reference to why sources are important in writing practice)
- Source-use practice challenges (any reference to the hindrances or difficulties facing the learning and teaching of source-use)
- Source-use as a disciplinary practice (any reference to the specific use of citations in the disciplines of Accounting and IB)
- Need for English for specific purposes (any reference to the role of ESP in the teaching and learning of source-use in the discipline)

The software also helped me conduct complex searches for codes in all texts, examine relationships between themes, retrieve different types of data, and establish links across the large dataset. For example, I used the 'conceptual map' feature in NVIVO which helps researchers visualize the possible relationships between the codes to form overarching themes in the next phase. A sample of an initial conceptual map generated from NVIVO is displayed in Figure 7 below.



**Figure 7: An initial conceptual map of analysis findings**

I then started the third phase ,during which the researcher is expected to refocus on the codes to identify possible themes. Braun and Clarke (2006) suggested that this phase should involve “sorting the different codes into potential themes, and collating the relevant coded data extracts within the identified theme” (p. 89). In regards to the current study, having done my initial coding, generating my analysis codebook and creating my initial thematic map were necessary steps to conceptualize the different levels of relationship between my codes, which resulted in generating the main themes and subthemes. Some of my initial codes became themes and some others were closely related so they were clustered under one general theme which reflected the intended meaning. Figure 8 shows a developed thematic map which demonstrates the main themes and subthemes developed from the initial codes performed in the second phase.

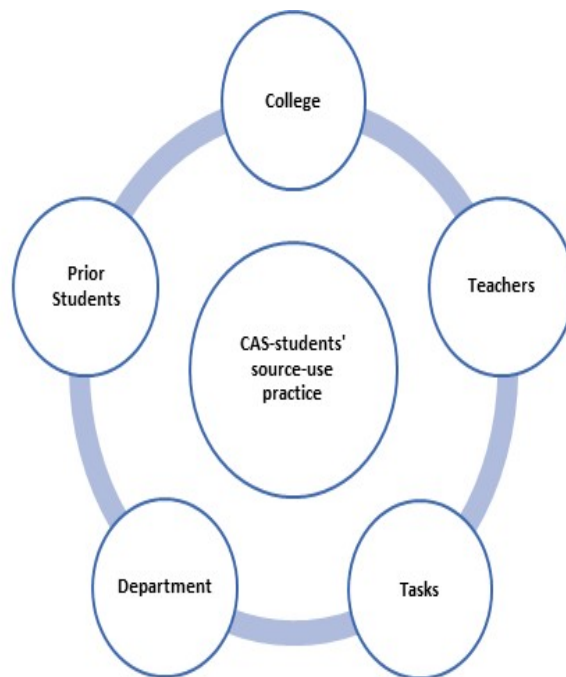


**Figure 8: Developed thematic map**

After identifying the themes and the sub-themes, Braun and Clarke (2006) recommend reviewing and refining the themes initially identified by the researcher. Then the researcher should validate all the themes as true reflections of the meanings presented in the dataset, or, as Braun and Clarke (2006) put it, “accurate representations” of data (p. 91). In this study, I re-read the extracts to ensure they fit the repeated patterns and meaning of the other extracts. This resulted in dropping some extracts and coding some others differently to end with refined, coherent and collated data extracts for each theme. Based on the changes I made I named the themes, considering that a theme should not be “too diverse and complex”(ibid). The final themes were put together to answer the third research question: what possible contextual factors might influence the students’ use of rhetorical functions of citations in both

disciplines? Therefore, my analysis of the data aimed to identify any possible contextual factors that had an influence on students' source-use practice. These factors included policies, perceptions and practices, and they were grouped under the appropriate contextual layer (themes).

Figure 9 shows the final themes identified from the participants' responses, which represent the contextual layers which influenced students' source-use.



**Figure 9: Final themes representing the contextual layers**

Figure 9 shows the final themes identified in the analysis, reflecting the different contextual layers which had an impact on shaping students' practices of source-use. These factors were overlapping and interrelated in nature. Their influence on students' source-use practice was not considered hierarchical in terms of which had more influence than another; rather, they were interconnected, and their presentation in the discussion was not based on which influence was stronger. Under each theme there were a number of sub-themes that represented the different practices or perspectives that each contextual layer performed or had, which contributed to shaping the practice of source-use by the participating students. Table 15 below shows the sub-themes, some of the interview extracts which reflect each theme, and the key observations considered, when coding the extracts from data.

#### **4.9.2.4 Summary**

This section explicitly explains the process of preparing the qualitative data for analysis and the methodological approach used for analysis. It explicates how the interview data was translated, transcribed and analysed. These decisions were made to reflect the interpretive epistemological stance of this study, which perceived the role of the context as critical in shaping the research problem. This part also discusses the thematic approach used to analyse the qualitative data. The final themes and sub-themes resulting from the analysis are also presented and supported with some extracts from the interview transcripts.



Themes: Contextual layers	Sub-themes	Extracts from data	Observations
The college	<p>Lack of logistics to support source-use practice</p> <p>Perception of source-use practice as a tool to avoid plagiarism</p>	<p>"Finding the source is difficult. The library doesn't have relevant books. Also, in this course I find it difficult to do in-text citation, in our previous assignments we didn't have to do it and the teachers don't teach us how to do it" (IBA2)</p> <p>"The only thing that the we get from the college related to use of sources is the plagiarism policy and we interpret it differently" (TIBA5)</p>	Any response that indicates the influence of the college on students' source-use practice is classified under this theme
The Department of Business	<p>The practice and assessment of source-use as a legitimate practice to avoid plagiarism</p> <p>Lack of enculturation into disciplinary discourse</p> <p>Challenges related to the structure of the course</p>	<p>"But this more applicable for Master or PhD students I think. <b>(so you think it is not important for your students now)</b> our target at this stage is to make students do less copy from sources and know where to show the reference in their writing. We also want them to value the importance of reading what other writers write about their topic" (TIBA1)</p> <p>"At this point I don't think this is important. We just want the students to show the sources and understand the consequences of plagiarism. I think they need to know about sources for their postgraduate studies" (TACCT2)</p> <p>"They don't help us with this. They just ask us to use sources but they don't show us how. We just copy from sources and they are ok with it. We just need to write the reference list at the end" (IBA7)</p>	Responses that reflect the role of the department's practices on students' source-use practice in disciplinary writing have led to the formation of this theme and sub-themes
The task	<p>New genre</p> <p>The task is not relevant to the undergraduate level</p>	<p>"Not too much different. Basic concepts in academic writing is the same</p> <p><b>I: So writing is the same between Accounting and IBA?</b></p> <p>R: Yes, only some calculations and they have to do some analyses. But in analysis we used to tell them these are the specific verbs to use. So academic writing helps a lot, we can say 80% contribution</p> <p><b>I: So are there any specific conditions for academic writing in Accounting which are not in IBA?</b></p> <p>R: No, in professional or advanced level there are certain terminologies which you have to know. Terminology covers small thing so academic writing covers large part, more than 80%" (TACCT1)</p>	The familiarity of the task and the assessments of any tasks have an impact on students; use of citation

Prior students	<p>Prior students' perceptions and practice of writing a research report genre</p> <p>Assumptions about students' prior knowledge of source-use practice</p> <p>Students' English language proficiency</p>	<p>"My friends helped me a lot especially with the LR chapter. They told me how to write it. They showed me how to write a small paragraph about every source and then move to the next. They also told me to focus on the objectives and findings of each study" (IB3)</p> <p>"I didn't know anything about this report. It is very difficult especially using 15 sources. I had to ask all my friends who did this course to answer my questions since we do have classes for this course" (ACCT3)</p>	<p>Many responses from the participants attributed the inconsistent use of sources among the study participants to the influence of students' previous peers from past cohorts</p> <p>Also current students recognized their low level of English as another factor that influences their use of sources</p>
The subject teachers	<p>Teachers' attitudes towards source-use practice in the discipline</p> <p>Subject teachers are not language teachers</p>	<p>"The college is doing a lot of workshops to improve our Accounting skills but not much about improving our writing skills although we have to write many assignments. Even when we ask them to explain how we write, they always say that we need to ask the English teachers because anything related to language is not their job" (ACCT 8)</p> <p>"The students only write the sources to avoid plagiarism. They don't evaluate the sources because of their low English" (TIBA2)</p> <p>"But I don't teach writing to students because it is our job and even if we want to do it we have limitations of time" (TACCT3)</p>	<p>This theme represents the impact of disciplinary teachers on their students' source-use practice</p>

**Table 15: Themes and sub-themes identified in the analysis**

## 4.10 Trustworthiness in this research

Trustworthiness refers to “the authenticity and consistency of interpretations grounded in data” (Yeh & Inman, 2007, p. 386). According to Merriam (2009), the findings of a study are trustworthy when it has been conducted rigorously. This study adopted Lincoln and Guba’s (1985) perspective of trustworthiness by meeting four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability. In the positivist epistemology, these four criteria are also known as internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity, respectively (Merriam, 2009). More explanation about each category is offered below.

### 4.10.1 Credibility

Credibility is one of the most fundamental characteristics of trustworthiness in empirical studies (Merriam, 2009; Shenton, 2004). It means ensuring the study addresses its intended purpose and the findings are congruent with the data presented (Shenton, 2004). Merriam (2009) added that credibility is about how congruent the findings are with reality (p. 6). Shenton (2004) summarised some operational actions to portray a true representation of the phenomenon under study which are relevant to this research. Table 16 presents these possible provisions and the measures this study took to meet all the features of credibility.

**Table 16: Credibility measures in this research (Shenton, 2004, p. 73)**

Trustworthiness quality criterion	Possible measures taken by researcher	Measures taken in this research
Credibility	Adoption of methods that have been successfully used in comparable previous research	This study uses text analysis, interviews and document analysis to understand the source-use practice of L2 learners. All these methods have been used separately in previous studies (see section 3.4 in Chapter 3)
	Researcher’s familiarity with the study participants and context	The researcher is familiar with the context’s administration, policies, teaching staff and students and has been working at the research site (CAS) for the last six years (and as head of the English department for 4 years)
	Triangulation of research methods	This research is a mixed-method study, in which both quantitative and qualitative data are collected through the use of three different methods: textual analysis, semi-structured interviews, and document analysis
	Examination of previous studies’ findings	This study explains how the findings are related to the existing body of knowledge
	Rich description of the phenomenon under study	This study provides a detailed description of students’ use of rhetorical functions in the disciplines of Accounting and IB. This description includes: what functions of citations are used? How is this practice different in both disciplines? What possible factors affect students’ source-use practice?

### **4.10.2 Transferability**

The second criterion for trustworthiness is transferability. This strategy refers to the feasibility of applying the results of one study to different contexts by providing sufficient information and detail about the study context and research participants (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Given that the phenomenon in the current study is understood within its context, it can be argued that the findings might not be transferable to different contexts. However, this study provides a detailed description of source-use practices performed by participants and the factors that influence their practice. The study also provides sufficient detail about the research site and the participants from which and whom the data was collected. This detail was provided to enable future readers from different contexts to decide whether the findings are transferable to their contexts (Morrow, 2005; Shenton, 2004). Finally, the study is transferable because it develops knowledge of source-use practice in undergraduates' academic writing.

### **4.10.3 Dependability**

Dependability or reliability is the third element in Lincoln and Guba's (1985) perception of trustworthiness. Dependability refers to the possibility of repeating the study in different contexts (*ibid.*). However, when studying human beliefs and behaviour, dependability becomes problematic since "human behaviour is never static" and social phenomena are in "flux, multifaceted and highly contextual" (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, pp. 220, 221). However, Lincoln and Guba (1985) highlighted the strong ties in context-specific research between credibility and dependability in the sense that ensuring credibility can, in some way, ensure the dependability of the study. Employing different methods of data collection and providing "in-depth coverage" of the study's design and implementation, the operational details of data collection and a reflective evaluation of the study process can enable "a future researcher to repeat the work, if not necessarily to gain the same results" (Shenton, 2004, p. 71). In this study, dependability was ensured through the measures taken to establish credibility (see section 4.9.1).

### **4.10.4 Confirmability**

Confirmability in interpretive research refers to the steps taken "to ensure as far as possible that the work's findings are the results of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the

researcher” (Shenton, 2004, p. 72). Confirmability requires the researcher to admit any bias or influence of her or his perceptions or assumptions in the results (ibid.). The research needs to provide a logical presentation of data that leads to certain findings, a highly informed methodological approach which recognizes its strengths and weaknesses, good assessments of any bias, well-justified findings with clear explanations, and confirmation of the data recording procedures (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Confirmability can be best achieved by providing “richer representations, with participants’ voices and perspectives emerging clearly” (Richards, 2009, p. 160). Having an audit trail is one of the recommended strategies to attain confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This understanding of confirmability is in conformity with the current study’s research focus. In this research, students’ experiences of and behaviour regarding source-use is central to the discussion and findings. Students’ understandings are systematically described, as well as any influences and decisions the researcher made that could subsequently affect the findings. Excerpts from students’ and teachers’ interviews are provided to justify the conclusions. Moreover, examples from the projects used to analyse students’ rhetorical functions of citations are provided, to explain the researcher’s analysis of each function of citation. Finally, the methodological design has been defended and explained, and methodological concerns and shortcomings are acknowledged in the next section.

#### **4.11 Ethical considerations**

Ethical principles and concerns should be considered throughout all the research stages, because such consideration helps the researcher avoid anticipated issues that might occur throughout the data collection phase. This can guide the researcher to develop ethical integrity and equip them to deal with any issues throughout the research journey (Bryman, 2012). There are many different considerations that an ethical research study should involve: the following five principles are summarized by Webster, Lewis and Brown (2014):

- Research should be worthwhile and should not make unreasonable demands on participants
- Participation in research should be based on informed consent

- Participation should be voluntary and free from coercion or pressure
- Adverse consequences of participation should be avoided and risks of harm known
- Confidentiality and anonymity should be respected. (p.78)

It is unlikely that academic researchers would intentionally breach research ethics; however, unexpected circumstances might arise during the study process that could have ethical implications. To avoid any ethical concerns, it is recommended that “every research involves translating sound principles into a set of detailed decisions that fit the circumstances of a particular study” and that can accommodate the quality conditions of the institution or publisher to which the research belongs (Webster et al., 2014, p. 78). This research took regulatory steps to accommodate the University of Leeds’ ethical regularity codes which resulted in reviewing and approval from the University of Leeds Research Ethics Committee (see Appendix B). I also sent an official letter to the Scientific Research Department at the Ministry of Higher Education in Oman (MoHE), which oversees the Colleges of Applied Sciences, to seek authorization to contact the research site and to approach the research participants to introduce the study and the data collection. A data collection authorisation letter was granted (see Appendix E). This approval was necessary to access the research site (CAS), contact the participants and collect the necessary documents from the site. Moreover, given that this research involved human participants, the research guaranteed the voluntary consent of participants, the confidentiality of the participants’ data and the anonymity of their identities. More details about the confidentiality of data, research information sheet, and participant consent form are provided below.

#### **4.11.1 Confidentiality and anonymity**

Confidentiality in social science research refers to “the principle that information about participants in research is private and should only be revealed with their consent” (Jupp, 2006, p. 35). According to Wiles, Crew, Heath and Charles (2008, p. 491), confidentiality includes the following:

- Ensuring the separation of data from identifiable individuals and storing the codes linking data to individuals securely

- Ensuring those who have access to the data maintain confidentiality by not disclosing what an individual has said in an interview and by not discussing the issues arising from an individual interview with others in ways that might identify an individual
- Anonymising individuals and/or places in the dissemination of the findings in order to protect their identity

Confidentiality is a priority of this research, and is operationalised through anonymization of the participants' data. Before data collection began, the participants were informed orally and in writing that their identities would not be revealed under any circumstances and that no one could access data materials except for my supervisor and myself.

For the data analysis the participants' identities were anonymized and each student participant was given a unique codifying reference. Every applicable symbol indicated the discipline of the participant and a number by which to differentiate participants when conducting the textual analysis and the qualitative analysis (e.g. IB1, ACCT 1). For the teacher participants, all symbols started with T to distinguish them from the student participants' symbols (e.g. TIB1, TACCT 1 etc.). Indicating the discipline of each participant was crucial to this study as it examined and compared the practice of source-use between the two disciplines. I also indicated the institution (CAS), given that the name of the context was needed to contextualize the study and to support the limitations and findings which might result from the boundaries found in this context. Moreover, the anticipated recommendations to reform the EAP curriculum are the result of the discursive practices conducted in the context of the study. Revealing the context was explained in the request to the MoHE for data collection and authorisation of the research from CAS.

#### **4.11.2 Participant information sheet**

In this study, participants were informed of the purpose of the study. Participants were given an information sheet which explained what the research is about and the outcomes it seeks (see Appendix C). The information sheet also stated that participation was voluntary and any participants could withdraw at any given time without providing any reasons. This information sheet was given to students and explained to them in Arabic and English to make sure they understood the nature

of the research and their participation. The researcher also offered to answer any questions and clarify any query that participants might have had. Some teacher participants talked to me to clarify how their participation would be beneficial to the research. I answered their queries in detail, explaining how their understandings of source-use practice were relevant to the study and how their views could, pedagogically, inform the teaching of EAP.

#### **4.11.3 Participant consent form**

Participants were also given a consent form to agree their participation (see Appendix D). The consent form clearly stated that all data provided by the participants were to be kept confidential and that names were not going to appear at any stage of the research. The consent form also explained that the collected data would be used for the writing of the thesis, conference presentations, and for publication. All sensitive hard-copy materials (research reports, transcripts) and audio recordings were stored in a locked filing cabinet office at the University and kept on site at all times. The soft document data were stored on the University of Leeds' computer mainframe on its 'M drive', which is a password-protected secure network location.

### **4.11 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter discusses the study's methodological design and the epistemological justifications for adopting an explanatory mixed-method case study. The data collection methods and data analysis procedures are presented and justified. Finally, the methodological concerns and trustworthiness of this study are explained and related to the measures suggested in previous literature.



## **Chapter 5: Quantitative Analysis and Findings**

### **5.1 Procedures of the textual analysis**

Textual analysis was the first phase of data analysis in this study (see section 4.6). After collecting students' research reports from final-year participants in the disciplines of Accounting and IB, I started the first phase of data analysis in which rhetorical functions of citations in the research reports from both disciplines were identified, quantified and compared. Textual analysis in this study considered the dimension of manifest intertextuality that appeared across the whole macrostructure of the participants' research reports. The analysis relied on the linguistic contexts in which citations occurred to identify the functions of citations as suggested by Petrić's (2007) typology (see section 3.4.3). In Chapter 4, I explained how the students' research reports were collected, and I briefly highlighted textual analysis procedures for the twenty-two research reports: 11 Accounting research reports with a total of 114,063 words, and 11 IB research reports with a total of 84,830 words. The analysis included all parts of the students' reports in both disciplines: introduction, literature review, methodology, data analysis and results, and conclusion and recommendations. The following steps were utilized when conducting this textual analysis, which focused on investigating the variation of rhetorical functions of citations within and between the two disciplines. Petrić's (2007) typology of rhetorical functions of citations was used as a starting point to identify and name the rhetorical purpose of each citation. However, the analysis revealed two more rhetorical functions unidentified in Petrić's (2007) typology, which are discussed and justified in the sections below.

These steps are perceived as critical for understanding how the quantitative findings were reached and interpreted. Therefore, I decided to present and discuss them in this chapter in order to demonstrate a comprehensive presentation of the quantitative findings of the textual analysis.

### **5.1.1 Step 1: Creating an Excel spreadsheet for each discipline: IB and Accounting**

Before I received the students' reports, I created two separate Excel spreadsheets for the IB and Accounting reports. In each spreadsheet, I created 11 sheets, one for each report. I named each sheet using the same codes I designated for each participant: IB1, IB2, ACCT1, ACCT2 (see section 4.10.4). These sheets were created to separately record all citation types and functions from every chapter in every report, to easily refer to any data from each report. Each Excel spreadsheet also included a sheet to record the count of all functions of citations identified in each chapter in every report. I also created additional sheets for word counts per chapter per student, frequencies of functions per 1000 words, and findings tables and charts. An example of each sheet is provided below along with each appropriate step.

### **5.1.2 Step 2: Identifying all occurrences of citations in every research report**

For each student's report, I highlighted and counted all citation occurrences in every section of the reports. This includes all occurrences of authors' names, bibliographical footnotes, and any references to authors and sources in the texts such as *he*, *she*, *they*, *the writer*, *the article*, and *the book*. When I completed the IB reports, I followed the same steps for the Accounting reports. After identifying all citations in both disciplines' reports, I moved to identifying the type of citation for each occurrence.

### **5.1.3 Step 3: Identifying the type of citation and rhetorical functions of citations**

I then identified whether the citation was integral or non-integral (see section 3.4.2.1). In Petrić's (2007) typology some functions are associated with certain types of citations. Therefore, it was important to compare the features of each function in Petrić's (2007) typology, such as citation types, with the findings of this study. Counting the types of citations is important for quantitative findings as it can demonstrate a level of language proficiency, given that some studies have suggested that L2 novice writers tend to use more non-integral citations than their L1 counterparts (Keck, 2006; Shi, 2004).

After identifying the types of citations, I returned to each citation to identify the rhetorical functions. To do this, I had to carefully read the linguistic context in which the citation occurred. I identified any possible linguistic cues that could indicate the function of citation as suggested by Petrić (2007) (see section 3.4.3). To allocate any possible function to a citation, I relied on my understanding of the language surrounding the citations. Any clear linguistic signal that indicates a specific function was noted, and the functions were allocated based on this. The functions identified in Petrić's (2007) typology were listed, counted and saved in the relevant Excel spreadsheet. A sheet was created for each report with five tables, representative of the five chapters in the report. The tables were used to note the count of the functions and the types of citations associated with each function (see Figures 10 and 11). This is to compare any differences between the five chapters regarding the use of citations for specific purposes in each specific chapter.

	A	B	C	D	E
1	<b>Acct 4: 2690</b>				
2	<b>Rhetorical functions of citation in Chapter 1</b>	<b>Type of citations</b>	<b>Frequency</b>		
3	Attribution	Integral	10		
4	Exemplification				
5	Further reference				
6	Statement of use				
7	Application				
8	Evaluation				
9	Establishment of links between sources				
10	Comparison of ones' work with that of authors				
11	other				
12	Study summary (objective, results) recommendation				
13					
14					
15					
16	<b>1532</b>				
17	<b>Rhetorical functions of citation in Chapter 2</b>	<b>Type of citations</b>	<b>Frequency</b>		
18	Attribution	Integral	10		
19	Exemplification				
20	Further reference				
21	Statement of use				
22	Application				
23	Evaluation				
24	Establishment of links between sources				
25	Comparison of ones' work with that of authors				
26	other				
27	Study summary (objective, results) recommendation	Integral	28		
28	sources as headings				
29					

**Figure 10: Screenshot of types of citations in each chapter in each report (Accounting Excel spreadsheet)**

1	IBA		
2	2010		
3	<b>Rhetorical functions of citation in Chapter 1</b>	<b>Type of citations</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
4	Attribution	2 integral/ 5 non-integral	7
5	Exemplification		
6	Further reference		
7	Statement of use		
8	Application	Non-integral	1
9	Evaluation		
10	Establishment of links between sources		
11	Comparison of ones' work with that of authors		
12	other		
13	Study summary (objective, results) recommendation		
14			
15			
16			
17	2556		
18	<b>Rhetorical functions of citation in Chapter 2</b>	<b>Type of citations</b>	<b>Frequency</b>
19	Attribution	10 integral/5 non-integral	15
20	Exemplification		
21	Further reference		
22	Statement of use		
23	Application		
24	Evaluation		
25	Establishment of links between sources	integral	1
26	Comparison of ones' work with that of authors		
27	other		
28	Study summary (objective, results) recommendation	Integral	38
29			
30			
31			
32			
33			
34			
35			
36			
37			
38			
39			
40			
41			
42			
43			
44			
45			
46			
47			
48			
49			
50			
51			
52			
53			
54			
55			
56			
57			
58			
59			
60			
61			
62			
63			
64			
65			
66			
67			
68			
69			
70			
71			
72			
73			
74			
75			
76			
77			
78			
79			
80			
81			
82			
83			
84			
85			
86			
87			
88			
89			
90			
91			
92			
93			
94			
95			
96			
97			
98			
99			
100			

**Figure 11: Screenshot of types of citations in each chapter in each report (IB Excel spreadsheet)**

The linguistic cues that were considered in this analysis to determine Petrić's (2007) rhetorical functions of the citations are presented below in Table 17.

**Table 17: Examples of the linguistic signals for each function of citations in Petrić's typology**

Rhetorical functions of citation in Petrić's (2007) typology	Examples of the identified linguistic signals (including all suffixes and prefixes attached to the root word) for each function
Attribution	Define, identify, find, explain, write, state, According to, argue, say, point out
Exemplification	Not found
Further reference	See..
Statement of use	Apply, follow
Application	Not found
Evaluation	Evaluative language such as: [the study] fails [the author] did not cover the results do not match the study provides a fault calculation the calculation formula is not applicable to this study

	<p>the study produced a new method of calculation</p> <p>the findings helped improve calculation formulas of financial statements</p>
<b>Establishment of links between sources</b>	<p>Both articles agree</p> <p>Different from the previous study</p> <p>These studies are different in their findings, these two articles found similar results</p> <p>The calculation formula used in most of these studies is...</p>
<b>Comparison of one's work with other sources</b>	<p>My findings are similar to or different from (article or author)</p> <p>The findings of this study are overlooked in the previous studies</p>

Tables 18 and 19 show some examples from students' reports from the two disciplines that represent Petrić's (2007) rhetorical functions of citations. These examples are taken from students' texts as they appear, without any linguistic change.

**Table 18: Examples of Petrić's functions of citations from Accounting reports**

<b>Petrić's (2007) Functions</b>	<b>Examples from Accounting reports</b>
<b>Attribution</b>	<p>Basu et al. (2012) identified that the public hospital frequently appears to lack timeliness and hospitality towards patients ( ACCT8, p. 26)</p> <p>The Bloomberg report. (2017) attested that Oman, the largest Arab oil outside the organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries, is considering a merger of its two main sovereign wealth funds (ACCT7, p. 15)</p>
<b>Exemplification</b>	Not found
<b>Further reference</b>	The current study explains, in detail, the method of measure CSR which is CSR disclosure index (see Hanifa & Hudaib, 2007) (ACCT3, p. 27)
<b>Statement of use</b>	<p>For the estimation of the index, CSR disclosure is calculated as the ratio of points awarded over the total number of selected dimensions following Haniffa and Hudaib's work (2007, p. 103) (ACCT3, p. 28)</p> <p>Here in my study it was most prominent challenges to collect information through flubbing questionnaires into lack of time hence I applied unique methodology of quantified CSR used by Haniffa and Hudaib (2007) (ACCT3, p. 32)</p>
<b>Application</b>	Not found
<b>Evaluation</b>	<p>The study revealed useful findings for fund managers and investors to make more realistic decisions while placing money into funds (ACCT6, p. 18)</p> <p>Moreover, this study was descriptive without any empirical support (ACCT5, p. 22)</p>

<b>Establishment of links between sources</b>	<p>This evidence [refers to a previous citation] is consistent with the other studies which declare that CSR activities can add value to the firm but only under certain conditions (ACCT3, p. 23)</p> <p>These studies show that empirical studies regarding this topic have produced different findings, which suggests that there is no consensus regarding the relationship between CSR and a company's financial performance (ACCT3, p. 21)</p>
<b>Comparison of one's work with other sources</b>	<p>However, there are two aspects this study intends to cover which have been overlooked in the previous studies (ACCT3, p. 26)</p>

**Table 19: Examples of Petrić's functions of citations from IB reports**

<b>Petrić's Functions</b>	<b>Examples from IB reports</b>
<b>Attribution</b>	<p>According to International Labour Organization studies, there are more than 300 million people in the world's workforce who were without a job in 2013 (Head M, 2014), (IB10, p. 11)</p> <p>A study of (Lazaridis, D., June, 2006) examined the relationship between corporate profitability and working capital administration (ACCT 8, p. 16)</p>
<b>Exemplification</b>	Not found
<b>Further reference</b>	Not found
<b>Statement of use</b>	Not found
<b>Application</b>	Not found
<b>Evaluation</b>	<p>The study showed that marine organisms can benefit from the study in such way even in medicine and this very good for future research, (IB6, p. 16)</p> <p>This kind of research contribute to the future development of the Omani fish market and could add an advantage to enhance it and avoid the challenges (IB6, p. 17)</p>
<b>Establishment of links between sources</b>	<p>Similarly, others such as Peterman and Kennedy (2003) and Krueger (1993) reported that entrepreneurship education is an essential factor used to encourage students to start their own businesses and be self-employed (IB5, p. 17)</p> <p>These studies all confirm the perception of women to get employment in the tourism industry (IB3, p. 20)</p>
<b>Comparison of one's work with other sources</b>	<p>Actually, most of the results of the questionnaire [from the students] are in correspondence with other authors' ideas and with points that are mentioned in chapter two (literature review), (IB9, p. 38)</p> <p>My findings showed that 100% (n=50) of small business talked about the marketing as a reason behind the success of business and this reflects what Lorette, N, said..., (IB2, p. 35)</p>

During the analysis phase, two more functions of citations were identified in the analysis that did not match any of Petrić's (2007) proposed functions. One of these was found in most reports from both disciplines. Similar to the steps I followed when identifying Petrić's (2007) functions of citations, I did the following:

- Read and re-read the linguistic context within which the citations occurred, to understand the motivation for the citation.
- Identified any common linguistic signals or linguistic patterns surrounding the linguistic context of the citations.

After following these steps, I talked to each student who used these functions in their reports, except for one, to understand their reasons and motives. From the descriptions of their reasons and my own interpretations and understanding of the linguistic contexts surrounding the citations, I named the two identified functions: textual structuring and acknowledgment of authorship for content display. Each is now discussed in detail below.

#### **5.1.3.1 Citations as textual structuring devices**

The function of using citations as textual structuring devices was identified in the literature review chapter, in two IB research reports and two Accounting research reports. The citations which represent this function appeared in students' analysed reports as bolded sub-headings. The paragraph under each bolded citation presents the main information the students found useful from the source shown in the sub-heading. Moreover, these citations, which were used as ways of textual breaking and demarcating pieces of the texts, were only found in the literature review chapters of students' reports. In all occurrences of these citations, the source's citation was written in full, including the author(s)'s name, the year of publication and the title of the study (not necessarily in the same order). The following excerpts are examples of these citations:

**Excerpt 1****Nassar, S., (2016): The impact of capital structure of Financial Performance of the firms**

*The writer tried to examine the impact of capital structure on the financial firm performance of industrial companies in Turkey. The annual financial statements of 136 industrial companies listed on Istanbul Stock Exchange (ISE) were used for this study....(ACT10, p. 17)*

**Excerpt 2****Ahmed, Ahsan, 2011: The role of services sector in the economy of Pakistan**

*The researchers of this study mentioned that the services sector has offered stable support to Pakistan's economic growth. It contribute in GDP now stands a more than 50%. In addition, the paper analyses its continuance in the development of the economy in general and the growth of trade and generation of employment in specific....(IB4, p. 17)*

**Excerpt 3****The impact of online advertising on Tunisian consumers' purchase intention, Brahim (2016)**

*Salem Ben Brahim said on his article, the impact of online advertising on consumer behaviour depends on the relationship between perceived advertising value and consumer buying intentions. The value of online advertising depends positively on informatics, reliability and entertainment value ..(IB7, p. 20)*

In general, the students explained that presenting citations in sub-headings was their way of structuring their literature reviews and to break between the different studies they used to present each study in a separate section. According to ACCT10, putting the citations as sub-headings helped him organize his literature review chapter and to discuss each study he found useful, in a coherent way. He added that it was very challenging for him to talk about more than one study in the same paragraph. IB7 explained that presenting the external sources as headers of paragraphs helped her organize the ideas and information obtained from each source to help the reader distinguish between the various studies she discussed in her literature review.

Finally, these citations were used to present every study in isolation from the previous and subsequent studies that students talked about in their literature reviews.



### 5.1.3.2 Citations as acknowledgment of authorship for content display

The function of citations as attribution for knowledge display was also identified in the literature review chapters from both disciplines. Only one student from the Accounting discipline used citations as a summarizing tool to display knowledge of the content in both the introduction and the literature review chapters. For these citations, students started with the attributed definition, key concept or information from a study, and presented the main information from the same study: objectives, methods of data collection, main findings and recommendations. The students used a third-person pronoun to refer to the author(s) (*she, he or they*) or the study (*it*) when they wrote the summary for each study in the literature review. Sometimes the students referred to the source by referring to the study findings, objectives or methods of analysis, as shown in the excerpts below. The following excerpts from the students' reports are examples:

#### Excerpt 1

Khan et al. (2016) investigate into the roles of Corporate Social Responsibility towards the community development of Sohar. This study critically analyses the current practices of CSR in the selected companies at Sohar Port area, Oman. The study uses the case study analysis on the questionnaire collected through the data obtained from 10 companies selected on a random sampling basis among the big companies located at the Sohar industrial port which apply CSR programs in their businesses and the data is critically analysed to evaluate the cause and effect of CSR and on the CSR activities carried out by the selected companies in that region.

The study reveals that the manufacturing companies have high inclination towards CSR programs than the other. In addition, This study concluded that ORPIC is the company with highest number of involvements of CSR activities (45) in this region, followed by VALE (43 activities); Sohar Aluminum is involved in 42 activities whereas JINDAL and Sohar Power are involved in 24 activities. Larsen & Toubro and Worley Parsons have 16 activities. Air liquid is involved in 15 activities. OILTANKING is involved in 14 activities. ODFJELL is involved in 11 activities. **(ACCT3, p. 19)**

#### Excerpt 2

Varghese (2011) researched women empowerment in Oman: A study based on Women Empowerment Index. He took a sample of 150 women in Sohar region, Sultanate of Oman, with a structured questionnaire. Statistical package for social science (SPSS). It is the main tool for data analysis. This study used regression model and frequency tables. For quantitative analysis. It took by selecting five main variables as independent variables and total women empowerment as dependent variable. Researcher has done a hypothesis testing by taking five hypotheses out of that four have accepted and one rejected. This study found that women in Oman are doing better in household decision making and economic decision making than social empowerment. The result shows that majority of women in Sohar region are aware about their rights and duties. Finally the study has given certain recommendations to further improve the empowerment of women in Sohar region **(IB3, p. 19)**

When asking students who performed this type of function of citations, they explained that they had been asked to provide a brief summary about each study they found relevant to their research topic, not necessarily important to their argument, to show they had read the source. ACCT6 said that they were asked to use the source and write about it in an abstract style in which they briefly explained what the study was about and how it is relevant to their topic. Another student asserted that this is how literature reviews are written, providing a general summary of each article to display their knowledge of the content, the citation is only to acknowledge the authorship of the source. The citations in these examples do appear as Petrić's attribution at first glance; however, their presentations in the texts are different from Petrić's explanation in her typology. The rhetorical purpose for giving this amount of detail about each source was only for students to display their knowledge of the source, and the presentation of these details were in isolation from the overall argumentation. The separate summary presentation of each source as one bulk, the lack of linkages between the summaries of different sources, the ambiguous function of the source summary in advancing the argument of the writer, and the students' own admission that their summaries for the sources they had read were only to demonstrate their familiarity with the sources' content, support the conclusion that these citations are different from the attribution in Petrić's typology. In Petrić's framework, writers at the postgraduate level attempted to refine and elaborate knowledge gleaned from sources in order to address specific questions, and in doing so, attribute specific ideas to specific sources, in a variety of ways (including summary) (see examples in section 3.4.2.2). However, what is clear from the above excerpts is that the students were not engaged in elaboration of knowledge, neither they were establishing an argument. Their purpose was simply to display knowledge to show their teachers that they had read and understood these sources. For this reason, subsuming these instances under the category of 'attribution' does not seem appropriate. Although attribution refers to acknowledgment of authorship- as all citations do-, that acknowledgment is playing a role in the establishment or advancement of the writer's argument. I argue that we need to distinguish between attribution citations that participate in the advancement of the argument (knowledge-transformation) and attribution citations that play no role in the enactment of the

research argument (knowledge-telling) (see section 3.4.2.2). Therefore, I decided to name the function for citations shown in the excerpts above as 'acknowledgement of authorship for content display' to distinguish it from the 'attribution' function that is perceived to play a role in the development of the argument and that is presented in association with other sources. Unlike attribution citations in Petrić's typology that appear in different forms (summary/paraphrase and quotation) and that appear in association with other sources, acknowledgment of authorship for content display appears separately and in total isolation from other sources and the writer's argument.

Both newly-identified rhetorical functions reflect students' inability to use sources to synthesise. The significant use of citations for acknowledgment of authorship for content display and textual structuring seem to represent novice writing practice. This is unlike the practice of experienced and professional writers, who generally show their ability to use sources to synthesise by using sources for more rhetorically complex functions (Harwood, 2009; Petrić, 2007; Thomson, 2001) (see Figures 13 and 14 as examples of the entry count of functions of citations).

#### **5.1.4 Step 4: verification of each function of citations**

I applied inter-rater and intra-rater reliability measures to verify the quality and accuracy of the analysis of rhetorical functions of citations in the Accounting and IB research reports. I re-analysed every citation following the above steps to verify the functions allocated for each citation in the first analysis. After reviewing the findings of the first analysis, I asked a colleague, a third-year PhD student at the University of Leeds (a second rater) whose research approach was similar to mine, to analyse five reports from each discipline and follow Petrić's (2007) taxonomy to identify the functions of citations in the 10 reports (inter-rater analysis). The new identified functions that are not included in Petrić's typology were not included in the inter-rater analysis.

Cohen's kappa was the statistical measure used to examine the level of agreement between the two raters. Cohen (1960) developed the kappa statistical test to "account for the possibility that raters actually guess on at least some variables due to uncertainty" (McHugh, 2012, p. 276). For the purpose of this study, a form of agreement was given to the second rater to agree or disagree

with the function allocated by the first rater (myself) (see Appendix I). This form also meant to ensure that both raters analyse the same citations and all codes used for the analysis of citations were the same so that codes do not overlap.

Before conducting the Kappa test using SPSS Statistics, I made sure that my data had met all five assumptions needed to conduct a valid kappa test. These assumptions are:

- Assumption 1: “The response that is made by your two raters is measured on a nominal scale (i.e. either an ordinal or nominal variable) and the categories need to be mutually exclusive”. In this study, the categories are *agree* or *disagree* for each function of citation.
- Assumption 2: “The response data are paired observations of the same phenomenon [the function of every citation], meaning that both raters assess the same observations”.
- Assumption 3: “Each response variable must have the same number of categories and the crosstabulation must be symmetric”. The form of agreement was designed to ensure that the codes do not overlap.
- Assumption 4: “The two raters are independent (i.e. one rater's judgement does not affect the other rater's judgement)”.
- Assumption 5: “The same two raters are used to judge all observations”.

(Cohen's Kappa Using SPSS Statistics, n.d.)

After ensuring that all the above assumptions were met, I started entering the variables in SPSS Statistics to conduct the Kappa test. The entry results are shown in Tables 20 and 21 and the Kappa value is shown in Table 22.

**Table 20: Case processing summary**

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
<b>Rater1 * Rater2</b>	166	100.0%	0	0.0%	166	100.0%

**Table 21: Rater1\* Rater2 crosstabulation**

Count	Rater2						Total
	Attribution	Further reference	Application	Evaluation	Establishment of links between sources	Comparison of ones' work with that of authors	
Attribution	146	0	0	0	0	0	146
Further reference	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Statement of use	0	0	2	0	0	0	2
Evaluation	0	0	0	5	0	0	5
Establishment of links between sources	0	0	0	0	6	0	6
Comparison of one's work with that of authors	0	0	0	0	0	6	6
<b>Total</b>	146	1	2	5	6	6	166

**Table 22: Symmetric measures**

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error <sup>a</sup>	Approx. T <sup>b</sup>	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement Kappa	.946	.036	19.182	.000
N of Valid Cases	166			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis

The total number of analysed citations from both disciplines was 166 (number of valid cases). The result value of the interrater analysis is Kappa = 0.946 with  $p < 0.001$  (Cohen's kappa ( $\kappa$ ) can range from -1 to +1). This measure of agreement is statistically significant, and the agreement is almost perfect as per kappa interpretation scheme (see Landis & Koch, 1977). Most statisticians prefer kappa values to be higher than 0.7 before claiming a good level of agreement (ibid.). The two citations that the two raters analysed differently were owing to the confusion of the meaning of the two functions: statement of use and application. The second rater allocated the function 'application' for the two citations because he confused the meaning of the statement of use function with the meaning of

application. When the second rater reread Petrić's definitions and examples that explain the meaning of application function and statement of use function, he independently realized that he confused the meanings of the two functions so he decided to allocate statement of use function for the two citations that he earlier classified as application in his first analysis.

### 5.1.5 Step 5: Frequencies of rhetorical functions of citations per 1000 words in each chapter

After calculating the frequency count of each function of citations for each chapter in each report, I calculated the total frequency of each function of citations per 1000 words in each chapter in each reports (see Figures 15 and 16: frequencies per 1000 words are highlighted in yellow).

The formula used to calculate the total frequency of each function per 1000 words was:

*the total number of one function of citations in a chapter divided by the total word count of the chapter multiplied by 1000 equals the frequency of the function of citations in the chapter per 1000 words.*

To perform this calculation, I had to record the word count from each chapter in each report to get to the total word count for each chapter in all reports, as shown in Figure 12.

CHAPTERS	ACCT 1	ACCT 2	ACCT 3	ACCT 4	ACCT 5	ACCT 6	ACCT 7	ACCT 8	ACCT9	ACCT 10	ACCT 11	TOTAL
Introduction	680	1181	2163	2690	1652	2624	932	1043	1655	3312	1304	19236
LR	6354	2887	2829	1538	3246	1477	3184	7338	1713	7264	2180	40010
Methodology	1283	1748	1449	1238	1319	1424	1469	992	665	1964	753	14304
Results	1667	1679	2297	6583	3493	2421	1527	1528	3771	3928	3867	32761
Conclusion	538	633	618	487	794	368	544	495	989	1885	401	7752
<b>Total</b>	10522	8128	9356	12536	10504	8314	7656	11396	8793	18353	8505	<b>114063</b>

**Figure 12: Total word counts of each chapter per each Accounting participant (excluding abstracts, references list and appendices)**

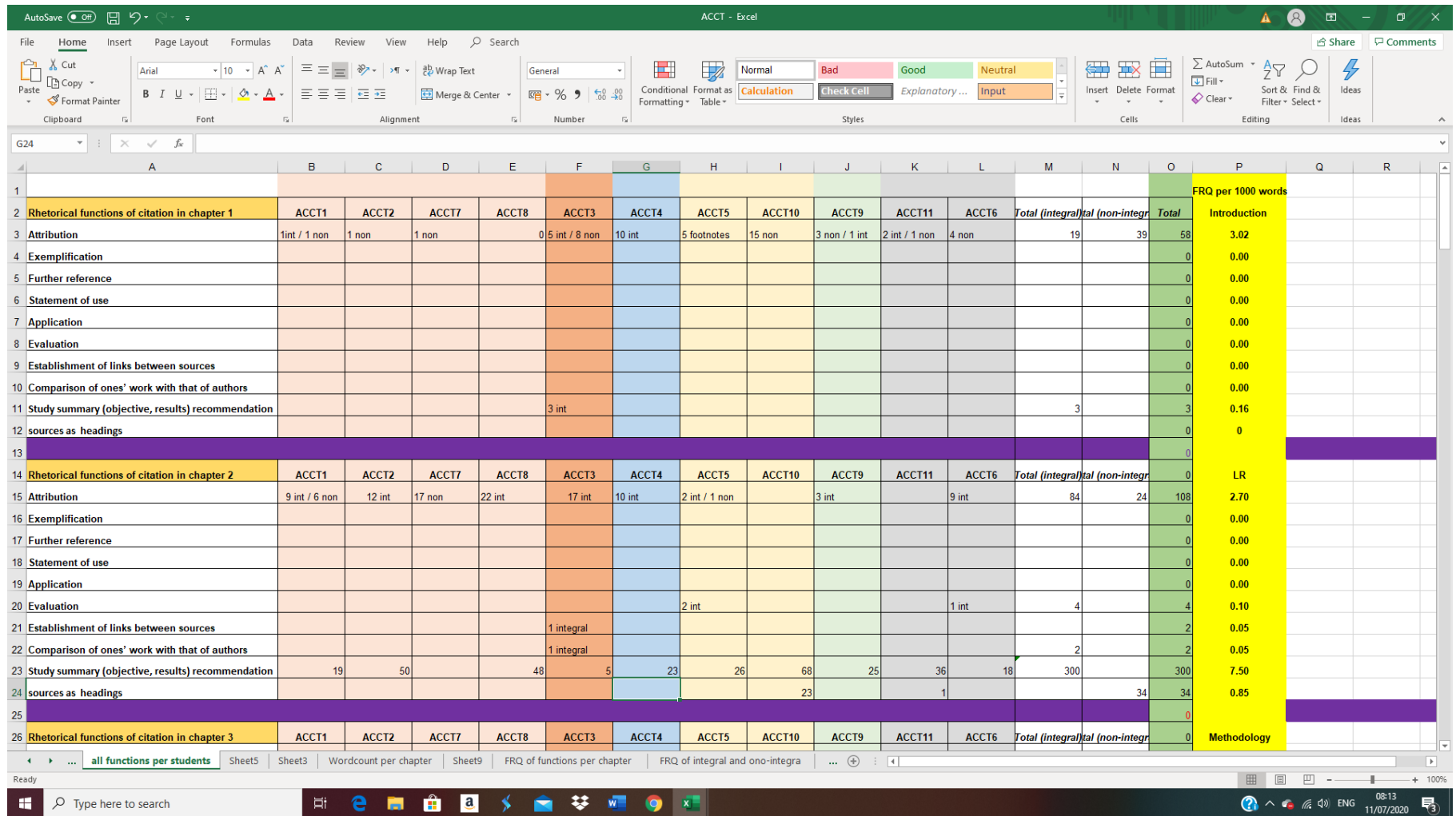


Figure 13: Frequencies of functions of citations per 1000 words by chapter in ACCT reports

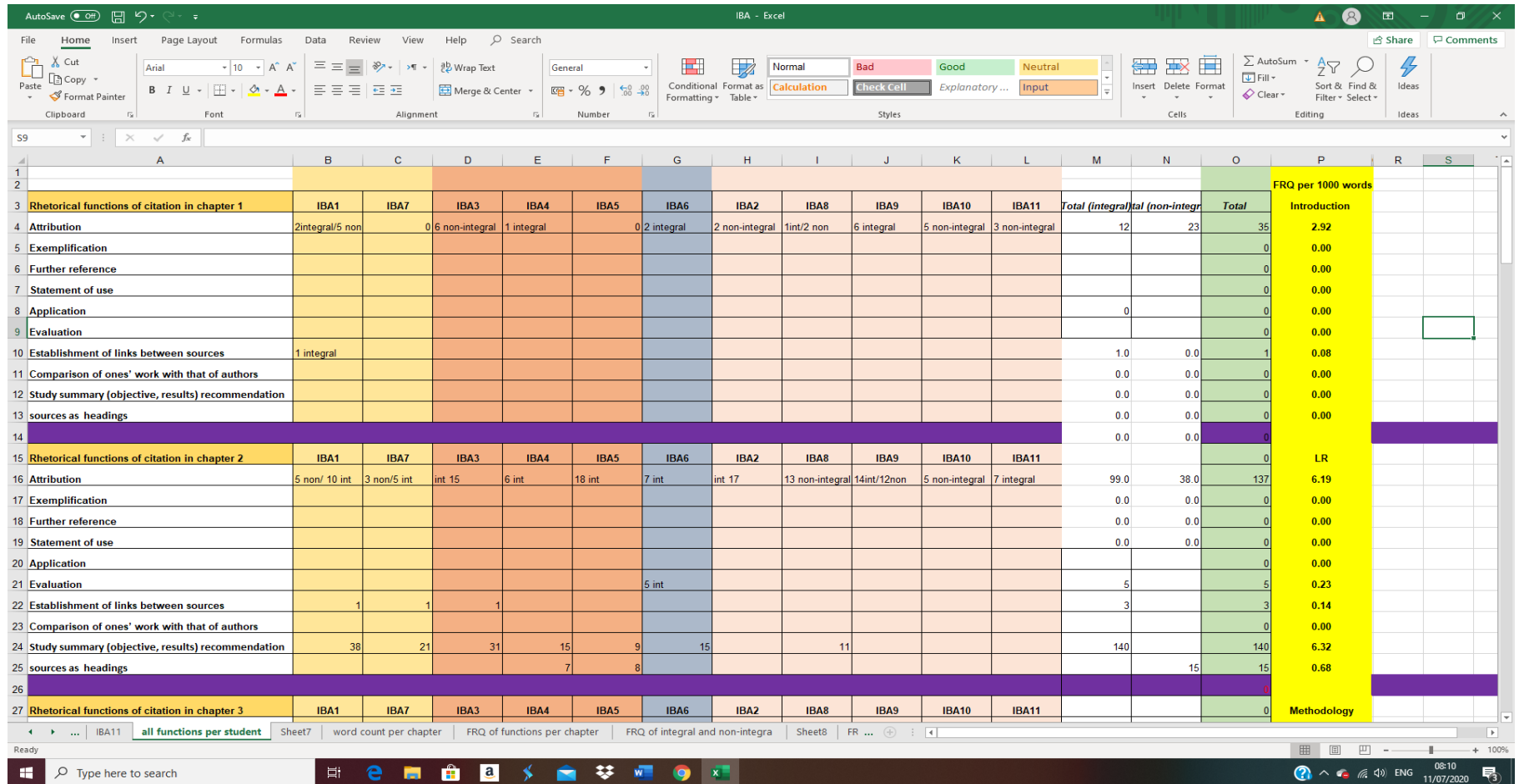


Figure 14: Frequencies of functions of citations per 1000 words by chapter in IB reports



## **5.2 Results of the textual analysis between the Accounting and IB research reports**

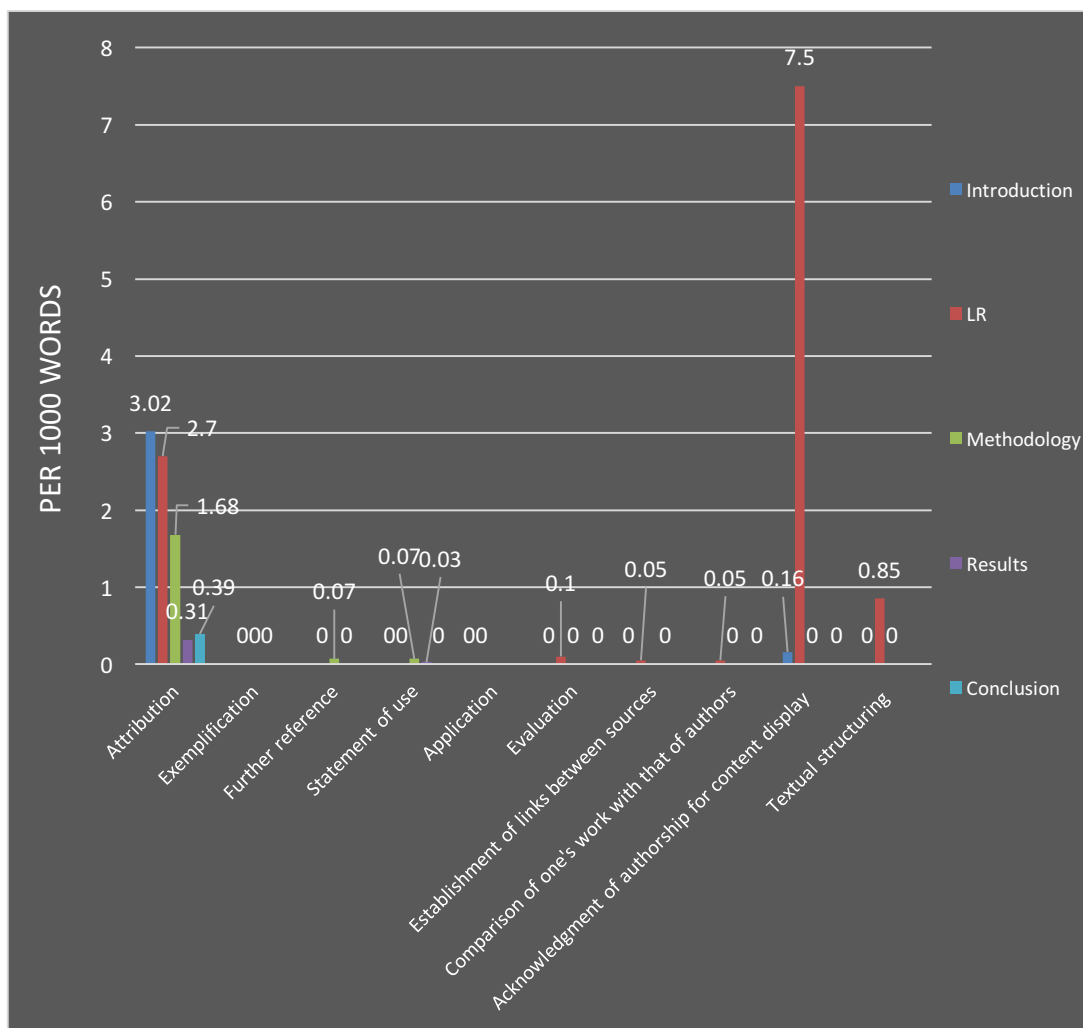
This section presents the results of the frequencies of rhetorical functions of citations in the whole macrostructure of CAS students' research reports in the disciplines of Accounting and IB. These quantitative results aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. What rhetorical functions of citations do CAS final-year students in the academic discipline of Accounting use in their graduation research reports?
2. What rhetorical functions of citations do CAS final-year students in the academic discipline of IB use in their graduation research reports?
3. What variations of frequencies of rhetorical functions of citations exist between Accounting and IB textual analysis of research reports?

A total of 927 citations were identified with 198,893 words in all analysed texts: 551 citations were in the Accounting research reports (114,063 words) and 376 citations in the IB research reports (84,830 words). As explained in Chapter 4, each citation was assigned one function only. I found no ambiguous interpretations in which it was difficult to decide on the function of the citations or in which one citation could be interpreted differently. Therefore, the "other" criterion, as in Petrić's typology, is not included in the tables and charts of the analysis. The following sub-sections discuss the findings of the quantitative analysis of rhetorical functions of citations in the Accounting and IB research reports separately.

### **5.2.1 Results of the textual analysis of Accounting research reports**

This section presents the quantitative results of the textual analysis of the Accounting reports. It shows the frequencies of the different rhetorical functions of citations identified in the research reports of Accounting students and the types of citations students tend to use for the different rhetorical functions.



**Figure 15: Frequencies of functions of citations per 1000 words in each chapter of Accounting research reports**

Figure 15 presents the rhetorical functions of citations that Accounting students used across the macrostructure of their final-year research reports. The results show that Accounting students mainly use sources for the purpose of attribution across the whole macrostructure of their final-year research reports. The highest frequency of attribution (3.02 times) was found in the introduction chapter, and the lowest frequency was in the results chapter (0.31 citations per 1000 words). Acknowledgment of authorship for content display citations had the highest frequency of 7.5 times per 1000 words in the literature review chapter and they also appeared in the introduction with a lower frequency of 0.16 times. Exemplification and application functions were not used by Accounting students in any of the chapters of their reports. Complex rhetorical functions of citation, such as the establishment of links between sources, comparison of one's work

with that of others, and evaluation were used by Accounting students in the literature review chapter only with a very low frequency of 0.05, 0.05 and 0.1 citations, respectively. Other functions found in Accounting reports in low frequency were statement of use and refer to further references, which appeared in one report only. The second new function of citations identified in this study, 'textual structuring', only appeared in the literature review chapter in two reports, with a frequency of 0.85 times per 1000 words.

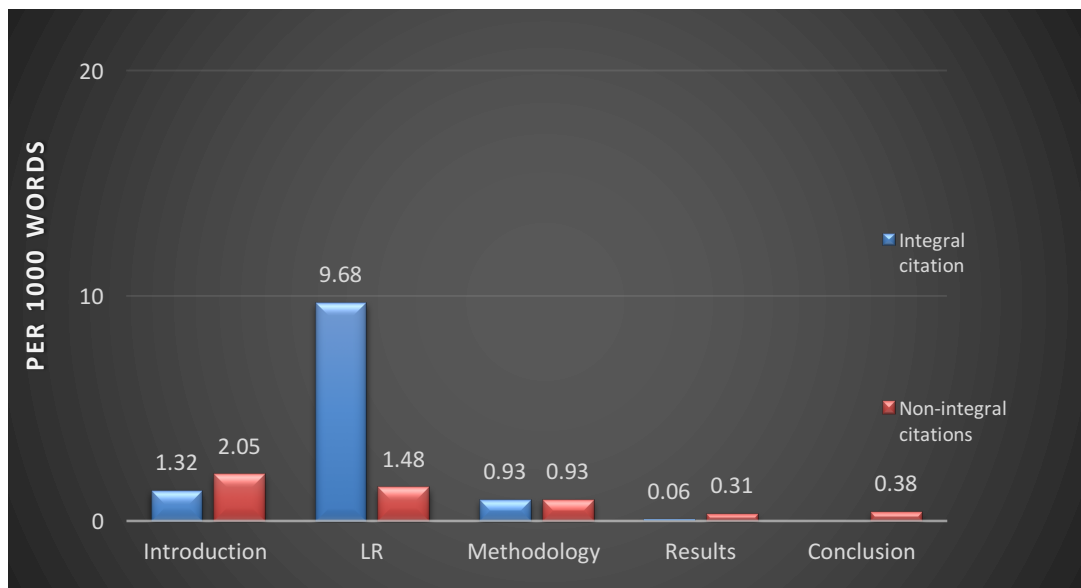
The table below shows the percentage of each type of citation for each function that appeared in the analysed Accounting reports.

**Table 23: Integral and non-integral citations for each rhetorical function in Accounting research reports (%)**

Rhetorical functions of citations	Integral citations	Non-integral citations
Attribution	20.9	16.0
Exemplification	0.0	0.0
Further reference	0.0	0.2
Statement of use	0.4	0.0
Application	0.0	0.0
Evaluation	0.7	0.0
Establishment of links between sources	0.4	0.0
Comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources	0.4	0.0
Acknowledgment of authorship for content display	55.0	0.0
Textual structuring	0.0	6.2

The table shows that students used integral citations significantly more often when using sources for different purposes. Integral citations were mostly used for acknowledgment of authorship for content display and attribution (55 and 20.9, respectively). Integral citations were also used for statement of use, evaluation, establishment of links between sources, and comparison of one's work with that of others; however, they were performed with very low percentages. Conversely, non-integral citations were only used for textual structuring citations, with a percentage of 6.2, and two citations for further reference. Citations for attribution are the only function presented by both integral and non-integral citations.

Regarding the distribution of types of citations across the different chapters, Figure 16 shows that the highest frequency of integral citations appeared in the literature review chapter, a total of 9.68 times per 1000 words. No integral citations were located in the conclusion chapter. Unlike integral citations, non-integral citations appeared in all chapters, and they were only used, with low frequency, for further references, attribution and textual structuring (only in the literature review chapter).

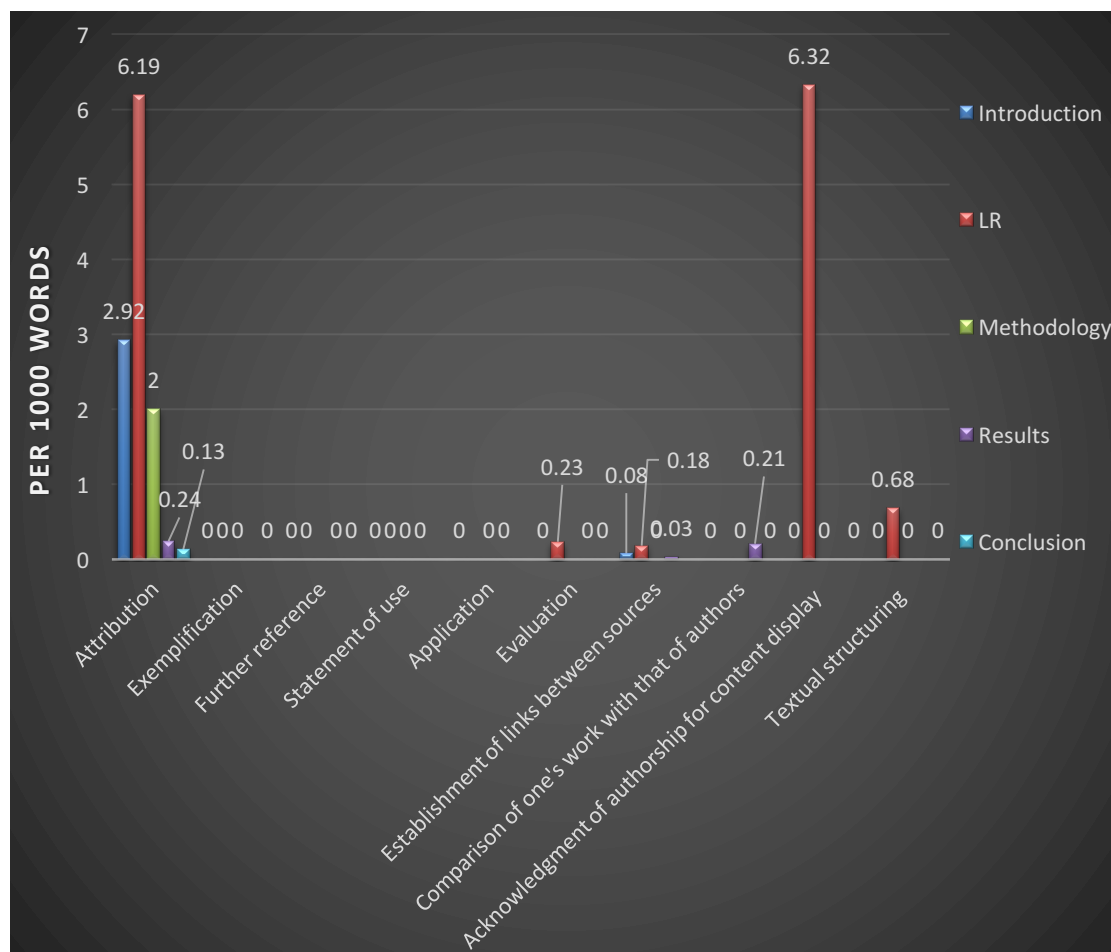


**Figure 16: Integral and non-integral citations across all chapters in Accounting reports per 1000 words**

In summary, the results of the Accounting reports showed that attribution citations are commonly used in all parts of Accounting reports even though they do not have the highest frequency. Acknowledgment of authorship for content display citations are the highest in frequency; however, these are not found in the whole macrostructure of the reports. The other complex functions, which mostly appeared in one report, are found in different chapters but with low frequencies, and the students used integral citations to present them, except for the further reference citations. The results also show that Accounting students tend to use more integral citations, particularly when they use citations for attribution and knowledge display summary.

## 5.2.2 Results of the textual analysis of IB research reports

Figure 17 presents the rhetorical functions of citations that IB students use across the macrostructure of their final-year research reports.



**Figure 17: Frequencies of functions of citations per 1000 words in each chapter of IB research reports**

The results show that the frequencies of attribution citations and acknowledgment of authorship for content display citations are almost equivalent in the literature review chapter, with approximately six citations per 1000 words. Citations for attribution were found across the whole macrostructure of IB students' final-year research reports. Similarly to the results of the Accounting reports, citations for evaluation appeared only in the literature review chapter, with a frequency of 0.23 times per 1000 words. However, all citations for evaluation were only found in one report. Citations for exemplification, further reference, application and statement of use were

never used by IB students in any of their reports' chapters. In contrast to Accounting reports, the establishment of links between sources appeared in the introduction, literature review and results chapters in six reports. Also, the citations for comparison of one's work with other sources appeared in the results chapter in only one report, whereas it appeared in the literature review chapter in the Accounting report. The only functions that were found in more than one chapter were attribution and establishment of links between sources. The other functions appeared only in one chapter as shown in the chart above. Regarding the use of integral and non-integral citations that were identified in IB research reports, the table below shows the percentages of types of citations for each identified function.

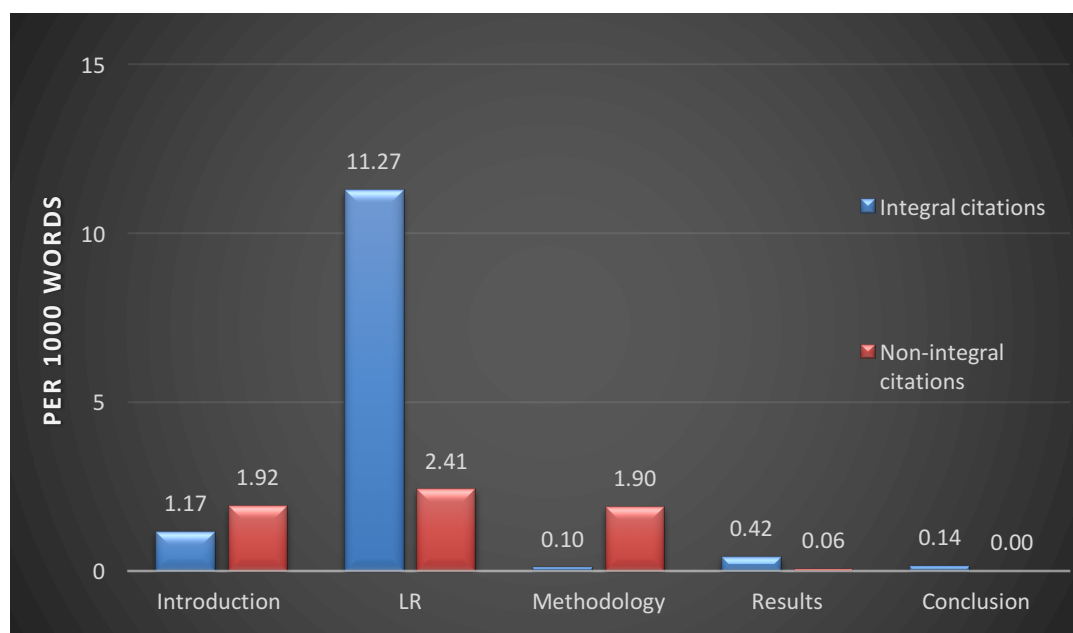
**Table 24: Integral and non-integral citations for each rhetorical function in IB research reports (%)**

Rhetorical functions of citations	Integral citations	Non-integral citations
Attribution	31.6	21.8
Exemplification	0.0	0.0
Further reference	0.0	0.0
Statement of use	0.0	0.0
Application	0.0	0.0
Evaluation	1.3	0.0
Establishment of links between sources	1.9	0.0
Comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources	2.1	0.0
Acknowledgment of authorship for content display	37.2	0.0
Textual structuring	0.0	4.0

As shown above, similarly to the Accounting report analysis, the integral type of citations are most frequently used for attribution citations (31.6%) and acknowledgment of authorship for content display citations (37.2%). IB students also relied on integral citations to present rhetorically complex citations, such as evaluation citations, establishment of links between

sources, and comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources. On the other hand, the non-integral type of citations was only used for attribution and textual structuring.

Figure 18 shows the distribution of types of citations across the different chapters. It demonstrates that the integral citations appeared across the whole macrostructure of the research reports with the highest frequency in the literature review, with 11.27 citations per 1000 words, and with the lowest frequency in the methodology and conclusion chapters, approximately 0.1 times per 1000 words. Non-integral citations were also located in all chapters except for the conclusion chapter. The highest frequency of non-integral citations was in the literature review chapter (2.41) and the lowest frequency in the results chapter (0.06).



**Figure 18: Integral and non-integral citations across all chapters in IB reports**

In short, the analysis of IB research reports showed that IB students use integral citations for different purposes across all chapters of their reports, although non-integral citations were most frequent in the introduction and methodology chapters. Citations for both attribution and acknowledgment of authorship for content display were the most frequent functions found in the analysis, whereas citations for comparison of one's own findings or

interpretation with other sources of citations were the least frequent. IB students never used citations for exemplification, further reference, application or statement of use.

### **5.2.3 Variations of rhetorical functions of citations between Accounting and IB textual analysis of research reports**

Table 25 presents the percentages of rhetorical functions of citations in Accounting and IB research reports. Although the table shows that Accounting students used sources for more complex rhetorical functions that their IB peers did not use, this cannot be viewed as a common comparison between the two disciplines as most of these citations appeared in one Accounting report. The findings also showed that the commonly used functions in both disciplines are attribution, acknowledgment of authorship for content display and textual structuring. However, the percentage of attribution citations is considerably higher in the IB research reports (53.5%) and it is the highest function of citations performed in IB reports. Conversely, the highest percentage of citations in Accounting reports was acknowledgment of authorship for content display citations (55%), followed by attribution citations (36.3%). Overall, the data in Table 25 show that citations were mostly used for knowledge display and descriptiveness of the sources that students presented in their writing. The prevalence of acknowledgment of authorship for content display citations and attribution citations and the lack of using more complex rhetorical functions suggest that there is little engagement made between sources and between the writer and other sources.



**Table 25: Rhetorical functions of citations in Accounting and IB research reports (%)**

Rhetorical functions of citations	Accounting research reports	IB research reports
<b>Attribution</b>	36.3	53.5
<b>Exemplification</b>	0.0	0.0
<b>Further reference</b>	0.2 (1)	0.0
<b>Statement of use</b>	0.4 (2)	0.0
<b>Application</b>	0.0	0.0
<b>Evaluation</b>	0.7 (4)	1.3 (5)
<b>Establishment of links between sources</b>	0.4 (2)	1.9 (7)
<b>Comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources</b>	0.4 (2)	2.1 (8)
<b>Acknowledgment of authorship for content display</b>	55.0	37.2
<b>Textual structuring</b>	6.2	4.0

\*The number inside the round brackets is the row number of the citation count located in all reports of the relevant discipline.

Further differences in citation use between the two disciplines' research reports were revealed when functions of citations were compared between the different chapters of the reports: introduction, literature review, methodology, results, and conclusion and recommendations (see Tables 26 and 27). The data confirmed that both Accounting and IB students used citations for attribution to a greater extent in all report chapters except for the literature review, in which acknowledgment of authorship for content display citations are more frequent in both disciplines. The data also showed that most citations were used in the literature review chapter in both disciplines. As for the citations of more complex functions, their occurrences were not consistent in all reports since they were limited to one or two reports in both disciplines. An exception to this is the citations for establishment of links between sources, as this type of citation appeared in a different density in three chapters in six IB reports: introduction (2.8%), literature review (1.3%) and results (6.3). Similarly, the conclusion chapter in both disciplines includes only attribution citations. Finally, textual structuring citations in Accounting and IB reports appeared only in the literature review chapter, with a higher percentage in the Accounting reports.

**Table 26: Rhetorical functions of citations by chapter in Accounting research reports (%)**

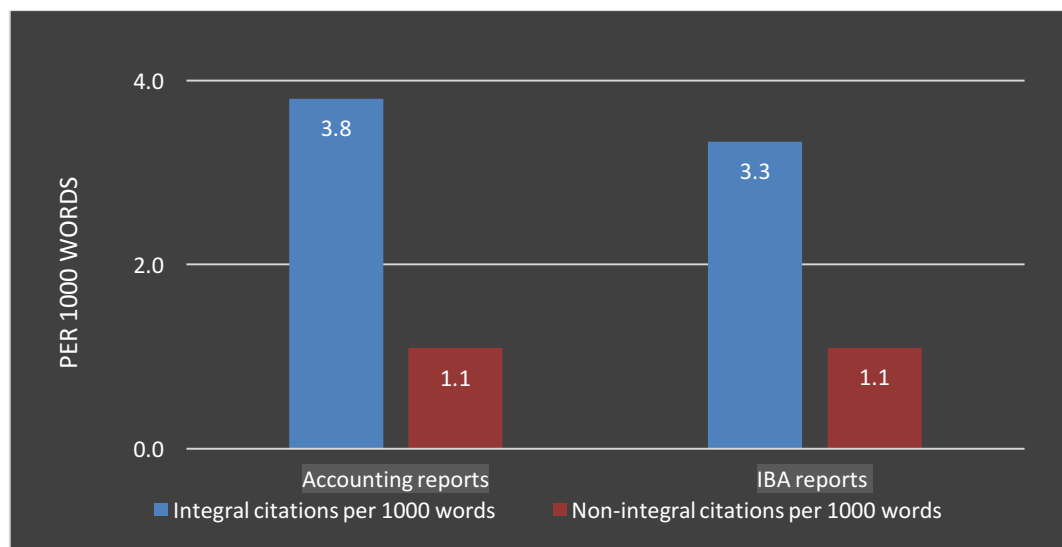
Rhetorical functions of citations	Introduction	LR	Methodology	Results	Conclusion
Attribution	95.1	24.0	92.3	90.9	100
Exemplification	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0
Further reference	0.0	0.0	3.8	0.0	0
Statement of use	0.0	0.0	3.8	9.1	0
Application	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0
Evaluation	0.0	0.9	0.0	0.0	0
Establishment of links between sources	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0
Comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources	0.0	0.4	0.0	0.0	0
Knowledge display summary	4.9	66.7	0.0	0.0	0
Textual structuring	0.0	7.6	0.0	0.0	0

**Table 27: Rhetorical functions of citations by chapter in IB Research reports (%)**

Rhetorical functions of citations	Introduction	LR	Methodology	Results	Conclusion
Attribution	97.2	45.5	100	50	100
Exemplification	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Further reference	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Statement of use	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Application	0.0	0.0	0	0.0	0
Evaluation	0.0	1.7	0	0.0	0
Establishment of links between sources	2.8	1.3	0	6.3	0
Comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources	0.0	0.0	0	43.8	0
Executive summary	0.0	46.5	0	0.0	0
Textual structuring	0.0	5.0	0	0.0	0

In terms of integral and non-integral citations, Figure 19 reveals that the percentage of non-integral citations is the same in both Accounting and IB

reports. They both used integral citations with the same frequency of 1.1 per 1000 words. For the integral citations, the same conclusion can be drawn. Both disciplines used integral citations more than non-integral citations.



**Figure 19: Frequency of types of citations in Accounting and IB research reports per 1000 words**

\*frequency of integral citations per 1000 words = total number of integral citations ÷ total number of words reports \* 1000

### 5.3 Summary of the chapter

In conclusion, the result of the textual analysis showed that both IB and Accounting reports demonstrated more integral citations in all chapters. The findings also showed that all analysed texts have demonstrated a great tendency to use citations for knowledge display by using citations mostly for attribution and knowledge display summary. There are few attempts to use sources for more complex rhetorical functions that require critical engagement with sources which can be performed by linking sources together or comparing the students' writing to other sources. These few attempts were made by students with higher levels of English from both disciplines, and therefore they should not be considered a general practice for the discipline (see section 7.4). For example, citations for further reference, establishment of links and evaluation, and comparison of one's own findings with other sources were used by students whose GPAs were 3 or above and their grades

in the last EAP course they took was B and above, refer to Table 8. They were also described by their teachers as high achievers with advanced English proficiency.

Moreover, there is no clear consistency in the density and locations of these functions between the two sets of reports or between participants from each discipline. The limitation of complex rhetorical citations and the inconsistency of their appearance suggests that individual academic differences could play an important part in these quantitative findings (see section 7.4).

The next chapter presents the qualitative findings which aimed to uncover the contextual factors that can explain the quantitative findings of this chapter, and which attempts to explain why IB and Accounting final-year students use sources in the way they do.

## Chapter 6: Qualitative Findings

### 6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the main themes that are identified in the analysis of the interview transcripts and documents (see section 4.8.2). The findings are presented in detail, with quotations from the study participants to provide an answer for Research Question 4: What possible contextual factors might influence the students' use of rhetorical functions of citations in both disciplines?

The presentation of the findings is structured to present the five main themes identified in Chapter 4: the college, the department, the task, the teachers, and the previous student cohort. Each theme represents a contextual layer that has an influence on students' source-use practice. These findings are presented and discussed in detail and supported with direct quotes from the participants' responses or from the analysed documents. It should be noted that the order of presentation of the findings does not indicate any form of importance or degree of impact as the findings overlap and conflict in the role they play in shaping students' source-use practice.

Table 28 below presents the symbols used throughout this chapter to indicate the source of the citations.

**Table 28: Symbols in the quotations**

Symbols	Source
IB1, IB2, ..., IB11	IB final-year students
ACCT1, ACCT2, ..., ACCT11	Accounting final-year students
TIB1, TIB2, ..., TIB6	IB teachers
TACCT1, TACCT2, ..., TACCT5	Accounting teachers

## **6.2 The college**

The influence of the college on students' source-use practice was highlighted by the interviewees when asked about the challenges and the support they receive when they use sources for their academic writing. Both students and teachers claimed that the college does little to support students' academic writing in general, and their source-use specifically. I categorized the participants' responses in regards to the impact of the college on students' source-use practice into two sub-categories: lack of logistics that support source-use and the role of the college in perceiving sources as tools to avoid plagiarism instead of being tools to produce new knowledge. I also analysed any mention of documents by the participants while sharing their views about the institution. The documents analysed for the purpose of this theme are the *CAS Plagiarism Policy*, Department of Scientific Research Regulatory Bylaws and List of Actions and the Library Catalogue. These sub-categories are discussed in depth in the following sections.

### **6.2.1 Perception of source-use practice as a tool to avoid plagiarism**

By investigating the college documents that indicate the practice of source-use, which can influence students' practice of source-use, the Plagiarism Policy is the only document that is provided by the college to all academic departments to explain and enforce the college's requirements of using sources in academic writing. The Plagiarism Policy is an official document all CAS college administrations distribute to new students during their orientation week and to all academic departments at the beginning of every academic term (see Appendix F). This policy discusses plagiarism in academic writing as a disgraceful academic act that is punishable with failure and expulsion from the college if the same student is caught in the act twice. The policy states that "CAS regard plagiarism as a serious violation that has adverse effects on the image of the institutions as well as the prospects of those who commit it" (MOHE, 2018a, p. 2). To enforce this policy, the college purchased Safeassign software within the Blackboard package, which can detect

unreferenced content in students' assignments to help teachers prove plagiarism offenses in students' work. All students must submit their written work for all courses in Safeassign for the teachers to obtain a plagiarism report for each student's assignments. The Policy is distributed by the Scientific Research Department to all HoDs of academic departments at the beginning of every academic year. The content of the policy provides examples of what acts of plagiarism include, the legislative stance of the policy, and the principles guiding compliance with the regulations of the policy. The management of the policy is the responsibility of the college: "CAS is required to manage its policy documentation within a legislative framework. The legislation directing this policy is the academic regulations embedded in CAS Bylaw" (ibid., p. 3).

This policy is one document given to all academic departments without any mention of disciplinary considerations for the differences between academic programmes. According to the Head of the Scientific Research department (SRD), the policy reflects the college's keenness to preserve the intellectual property of their owners and to train students to always respect the academic resources they use for their assignments by properly citing them. He also stated:

*It is through this policy that we ensure that students understand the consequences of plagiarism to avoid it in their writing. At this stage we just want them to realize the legal actions that can be taken against anyone who commits plagiarism in writing or even in ideas. It is very important for students to understand this.*

The above statement demonstrates the focus of the college, which is to spread awareness of plagiarism and its consequences among its students and staff. The college's role in supporting students' source-use practice is perceived as mainly monitoring and penalizing acts of plagiarism, as explained by the College Dean:

*Our role is to enforce the plagiarism policy in all academic departments and to form the committee responsible for investigating the plagiarism incidence and take the decision in compliance with the policy. We also ask the IT department, responsible for Blackboard, to report any course that doesn't require students to submit their assignments in Safeassign to follow*

*up the matter. We are requiring all assignments to be submitted through Safeassign to detect any plagiarized texts.*

The Plagiarism Policy was mentioned by most participants when asked about the influence of the college's practices in their source-use. Some examples of their responses are as follows:

*The college's main requirement is that students must use sources to avoid plagiarism. The plagiarism policy that the college produced is one policy that all academic departments must follow. (TIB1)*

*The college focuses on the legal consequences of misusing sources in assignment writing. According to the plagiarism policy, students will fail the course if the plagiarism percentage is more than 30%, I am not sure, but I think 30% and more. (TIB9)*

*The most important thing when we write our assignment is to mention the source or this will be considered plagiarism [...]. When we first started our college life, the college explained about the serious consequences of plagiarism. So, I made sure to write the sources I copy from or I will fail the course. (ACCT9)*

These interview extracts show the participants' understandings of the college's perception of source-use practice as a legitimate practice, to avoid the serious offense of plagiarism. These responses reflect the attention given by the college to the enactment of the plagiarism policy, as explained above. However, the teachers' responses show inconsistency in their understanding of the conditions in which a text is considered plagiarized text. For example, some teachers discussed the percentages allowed for using unoriginal content, although the official plagiarism policy does not offer a percentage of plagiarism that entails punishment. Different teachers from within the same discipline and from both disciplines provided varying percentages. Some mentioned 20%, others were unsure whether it is 30% or 40%. When I asked why they were not sure about the percentage, one teacher explained:

*As teachers, we can't judge from the percentage in the report if the student should fail. We need to read the report carefully because Safeassign doesn't distinguish between referenced and unreferenced content. (TIB1).*

The policy does not explain how to evaluate the Safeassign report. This leaves teachers with differing and patchy ideas of what plagiarism is and the tool to detect it. One teacher justified his objection to including a percentage in the plagiarism policy by saying:



*if we agree on a percentage of acceptable plagiarism, we are saying to students it is OK to plagiarize to this extent but not more than that. The idea of plagiarism should not be acceptable at any percentage. (TIB2)*

Overall, it is up to the teacher to decide the extent to which a text should be reported for plagiarism. There is no guideline in the Department of Business to elaborate on the Plagiarism Policy or Safeassign report. When the Head of the Department of Business was asked about providing a guideline for interpreting a Safeassign report, he explained:

*It would be very difficult to make a guideline for interpreting the Safeassign report because the report requires careful reading. Sometimes the teachers can tell if the work is written by the students or not because they know their students' level and style of writing and because of the nature of this project [research reports] which requires consistent discussion with the supervisors for each chapter.*

Moreover, the interviews highlighted the kind of support the college is providing in order to regulate the guiding principles to support students' source-use practice beyond encouraging students to legitimize their textual-borrowing practice through proper referencing style (APA). The respondents' answers demonstrate that the college's main focus is warning students about acts of plagiarism. They think little attention is given to supporting students' source-use skills in their academic writing.

*The college encourages us to write good research, they also organize a conference every year for the best research proposal, but in this college they don't train us on how to use sources. I think they care more about the ideas not the way we write. (ACCT10)*

*No, the college only offers training related to the content of our courses like how to be entrepreneur in the business market. I never attended or heard about workshops in assignment writing or source-use practice. (IB5)*

*No, I didn't hear about workshops or trainings about source-use. I think the college sees this as the academic department responsibility, especially the English department. It (source-use practice) should be part of their language learning process, (TACCT3)*

The students' responses indicate that they think the college is not providing training or support to enhance their source-use practice, although there is interest from the college in encouraging students to be academic researchers.

This is reflected in the organization of the Graduation Project Conference, in which graduate students from all academic departments are encouraged to present their final-year research report in front of academic staff and representatives of the private sector. This conference is an opportunity the college offers to students as “a part of preparing them for academic research as an important attribute of a CAS graduate” (MoHE, 2019). However, in the evaluation criteria of the conference presentation, there is more focus on the idea of the project, the data collection methods, and the applicability of the findings to the industry. The only criterion that mentions sources in the assessment rubric is “Reference List using APA style”. Moreover, the main audience of the conference is job sector representatives, to familiarize the private sector with the types of learning tasks CAS students are engaged with and to introduce the students to their target employers. There is less engagement from the academic discourse communities except for the academic staff, which denies students opportunities to interact with members of their disciplinary communities to constructively engage in discussion about recent developments in the norms and discursive practices of the discipline. This is because, as stated by the College Dean, “it is the academic department’s task to teach students what they need including academic writing, [...] and it is the college administration’s task to introduce the job market to our students and to familiarize the business sector with our students’ skills”.

### **6.2.2 Lack of logistics to support source-use practice**

The majority of participants perceived source-use practice as a research skill that is required in all academically written assessments. Thus, when they discussed what the college does to support this skill, they referenced other research skills such as locating the relevant sources, training on how to use and understand external sources for academic writing purposes, and managing course overload. This understanding of source-use practice and the influence of the college are exemplified in the following interview extracts:

*Source-use practice as a research skill has not been supported by the college as we expected. The college doesn't provide enough*

*sources for students to use in their writing. Most of the time students can't find sources related to their topic so they end up copying from previous assignments or from websites that should not be used for academic writing. I think this affected the quality of students' writing and we sometimes consider this when we mark their assignments. (TIB4)*

*Students have to use external articles or books when they write their assignments but most of what they need is not provided by the college, the college is only offering two research databases and most students don't know about them. Only teachers use them and they don't offer much. I think the college needs to provide more sources in the library, train students in how to locate the sources they need, and provide workshops on how to use sources. (TACCT2)*

*I think the college should provide more resources (books and access to articles). In this course, it was very difficult for me to find the articles I need. I went to ask the librarian to help, and they told me they were busy and I should ask my teachers to help me to find sources in English as their English is limited. (ACCT10)*

*We need more help from the college to ask our teachers to help us find the sources and understand them so we can use them in writing our assignments. We don't get help and the (IB) teachers say they don't have time to help us and they ask us to ask the college administration to offer help by providing workshops and more access to articles, but nothing has happened so far. (IB8)*

These excerpts from both teachers and students show that the college has not done much in terms of providing access to academic sources by either offering a wider variety of printed books or access to electronic journals. Participants stated that the lack of access to academic journals and books related to their disciplines has influenced the quality of their source-use in their writing. One student said:

*I think if I found more sources about my topic, I would have a better understanding of my research topic, and therefore my writing would have been of a better quality. (IB3)*

The availability of sources is perceived to have a great influence on students' comprehension of the topics about which they write, and consequently this will influence their ability to synthesise when they write their assignments. A teacher from the Accounting discipline explained:

*Accounting is a new major in this college and the library is not yet supplied with the right books this specialization needs. I think the college needs to investigate our needs for books and relevant*

*databases and try to offer them as soon as possible, or we should stop demanding students use external sources in their writing and just stick to the materials we give them in the class. (TACCT1)*

However, some teachers did not express the same concerns in terms of availability of sources at CAS. One teacher from the IB said that the college provides many reference books and articles but students lack the search skills and sometimes students are not 'bothered' to spend quality time searching for sources:

*I think CAS has a good library and offers a wide variety of academic references for students. The problem, however, is students themselves. Some students do not know how to look for sources. Others do not bother to spend time to look for sources. When we help them do the search, we find many options using the college sources. (TIB2)*

Another teacher said that there are other options for students to obtain the sources they cannot find through CAS. There are other public libraries that are accessible to everyone in higher education. He elaborated:

*CAS, and other providers of higher education, cannot offer all published materials. Sometimes we need to search for alternatives. In Oman, there are other libraries that students can access to find more sources. They just need to be responsible for their education. (TIB5)*

At CAS, students are provided with external sources that they can borrow and use for their academic learning using the College Library. The library in the college and the computer access laboratories are located in the Learning Resource Centre (LRC), which provides students and faculty members with academic resources and access to the internet to help students with their academic learning. The library offers 25,743 printed books, 1,367 audio and visual tapes and DVDs, and access to the EBSCO database for students. Among the printed books, 7,532 are textbooks that students borrow for some of their courses offered by the Department of Business. The head of LRC explained that most of the books they have for the Accounting discipline are textbooks for the students to borrow during their study terms. He added that they provide most of the books that the department asks for within the budget allocated for each department. Every academic department can place an order for the sources they need at the beginning of each academic year.

Sometimes the LRC have to postpone the purchase of some sources owing to the limited budget, unavailability of some items, or the late submission of the list of the department's academic source needs. The head of LRC confirmed that they do not have enough materials to cover the students' academic needs in the new programmes, some of which are not yet stable as some were renamed or dropped due to the lack of employment opportunities in the job market. In addition, while investigating the participants' claims about the lack of sources, I found that the LRC offers more access to databases for academic staff than for students. When I asked the head of LRC about this, he responded that students are not expected to produce publishable academic research like academic staff are, and the academic departments have not asked them to provide more access to electronic journals for students:

*We are always happy to request more database access if the academic departments ask us, but they never have. At the beginning of every academic year we officially ask the academic departments to provide us with their needs, but they have never asked us to expand students' research database. How should we know that students need to access more journals? (Head of Learning Resource Centre)*

Moreover, in regard to the claim that the college does not offer workshops to support students' source-use practice, the Head of the Learning Resource Centre explained that the college offers training to newly admitted students on techniques for locating sources in the library and finding sources through electronic journals. However, these workshops are offered to students during their foundation programme, in which they are not required to produce a research report.

It seems there is no clear communication between the academic departments and the LRC to provide students with more means to access different varieties of sources for their academic writing or more training to improve students' searching skills. The participants of this research are undergraduate students who are supposed to produce a complete research report as their graduation project, using at least fifteen reliable academic sources, and their need to allocate relevant sources to their topic is not sufficiently met. The suggested

lack of access to external sources and the lack of communication between the LRC and the Business Department have influenced students' source-use practice in terms of finding the relevant sources to understand their researched topic which, consequently, has affected their synthesis practice to be limited to a description of sources, as shown in Chapter 5.

Another logistical problem highlighted by students was the insufficient computing facilities the LRC provides for learning purposes. The next extract shows how one of the students feels about the insufficient number of computers in proportion to the number of students in the college:

*It is very difficult to find sources relevant to my topic on the internet. I go to the LRC every day in my free time to use the computers to do my search, but most of the time the computer labs are full. Most students use the computers labs in the college to do their internet search and their assignment writing, but the number of good working computers is not enough. We need more computer labs to meet the requirements of the assignments. For example, in this course (graduation research report), we have to use a minimum of fifteen sources; however, there is no time to do the search for these sources as most of the time is lost looking for a computer. (ACCT2)*

There were 1266 students enrolled at CAS in 2017, and the LRC has six computer labs with a total of 25 computers in every lab. There is clearly a need for more computing facilities, especially when the wireless connection on the college campus is slow and inefficient. Most of the students I interviewed stayed at the college for the entire day as their loaded schedule starts early in the day and ends in the evening. The lack of computing facilities added to the stress of searching for relevant articles that met the academic standards of the assessment guidelines:

*We can't find time to sit and search for articles. We have very heavy timetables this semester and I use the free time I have to look for a computer to search for the sources I need for my writing but I can rarely find one. If I bring my own laptop, the wireless connection in the college is too slow and inconvenient. (IB4)*

The Head of LRC also acknowledged the need for better wireless connection and more computers to meet the increase in student admission. He stated:

*The college admits more students every year and they (stakeholders) don't expand the college facilities to meet the increase in the new intake. Of course we need more computers and*

*we need to offer good quality of wireless connection for students to be able to work online using their own laptops. The college is not really equipped to have this big number of students and the number increases every year. (Head of Learning Resource Centre)*

Aside from the lack of availability of academic sources and computer labs, the college does not seem to have established a sufficient chain of coordination between the college administration and the academic departments, nor between the academic departments themselves, to support students' learning needs, including their source-use practice. Teachers' responses from both disciplines highlighted this by stating that the college relies on the academic departments to support students' academic needs such as source-use skills, especially in the investigated course, in which students have to produce a mini-dissertation of 10,000 words. Conversely, the academic department of Business assumes that students should learn source-use practice as part of their English language learning. This was expressed by TACCT3, who said "I think the college sees this as the academic department responsibility, especially the English department. It (source-use practice) should be part of their language learning process". Another teacher highlighted this lack of coordination in the extract below:

*I think the college relies on us (academic departments) to teach students everything related to their academic learning. They take care of creating liaison between the students and the job markets and the job markets care more about employment skills than academic skills. (TIB4)*

Most teachers seem to recognize the need for collaboration between the academic departments, especially the department of English, in which source-use practice is assumed to be covered, to identify students' academic needs and learning objectives. Some of the responses that the teachers gave with respect to the need for more collaboration between academic departments are: "there must be communication between us (Department of Business) and the English department to discuss students' writing needs" (TIB 2); "we need to discuss with other departments so we can know what students know and what they don't" (TIB 4); and "there is no communication between us (other departments), we don't know what students know, we just presume they know" (ACCT 9).

According to the College Dean, the role of the college in students' academic learning and in the operation of the academic departments is restricted by the overarching cross-CAS system. He described the role of the college thus:

*We can't initiate changes related to students' learning because the six colleges are supposed to run the same style of organization and operation regardless of the different academic programmes each college is offering. As a dean, I can raise the academic concerns of the academic departments when we meet with other deans and ministry officials; however, these concerns are usually related to administrative matters. Issues related to students' learning, courses, and teaching are for the Programme Directors to deal with and solve. The communication is between the HoDs and the programme directors.*

Enacting any change in any of the academic departments to meet the students' learning needs seems to be a threat to the consistency of practice and centrality of the organization system that governs CAS. The role the college plays in scaffolding students' learning processes is directed by the hierarchical system and the division of labour which control the decision making of curriculum design, development and assessment. Instead, the responsibility for acting on issues related to academic learning lies with the relevant programme director. The college uses an honour system and trusts that academic departments are doing their job to meet students' learning needs. The college then reports the departments to the programme directors for any required change or decision making, as stated by the College Dean:

*I trust the Department of Business to report students' learning issues to the programme director of Business and together they do the necessary to solve any teaching problems or curriculum issues. The HoD of Business and any HoDs can always come to me if there is any issue with the programme director to try to liaise with their communication or request visits from the programme director.*

Recognizing the lack of logistics that hinders the development of source-use practice among students requires a high level of involvement from the college with the students' learning practices and the discourse community of the academic departments. However, separating the role of the college as an executive branch of administrative management from the learning process, which involves the design, development and evaluation of the academic programmes and the learning practices of students, expands the distance



between the institution and the potential role it can play in scaffolding the learning process for students. The College Dean stated:

*We are keen to support our students with their academic writing but we are not always aware of their specific needs and we always try to provide all the support we can when the academic departments ask us for help. For example, we fought to have a recording studio at this college because we offer the programme of Communication and our students need to experience everything related to the media to practice what they study. However, for academic writing, it is the academic departments' job to teach and coordinate with each other to help students develop their writing and we are happy to support them with the facilities they need considering our restricted budget.*

Therefore, the college administration is willing to provide more logistical support, such as requesting more computing facilities and expanding the options for research databases for students, which can provide more access to external sources which can in turn enrich the knowledge of the disciplinary topics that students have to investigate. The academic departments, however, need to systematically communicate with the college about their needs and involve them more in the decisions related to students' learning.

### **6.2.3 Summary**

The college, as a contextual layer, plays a vital role in encouraging students to acknowledge the sources they use in their writing to avoid being accused of plagiarism, instead of acknowledging the importance of sources in the production of new meanings. Most participants think the college gives little attention to enhancing students' source-use practice by providing training or monitoring of students' learning needs, and this little support, as described by participants, has a great effect on shaping students' current knowledge and practice of source-use in their writing. The college's effort seems to focus more on supporting students in their future employment opportunities, even when organizing opportunities for students to present their research reports to a large audience. As understood from the responses of the College Dean and the Head of Business Department, the college's role is perceived to be more administrative and less involved in initiating changes in students' learning process or in the decision-making process related to curriculum

design and assessment. This limited role, according to participants, can exacerbate the lack of involvement in the students' learning needs. Some of these needs, which are not always communicated to the college, are logistical, such as the lack of access to journal articles and reference books, as expressed by most teachers and students. These lacks, as perceived by participants, affect students' source-use practice in terms of understanding the topics about which they write. A summary of this influence is reflected in the excerpt below:

*I think if I find more articles about my topic, my writing will be clearer and I can use more evidence related to my topic. I think I will write a better project and my literature review will make more sense.*  
(ACCT7)

However, some teachers think that the difficulty of finding relevant sources is due to students' lack of search skills rather than lack of logistical support, as a huge amount of sources are freely available on the internet. Overall, there is a consensus among the participants that the college should play a more effective role in offering more opportunities to students to academically engage with their disciplinary community, which could then familiarize students with their disciplinary academic writing practices, including source-use. In addition, the participants urge the college to create systematic coordination between academic departments to support students' academic learning.

### **6.3 The department**

The Department of Business, in which the degrees of Accounting and IB are offered, is another contextual layer that has been identified by the participants to have an influence on students' source-use practice. In the following section, this layer is explored through examining the assessment procedures followed by the department in assessing source-use in academic writing and in the steps taken by the department to enculturate students into their disciplinary practice of source-use.

### **6.3.1 Assessment of source-use practice**

The documents provided by the Department of Business for the investigated course (Graduation Project) in this study seems to reflect the college's monitoring task of punishing the misuse of sources in students' writing. For example, the documents given by the department for the graduation research reports including the course outlines, assessment rubric and course handouts, include limited mention of the expectations or the rhetorical purposes of sources in academic writing. They all stress encouraging students to clearly reference the ideas they use in their report using APA referencing style to avoid plagiarism instead of composing new meanings and knowledge. The APA reference guide provided to the students mainly explains how to write the full citations for sources in the reference list and in-text citations. It presents some clear examples of how to cite references from different sources, such as books, journal articles, newspapers, etc.

Another document given by the department to staff and students on this course is a more detailed version of the plagiarism policy provided by the college. The plagiarism document provides some examples of what is considered to be plagiarism and some tips on how to avoid it. There is no mention in this document about managing prior literature in the composition of new texts (intertextuality) or the expectations of the departments in terms of the disciplinary practice of source-use. The focus was mainly regarding the importance of referencing every idea, concept, definition, and summary taken from other sources. As for the assessment rubric, one rubric for both disciplines is used to evaluate the investigated texts (research reports). In this rubric, there is only one criterion that allocates marks for one aspect of source-use practice, and that is referencing (3 marks out of the total of 70 marks). Another criterion in the report-marking rubric that is important to highlight here is that the literature review chapter is where most sources are expected to be used. Eight marks are allocated for this chapter and they are divided into the two following sub-criteria (MoHE, 2018b):

<b>Literature Review</b>	<b>8</b>
<b>Review of literature summary</b>	<b>6</b>
<b>Contributions of the study</b>	<b>2</b>

These two sub-criteria do not provide a clear set of considerations for how previous literature should be presented or how other texts are expected to be used in writing literature reviews. However, they can indicate certain expectations to both teachers and students. For example, “Review of literature summary” can indicate providing a summary of the reviewed sources instead of providing a critical understanding of the source and displaying a thorough link between previous literature and the new text or between one study and others in the field. This can explain the findings of textual analysis that show most students wrote their literature review as separate paragraphs; each paragraph presents an abstract summary of a previous study in isolation from other studies. This can also explain why teachers gave full marks for the literature review chapter criterion to the students who wrote their literature review in that way.

The above overview of the department’s practice of perceiving and assessing students’ source-use practice is also validated by the participants’ responses. According to some participants, this over-monitoring of students’ writing to detect plagiarism by both the college and the department has discouraged students from using their own words to disagree with the source, evaluating the source, or arguing with the findings presented in the sources they have used. The focus on plagiarism made students anxious and unconfident about their linguistic ability to present sources beyond attribution. They fear being accused of plagiarism and therefore failing the course, which can stigmatize their reputation, delay their graduation and harm their GPA.

The participants also mentioned that the Department of Business emphasizes the citing of sources to avoid plagiarism when completing their written assignments. As expressed by some participants, there is little support from the department in terms of improving students’ source-use practice beyond avoiding plagiarism. Below are some examples of what the participants said about the influence of the department:

*The Department of Business's main concern is to make sure that students don't plagiarize their assignments and to punish those who commit plagiarism. (TIB3)*

*The instructions we get from the head of department for every course is about the course content materials, plagiarism awareness and consequences, and assessment guidelines. There is no requirement or instruction for specific source-use practice. (TACCT1)*

*I'm not sure about the department, we just know the course materials our teachers give us and there is nothing we get from them about the different functions of sources and what an accounting major requires from us. The only document we get about the use of sources is the plagiarism policy and a Safeassign document that explains how to submit our assignment to Safeassign. (ACCT 8)*

The participants' responses seemed to represent the role of their department by using textual sources in academic writing as "plagiarism detection software" (ACCT2):

*Sometimes I want to write about the source as I understand it but I am afraid of plagiarism. This is our last semester and I don't want to fail it. I have to be very careful that we don't write much about the other studies. (IB 6)*

*I think all students try to quote directly from the source and then cite the source so we're not accused of plagiarism [...] it doesn't matter if you use many quotes as long as we indicate the source. (ACCT 9)*

*I believe students avoid using their own words to talk about the source because of their low level of language and plagiarism [...], they are always cautious about plagiarism so they prefer to give a summary about every source separately to avoid linking the different sources or arguing against the other sources' claims to find their research gap. (TACCT 2)*

In addition, the students seemed to understand that their use of sources is to avoid plagiarism, as indicated in the assessment rubrics of the Graduation Project course for both Accounting and IB disciplines. After cross-checking the marking scheme, I found no indication of a different role for sources than what both students and teachers expressed below. As shown in the following quotes, there are no expectations or marks allocated for students' ability to synthesize from prior knowledge or even for their ability to critically engage with sources:

*We are not required to do this (using sources for different rhetorical functions), we just need to provide a summary of the source. (IB10)*

*At this point, we just want them to reference their sources and understand how the literature review is written, we need them to learn the structure of academic research in case they want to do postgraduate studies. (TIB2)*

*We only give marks when their references are complete and following the APA style. No marks are given to the way students are presenting their sources in their writing. This is not only in this course, but in all their assignments. (TACCT4)*

Both students and teachers seemed to be guided by the assessment guidelines of the courses they take. The responses show that students' writing is guided by the target expectations made for the task and teachers' input is also informed by the clear objectives set for the task. Given that source-use practice as knowledge-making practice is not among the expectations and objectives of the investigated course, it is not surprising that students link plagiarism to the mechanical use of citations instead of making new meanings from their sources.

### **6.3.2 Lack of enculturation into disciplinary discourse**

Another observation made about the influence of the Department of Business on students' source-use practice in writing their research reports is the claim of lack of enculturation into relevant disciplinary discursive practices. When participants from both disciplines were asked about the differences in the writing features of their reports, their answers were as follows:

*There is no specific difference in their writing. I can only say that academic writing here in Accounting is more of a practical aspect and more of application. Basically academic writing in Accounting here is based upon the secondary data. It is based upon the financial information we gather from the company so it is more about application of the concepts, it is more about getting information from the data. (TACCT3)*

*See, writing is common whether it belongs to different disciplines or subjects but the terminologies are different between Accounting and IB or other specialisations. **Researcher: So only the terminology or vocabulary is different?** Yeah. However, in this course, chapters 1 and 2 may be similar but chapters 3 onward are expected to be different. In IB, we use some kind of primary information and we take an ongoing issue as a research problem, but in Accounting they take it from a micro level, from companies*

*and their financial performance. They analyse the company's performance, something like that, and they use secondary data.* (TIB4)

*My Accounting writing is all about calculation and we deal with numbers. We don't do as much writing as in the other courses. Our assignments in Accounting were about finding the right method to do the calculation and the teachers only want to make sure that our calculation is right.* (ACCT11)

*Our writing is not different, we just write about different topics. IB students write about theories and concepts in Business and we analyse the actual performance of financial reports.* (ACCT9)

The participants' responses seem to reflect their understanding of writing in the discipline. With the exception of the differences in the assignments' content and the type of data each discipline is expected to use, participants seemed to perceive no difference between their writing practices. One teacher said: "students write their assignments as per the assessment requirements" (TIB3). The following quote from the Head of the Department of Business can provide more insight into the department's policy and vision in terms of the type of disciplinary knowledge students are expected to have:

*Our students (all students specialising in Business majors, including IB and Accounting) are expected to master the content of their major. For example, Accounting students are supposed to be able to perform all calculation formulae related to analysing financial statements of any institution, Tourism majors are supposed to obtain enough knowledge of the hotel business, hospitality and service skills. We are preparing our students for the job market and our courses aim to make them employable with the right skills and knowledge. What you are investigating now (source-use in academic writing) is supposed to be taught by the English department, who are responsible for teaching students how to write and how to speak.*

Furthermore, there is one set of graduate attributes that all students whose academic programmes are offered by the Department of International Business (IB, Tourism Management, Hospitality Management and Accounting), are expected to acquire through their studies at CAS. These graduate attributes present no recognition of unique skills or attributes for the varying disciplines. This might be a possible justification for why the department materials do not seem to require features of disciplinary writing in students' academic work beyond the content. For example, analysing the

official documents related to the investigated course, including the course outline, teaching materials, plagiarism policy, the course assessment guidelines and marking rubrics, shows that all given documents are the same for both Accounting and IB students. There is no representation of any kind of disciplinary writing norms or discursive practices in the documents provided for either discipline. Students from the two disciplines take the same course, except for the course code (IB4404 and ACCT4404), and are provided with the same materials. There is nothing in the course materials that indicate any requirements for the students to appropriate and represent their awareness of their disciplinary writing features and discursive practices related to the appropriation of others' words and ideas when composing their own texts. Moreover, students' disciplinary textual borrowing practices are not in any way reflected in the assessment of the research report. Students from both disciplines are assessed in the same way when it comes to their disciplinary source-use practice, as explained in the previous section.

Overall, the above discussion suggests that the department's role in enculturating students into their disciplinary discourse is limited to teaching the content of the subjects and assessing students on their knowledge of this content. As for academic writing and its disciplinary features, students seem to perceive it as a common practice that shares the same discursive practices. However, the investigation of documents and students' responses were within the scope of the investigated course. The support of writing in the discipline that students may have received from subject teachers in other courses is not included in the investigation of this study.

### **6.3.3 Challenges related to the structure of the course**

The department's role in influencing students' source-use practice was also raised by participants when they were asked about the challenges they face when using sources. Most students were in agreement that the structure of the degree programme and the course structure of the investigated texts put more pressure on students and seem to hinder improvement of their academic writing. According to some participants, time and course overload are two challenges that affect students' source-use practice. Some of the students'



responses are: “there is no time to understand everything we read, we are doing 16 hours every semester” (IB7); “I am doing five courses this semester including this project, I cannot find time to use my sources differently. I copy what I want and cite the source at the end” (IB3); “we need to do this project in three months with another five courses. In this course, I have to collect information from banks and companies. I need to travel to different places and go to banks to interview the managers but there is no help from the college and there is no time to focus on my project writing” (ACCT1); and “I think we should take fewer courses this semester to be able to write our research report in the best way we can. We could have spent more time understanding the articles we read so we can write about them using our own words” (ACCT5).

There are different assessments for varying purposes that students must complete every semester and which, according to students, can cause them more challenges when they deal with sources for writing their own texts. Even for this course, in which students have to produce a mini dissertation as their graduation project, most students take four other courses beside this one. This equates, as expressed by students, to more stress and demands on students to deal with the different requirements and challenges for every course, which can negatively influence students’ focus on writing their graduation projects with a good level of intertextuality practice. All participants, including teachers, seemed to agree that the heavy workload can affect students’ ability to use sources properly. One teacher expressed his understanding of the heavy load students have to manage when they complete their research reports: “It is unfortunate; students don’t have enough time to focus on their project” (TIB3).

The course structure (ACT/IB4404) was also highlighted by the participants in terms of the teaching support provided. Students are supposed to meet with their supervisors individually once per week for 40 minutes, with no formal interactions with the other students who are supervised by the same supervisor. “There are no classes for this course, we have meetings with our supervisors to discuss our topic or discuss the feedback for the drafts we submit to them” (IB7); “there is no teaching on this course. We only supervise students’ work and we give the course materials” (course guidelines,

assessment rubrics, APA reference guideline and notes for each chapter) (TACCT3). Thus students do not seem to be given the opportunity to learn from each other in this course.

The job description of the supervisors, which is listed in the course outline, is general, and there are no defining tasks for the kind of support given to students' academic writing and source-use practice. However, "[t]he research supervisor should give complete guidance to the students during the first week about selection of company, title, methodology, analysis, sources of data etc." (MoHE, 2018b). This is one of the supervisor' tasks that mentions providing support with sources of data. When teachers were asked about defining their role in this task, their responses focused on the academic quality of the sources and their relevance to the research topic: "we need to ensure that students choose academic articles" (TACCT3); "I help my students find good articles when they find it difficult to find academic journals" (TIB1); "I check all the articles that my students use to make sure they are relevant to their topic" (TIB5). The focus of the other supervision tasks is supporting students' data collection and analysis. Less attention seemed to be given to the quality of students' academic writing and their textual borrowing practices, as reflected in these responses:

*The teachers in Accounting only comment on our calculation and analysis. They don't comment on the sources we use. We only have to use the website they ask us to get the information from and write it at the end of our assignments. In this course we have to use 15 sources and we have to do in-text citations but they don't tell us how to do it. They give us many comments to improve our calculation and sometimes help us obtain the financial statements of the companies we aim to analyse. (ACCT6)*

*No, our Accounting teachers don't comment on this [source-use practice] because they say it is not their job. They only make sure that we have a reference list at the end of the assignment and they give us 3 marks for it. They also allow us to write with many grammar mistakes. They don't comment on these mistakes and this has negatively affected our writing skill. (ACCT10)*

*My supervisor helps us, sometimes, to find the articles we need to read. They don't teach us how to use them in our writing. They don't focus on this, they only check the reference list. (IB3)*

*Our Accounting teachers do not demand that we use sources like the English department do. They allow us to copy from the source as long as we write the reference in the reference list. I also think our Accounting teachers can't help us with this because they don't know. English teachers know more about academic writing and how to teach it. (ACCT11)*

The students' responses are consistent with the role of the supervisors, whose main task, as expressed by most of them, is to ensure the practicality of the research topic and the commitment to utilizing the appropriate methods of data collection and analysis. Students seem to understand that their supervisors are concerned about the uniqueness of their research topic and their analytical approach more than they are with the quality of their writing and their source-use practice. One of the teachers pointed at a sentence in the Course Outline form (p. 11) when asked about why teachers spend less time supporting students to manage their sources to improve their writing: "Students are expected to utilize skills and knowledge obtained from all courses that they have previously completed". Source-use practice, like any other writing skill, is presumed to be prior knowledge acquired by students in their previous courses. The course objectives, as described by the course coordinator, are designed based on the assumption that students have acquired the necessary skills throughout their college study to conduct a complete research project in which they have to perform all academic research stages. Another teacher added to this point by claiming that "by reaching this stage of their study, students must know how to find, use, and write from sources" (TIB2). Thus it seems that students are expected to have learned all required research and writing skills implicitly throughout their study, but many of them are not even aware of this.

Finally, the structure of this course does not seem to offer the pedagogical support students need to compose their research reports. Source-use practice is among the important writing skills students need, as well as more scaffolding and guidance regarding how to improve the quality of their writing through better use of sources. However, the course requirements seem to be built on the assumption that students have obtained the necessary skills and knowledge in their previous courses to produce such a significant written text,

which requires students to engage with prior literature at every stage of their Graduation Research Report.

#### **6.3.4 Summary**

The influence of the Department of Business on both Accounting and IB students' source-use practice was recognized by the participants. The practice of the department in terms of supporting students' source-use seems to be limited in teaching and assessment feedback. There is little evidence of disciplinary features of academic writing in the teaching or assessment materials. Lastly, the perception of source-use practice of the Department of Business seems to be centred around avoiding plagiarism and providing brief summaries of the sources students use in their texts. The limited role of the department in scaffolding students' source-use practice seems to be justified by placing the responsibility mainly on the English Department. However, decisions regarding what students acquired in their previous courses do not seem to be based on any communication or consultation with other academic departments, who anyway are neither responsible nor equipped to prepare students from other disciplines for their disciplinary discursive practices.

#### **6.4 The Task**

In educational contexts, the task has been identified as a contextual layer that participates in shaping academic writing, and it is no different with this study. The participants named the lack of awareness of the assessment task as a major reason for the challenges they have faced in writing their texts. The task required from students is to produce a successful graduation project that consists of a written report (70%) and an oral presentation (30%). The final written report of this task is classified as a research report genre, as per Nesi and Gardner's (2007) classification system of genre types (see section 2.3.5). The value of this type of genre to the participants and the unfamiliarity of the genre type are the main points identified by the participants, and which have greatly affected students' comprehension and performance of the task. These points are now discussed.

### 6.4.1 Unfamiliar genre

Writing a research report in the disciplines of Accounting and IB is a new type of genre that is only required from students in the Department of Business during the final semester of their study. The analysis of the assessment materials of all courses from both disciplines showed that all assessed tasks my participants did previously were written essay assignments, written tests and oral presentations. They have never experienced writing a complete research report in any of the previous assessments, as stated in the participants' responses:

*In this course, unfortunately most of our students deal with the graduation project as any other Accounting assignment which is not the case [...] I think it is because they are doing such a big research for the first time. (TACCT4)*

*We have never done such a project by ourselves. This project is very challenging and every one of us has her/his own idea of how it should be done. (ACCT9)*

*I am not sure if I can pass this course, it is my first time to write this type of assignment by myself. (IB2)*

Participants' responses show a lack of familiarity of research report genre in both disciplines, which can affect their performance. Although the genre is new for students, the course design offers no teaching classes, and students are expected to perform this genre successfully as a part of their graduation requirements. When I asked the teachers about the reasons for not preparing students for the new genre, such as offering formal classes or training sessions about the structure and the requirements of each part of the text, one teacher responded: "students by now should know how to write this project because they practised it in another course" (TIB5). Another teacher replied "we don't teach students in this course, we just see them once a week to discuss their topic and methodology [...] students have done a similar project before and they know how to do it" (TACCT2). In the course outline form (p. 2), it is stated that there is a course prerequisite for enrolling in the Graduation Project course. This prerequisite course is 'Introduction to Research Methods' (RMCR3101).

All Business and Accounting teachers seem to rely on the RMCR3101 course to prepare students for the research report genre. This course is a college requirement for all students, and it is provided by the General Requirement Department to support students to “demonstrate a competent understanding of research methods applicable to researching, within a wide range of disciplines” (MoHE, 2017b, p. 1). The primary outcomes of this prerequisite course are:

1. Explain the nature and the purpose of research
2. Choose a research strategy and methods
3. Design a research instrument
4. Write and present a research report
5. Develop an appreciation of the research
6. Search, evaluate and use different types of information from a variety of sources
7. Identify the core ethical principles relevant to research (MOHE, 2017b, p.1)

The course content is the same for all students at the college, although each group of students from the same discipline cannot be enrolled in the course in a section allocated for another discipline. The course offers different sections for each discipline: Section 1 for Accounting, Section 2 for IB, etc. The teaching materials and assessment for all sections are the same, with the only difference being that in each section, students choose a research topic that is relevant to their major of study. For example, students from Accounting must choose to write about accounting topics, and the same applies for the other disciplines. In other words, the course does not offer any pedagogical input of disciplinary discursive practices related to writing a research report. All students are expected to produce the same structure, moves, textual-borrowing practices and style of references in writing their report. However, the teaching materials show a thorough presentation of the report genre design, structure, and methods of research. Use of sources in writing academic research is only presented in Lecture 4 of the course as a central requirement for writing the literature review chapter. The objectives are to

introduce the types of sources accepted in academic research, the methods for the literature search, strategies for citation (direct quotations and indirect quotations), and creation of the APA reference list. There is nothing in the course teaching materials that introduces the rhetorical functions of citations or the types of citations (integral and non-integral citations). The teaching of sources as a technical skill in this course reflects Objective 6 of this course, which emphasizes sources: “Search, evaluate and use different types of information from a variety of sources”. This objective only aims at the technicality of source-use practice, such as searching for the source, evaluating the academic value of the source, and using different sources for information such as books and journal articles, which is exactly what students are taught in this course. The limited input about source-use practice when writing their own texts seems to have prevented students from using their sources more effectively in writing their academic texts, as the following students’ responses show:

*In this course (Introduction to Research) we learned the structure of the research and how to collect our data. Regarding our source-use practice, we learnt how to find good-quality articles and how to cite them using APA style. The stuff we learned there are very general and similar to what we learnt from the English Department [...]. No we haven't learnt about the functions of sources, I just came to know most of them from you. (ACCT10)*

*There was no mention about the different functions of sources and where to use them in this course. If we studied them before doing this project, I think it would be easier for us to write our LR chapter. (IB3)*

Moreover, although it is not surprising to observe the association of use of sources with writing the literature review chapter in the course teaching materials, it is worrying to see some students in both disciplines use citations only in this chapter, as it can show lack of understanding of the use of citations across all structural moves of the research report genre.

According to the Head of the Business Department, the programme degree plan allows Accounting and IB students to take this course at any time after they finish their Foundation Programme and before they do their Graduation Project course. All of the students participating in this study had done this

course in the third or fourth semester of their degree, and the data collection for this study took place in students' eighth and final semester. This long time between doing the Introduction to Research course and the Graduation Project course seems to have affected students' ability to practice or even recall all the skills they need for writing a research report, as articulated by the following participants:

*If I had taken this course last semester, writing my project this semester would be easier. We have learned many new things in the Introduction to Research course but I cannot remember everything we learned and I did not keep the handouts we were given. If I had known about the graduation project before, I would have kept all handouts provided by the Introduction to Research course as they would have been helpful to remind me of the tips the teacher advised us to follow. (ACCT5)*

*This course was good but I wish I had taken it last semester so I could remember the content. We took this course a long time ago and it was group work. It focuses on the research methodology and how to design our data collection method. But I can't remember everything I learnt from this course. Even the things we learnt was very general and the teacher didn't explain the content in detail. (IB11)*

*Honestly I didn't learn a lot from that course. It was group work and we copied everything from the internet. We didn't learn how to write the literature review and the teachers in Business didn't teach us how to do it. They gave us a format to follow. It is really difficult to write the literature review. This course (Introduction to research) was focusing on how to collect data and what are the different ways of collecting data. (IB9)*

However, the teachers do not seem to acknowledge these issues raised by the students about the value of an Introduction to Research course for preparing students for the Graduation Project course. The teachers' responses show their confidence that students have acquired all the research skills they need from the prerequisite course:

*Everything students need to know about writing research is provided by the Introduction to Research course. The purpose of the course is to prepare students for their graduation project. (TACCT3)*

*Students are expected to take this course (Graduation Project) with full understanding of the components of a research report, and the special writing skills needed for writing academic research that they acquired from Introduction to Research course. (TIB1)*



When I asked all the teacher participants if they were familiar with the content of the 'Introduction to Research' course, they unanimously said 'No'. Although this course is a prerequisite to the Graduation Project course, which is expected to teach students everything they need to know about writing a research report, there seems, again, to be no communication between the Department of Business and the Department of General Requirements about how students are prepared for writing a research report. Aside from this, there also seems to be some reliance on the 'Introduction to Research' course in teaching students about writing in an academic research genre, although the course offers the same content and requires the same discursive practices in writing in this type of genre from all students from all disciplines.

Finally, the research report produced by students in the Introduction to Research course is a body of work done by a group with a total of 3,500 words. A group of four students write a complete research report and it should be "typed, double-spaced, in APA documentation style. The paper must include citations and references in APA format, an abstract, and an annotated bibliography" (RMCR3101, p. 6). One student described the nature of this group-work as follows:

*Each student in the group writes a chapter. We first meet together and divide the task. I wrote the analysis chapter because I'm good with calculation. I didn't have to deal with any sources in writing my analysis chapter. The sources were only used in writing the literature review chapter and the student who writes it is the best in the group in English. (ACCT8)*

This means that writing a complete research report is a first experience for all students doing the Graduation Project course. Moreover, the subject teachers do not seem to be aware of the assessment type and requirements of the RMCR3101 course, even though they build their guidance input and assessment related to the research report on the basis that students have been provided with all the skills and knowledge needed to produce a complete report. The course design for the Graduation Project in the Department of Business is made with no consideration to offer students formal teaching of the structure, stages and rhetorical moves of the research report genre, since

the teaching and scaffolding part, as assumed by teachers, has already been offered in RMCR 3101.

#### **6.4.2 Relevance of the task to undergraduates**

Writing a research report is perceived as a challenging task that most students do not have to do at this stage of their study, as expressed by one teacher: “I don’t think students should be asked to do such a project. This kind of research is for future higher studies. Our students need more training on their accounting skills” (TACCT1). Another teacher also affirmed his colleague’s concern by saying “our students are going to work in the job market, they will be asked to conduct analysis and write performance reports, not conduct academic research” (TIB3). Some students seem to share the same doubts about the purpose and the value of such a task. Some of their responses reflect a level of frustration towards the nature of the task: “what my supervisor cares for is my calculation process and my findings, I can’t understand why we have to write the other chapters” (Introduction, LR, Conclusion) (ACCT3); “I like the course but I think the project should be different [...], the college should arrange practical training for us to go and work for companies to familiarize ourselves with the market instead of writing a report” (IB11). However, not all participants rejected the value of the assessment task; some teachers asserted that the value of conducting a research report is to reflect one of the graduate attributes of the programme, which states that “Graduates will possess skills required for recognizing problem situations, gathering, analysing and interpreting data as well as reaching reliable findings and recommendations” (MoHE, 2018b, p. 3). According to these teachers, the task of writing a research report is the best representation of the acquisition of research skills as one attribute of CAS’s graduates. However, this value does not seem to be given to the task as a whole. The analysis and findings chapters, as understood by the participants, seem to be more relevant to students at this level since they reflect their skills and knowledge of what they have learned in their subject courses, such as calculation, application of formulas, and investigation of business reports. The conflicting opinions of the participants about the value of the task for undergraduates seem to directly

influence students' source-use performance throughout the five chapters of the report, as put by the participants:

*I focus more on my analysis chapter because that is what my supervisor will focus on, the other chapters are just a secondary task. (ACCT 7)*

*The teacher doesn't care about my correct grammar or the way I use my references, I think they only read the analysis and finding chapters and the reference list at the end of the report. (IB 4)*

*All chapters are important but most of the marks go to the analysis process and findings, so we read them [Analysis and Findings chapters] carefully. (TIB2)*

*I spent less time and effort on my sources, I spent most of the time collecting the data and analysing them as they are more important. (ACCT1)*

These views suggest that the underestimated worth and value of the research report task's requirements have influenced the quality of students' writing and source-use practice. Students allocated most of their time to what they and their teachers think is more important and worthy for their study and future job (analysis and findings), and spent less time and effort on negotiating their ideas and situating them in their field of knowledge. For students, this task is an opportunity to show their knowledge of the topic and to apply the right formula for the analysis instead of perceiving it as a task of making new knowledge. Consequently, their sources were summarized for descriptive and acknowledgement purposes, as stated by more than one participant. For example, one student described his way of showing his knowledge of the topic when writing this task:

*I just need to show that I know about the topic I am writing about so I write a brief summary about each source in the literature review chapter. (IB6)*

Moreover, the feedback given by teachers also seems to reflect the teachers' perception of what is important and relevant to students. The teachers' written feedback was mainly apparent in the analysis and findings chapters, where sources were rarely used. There were no comments given to students in their first drafts related to their source-use practice except for the accuracy of APA style when generating the reference list. More detail about the teachers' role is discussed in the next contextual layer.

### 6.4.3 Summary

The interview data suggest that students lack preparation for the task of writing a research report. The teaching and assessment of this genre also seem to be unfamiliar to teachers, who expressed their concerns about the value of this written assessment and their inconsistent views about the type of support they should offer to students. Most teachers perceive this task as an overload of work that students do not need to perform in their future career, and this clearly had some effect on the type of support and feedback they gave to students. For example, there was more pedagogical input from the teachers on the data analysis and findings chapters as these chapters are perceived, by teachers, to be more important, as they reflect students' skills and knowledge of their subject content. Besides, there seems to be limited effort made by the Department of Business to develop teachers' literacy and assessment skills needed to teach and evaluate research report genres in their discipline. Teachers being unprepared to teach and assess such genre in the context of this study, has consequently affected students' source-use practice as an essential feature of this genre, as described in the following interview excerpt:

*No specific instructions were given to us when presenting our sources in this project [Graduation Project]. We were just asked to present them in a separate section (LR) and we just used them as we did in our previous assignments. (IB10)*

## 6.5 The teachers

The significance of teachers in shaping students' writing practices, including their source-use practice, is one of the contextual layers identified in this study. The perceptions of teachers regarding their role in scaffolding students' academic writing in the discipline have significantly affected students' source-use practice in terms of the teaching support and feedback they get from their disciplinary teachers. The teachers as a contextual layer is explained in two main points: the attitude of teachers towards source-use practice, and their academic backgrounds and teaching role.

### 6.5.1 Teachers' attitudes towards source-use practice in the discipline

Writing in the discipline is one important item that was investigated in the interviews with both teachers and students (see Appendix A). Understanding how the participants perceive writing in the discipline is an important indication of their insights and practices towards disciplinary discursive practices such as source-use.

Both Accounting and IB teachers' responses to my questions about their perceptions of academic writing in the discipline were limited to the content of the assignments and terminology specific to the discipline:

*Not too much difference [between academic writing in the two disciplines]. Basic concepts in academic writing are the same, only more calculations and analyses are required in Accounting and there are certain terms which you have to know in each major. So it is a matter of vocabulary related to each discipline. (TIB2)*

*Yes, it is different in Accounting. We have a separate dictionary for accounting concepts which are different from other disciplines. Students learn the language when they are reading papers from the Accounting discipline. I would say the process is similar because the majority of the things are similar between IB and Accounting, no differences in the requirements and process. (TACCT5)*

Almost all the teachers' responses maintain the same understanding of disciplinary academic writing. For them, academic writing in the discipline is only different in the content and terminology specific to each discipline. Source-use practice as an important feature of academic writing does not seem to be considered a disciplinary discursive practice, as the next quotation illustrates:

*Dealing with sources in writing is the same in any assignment. However, there are different schools for referencing styles. In this college we are required to follow the APA type of referencing in all students' work. (TIB1)*

There was no mention, from any teacher, about any disciplinary conventions required from students when using and presenting sources in their academic writing in general and in writing a research report in particular. These responses were not surprising considering that the course materials and the

assessment rubric are the same for both disciplines. This could explain the findings of the textual analysis that there are no general patterns in students' source-use practice in either the Accounting or IB disciplines, as the attempts to use citations for more complex rhetorical functions were individual attempts and cannot be described as a disciplinary practice in the context of this study. The perception of teachers that academic writing in the discipline is limited to content and specific vocabulary is reflected in the teachers' feedback on the first draft of students' research reports. This feedback was given regarding the content of the writing and the accuracy of the analysis. The only feedback related to the use of sources is restricted to approving sources' academic quality and relevance, avoiding plagiarism and citing using APA style. Some of the comments given to students related to the use of sources are shown in Table 29.

**Table 29: Examples of teachers' comments about the use of sources in the first draft of the reports**

Comments	Chapters	Report
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- This citation is not scientific</li> <li>- The study is not related to your topic</li> <li>- Where is the full reference of this study, the year of the study?</li> </ul>	LR	ACCT3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The last name not the first name (for in-text citation)</li> <li>- You can't use Wikipedia</li> <li>- Write about two more studies in this chapter</li> </ul>	LR	IB2
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Write the reference</li> <li>- Write the findings of this study [the student wrote the objectives and the context of the summarized source]</li> </ul>	LR	IB8
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Good comparison [for one student who used sources in the results chapter]</li> <li>- You need to write where you get the definitions from</li> </ul>	Results Introduction	ACCT4
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Is this your writing? Write the reference</li> <li>- I don't think you wrote this section, be careful</li> <li>- The order of the references is not right, check the handout of references</li> </ul>	LR Reference list	ACCT9

There was no feedback given to any of the analysed texts on the way sources are presented in the research reports, the functions of sources, or the types of citations used to present the sources in the texts. In addition, there were no comments given to the linguistic aspects of the presentation of sources, such

as the reporting verbs and syntactic position of the citation. Although writing the literature review requires negotiation of meaning through the use of previous literature, the teachers' feedback does not seem to reflect the importance of source-use in composing the research report. Some of the reasons that teachers gave for the little attention given to students' source-use practice when marking are as follows:

*As long as they write a good summary for 15 sources in their literature review, I will give the mark for the literature review chapter. What matters to me is their methodology and analysis chapter, they show that students understand and can apply what they learned in Accounting courses. (TACCT5)*

*This is not important now [source-use practice], it can be important for higher studies [Masters or PhD]. Now we just need to make sure that students are ready for the job market. That is why we spend more time reading students' analysis and findings. In the job market students' methodical skills are what matters. We don't aim for students to be writers, we want them to be able to do calculation and solve formulas. (TIB2)*

*We need students to know that using articles and books is important to write a project for their further studies in the future and they will learn it with time [source-use practice]. But for our students at this level, I feel that practical skills are more important. (TIB4)*

The teachers' responses show that source-use practice is not perceived to be a relevant skill at the undergraduate level. Avoiding plagiarism and learning how to cite sources using APA style are perceived as sufficient skills to demonstrate the ability to use published sources in academic writing at this level. Teachers in this study seemed to care more about advancing students' skills in the job market, and for them, source-use practice is not one of these required skills. Although some teachers asserted that they orally discuss the presentation of sources in the literature review with students during supervision meetings, there are no written records of these comments or the feedback the teachers provide. Students' responses have also corroborated the finding that teachers' feedback is limited to the technicality of citations and focuses on the accuracy of citations' format and style. This seems to have influenced students' prioritising of their attention to the different discursive practices and genre moves required in the production of the research report. The practice of rhetorical functions of citations does not seem to be among

the prioritised practices on which students spent more time and effort, or even sought pedagogical support from their teachers, as understood from these responses:

*My teachers care more about my analysis and the calculation formula I used, so I put all my effort in the analysis and findings chapters and these don't require using sources. (ACCT11)*

*To pass this course, we need to ensure the accuracy of the analysis and methods. It is not very important to use sources as you say [using sources to synthesize] as long as we write a summary about each source in the LR chapter. (IB3)*

Finally, teachers' attitudes towards source-use practice do not seem to meet the requirements of performing in the research report genre, which seems to affect their teaching and assessment of source-use practice in the Graduation Project course.

### **6.5.2 The role of subject teachers in teaching writing in the discipline**

The teacher participants in this study are from different ethnic backgrounds and have different academic qualifications. Table 30 shows more detail about the interviewed teachers concerned with their academic and work experiences. Investigating the teachers' academic and work backgrounds can explain their responses and viewpoints about academic writing practice. Teachers in this study have postgraduate qualifications in the disciplines they are working in at CAS (Accounting and IB). Although these teachers have spent some years in higher education teaching and some of them have published academic articles in their disciplines, their responses do not seem to reflect an understanding of or appreciation for the discursive practices related to writing in the discipline. Moreover, while the teachers are certified in the discipline to which they belong, none of them have obtained an accredited certification for eligibility to teach. The Ministry of Higher Education, which is the executive management branch of CAS, offers a professional development program, Constructive Alignment Pedagogy, to provide the new Masters holders who are not from education backgrounds with basic knowledge of pedagogical theories and practices. The eligible academic



teaching staff for this programme are the Omani staff from the academic programs Communication, IB, Design, Engineering, and Information Technology. The programme aims to provide an introduction to the main concepts in using technology in teaching, micro-teaching lessons, application of learning theories in the classroom, and designing constructive assessment instruments. Foreign teachers are not eligible for this programme even if they do not have official teaching certifications.

**Table 30: Teachers' academic and work experiences**

Participants	Highest academic qualifications	Place of study	Academic teaching in higher education	Previous positions	Academic publications
TACCT1	PhD	L2	1998-2017	Financial consultant (1993-2004)	9 articles
TACCT2	PhD	L2	2004-2017	Accountant (1996-2004)	16 articles
TACCT3	Masters	L2	2015-2017	Corporate trainer in banks (2004-2015)	None
TACCT4	Masters	L2	2006-2017	Financial analyst (2004-2015)	None
TACCT5	Masters	L2	2004-2017	Accountant and manager in sales (2006-2007)	None
TIB1	PhD	L2	2001-2017	None	7 articles
TIB2	PhD	L1	2005-2017	None	None
TIB3	PhD	L2	2005-2017	Hotel management (1996-2004)	4 articles
TIB4	Masters	L1	2003-2017	None	None
TIB5	Masters	L2	2015-2017	Employee in bank (2004-2014)	None

(L2: English as a second language; L1: English as a first language)

Throughout the interviews with the teachers from both disciplines, most responses emphasised their role in preparing students for the job market, and that they perceived academic writing as an essential language skill that students have to develop on their English programme. They maintained that they are not language teachers and it is not their responsibility to teach students how to use sources in their academic writing. For them, this type of teaching requires language teaching qualifications, which they do not have. Some of their responses were:

*Well, I think the English teachers can help students with this [source-use practice]. I am not a language lecturer, even if I want to help students, I am not aware how and there is no time to spend it on correcting their writing. (TIB2)*

*Students learn this skill in their English courses as it is part of their writing learning. (TACCT3)*

*It is not part of our job to teach students how to write. We advise students to ask their English teachers for anything related to writing. (TACCT2)*

Their responses sounded defensive, which could be attributed to the fact that English for all teachers is a second language. Discipline teachers in this study seemed to perceive teaching or supporting students' source-use practice as the role of the English language teachers. For them, source-use practice is a language skill that students obtain while learning the English language. This point is also consolidated by some students' answers when asked about the support they receive from their discipline teachers regarding their source-use practice:

*Everything I have learned about using sources in my writing is from my English teachers. They taught us how to search for the source, how to summarize the source and how to cite it. My accounting teachers are not doing much, they even ask us to go and ask teachers from the English department to check our literature review but some English teachers don't have the time to read our Accounting assignments. (ACCT11)*

*I don't think my Business teachers know about the functions of sources. They have never commented on the way we use sources and they are lenient with us when we copy from sources. In the English courses, we have to paraphrase and summarise from the sources, we can't copy. (IB7)*

Most teachers in this study did not seem to recognize their role in teaching disciplinary conventions related to source-use practice in academic writing, instead viewing source-use practice as part of learning the English language. They feel this does not change when writing in other disciplines, as expressed by one teacher: "there is no special requirement for using sources in Accounting other than what the students learned from their English courses" (TACCT5). By students' own admission, their knowledge and experience of writing from sources was acquired from their English courses, although the

Department of English has not prepared them for writing in the research report genre.

After reviewing the assessment outlines of the English language courses (ENAP1001, ENAP1002, ENAP2001, ENDN2001, ENMC2003, and ENBS 2004), I found no assessment that requires students to use academic sources in the research report genre. All students' written assessments required by the Department of English are the type of academic essays which include persuasion, argumentation, process, and cause and effect. However, Accounting and IB teachers seemed to rely on the English Department to teach and support students' source-use practice in a new type of genre that is required from students in their final year of study, during which they no longer take English courses.

Interestingly, two of the interviewed teachers, Omani teachers who attended the training programme for new teachers, shared their concerns about the lack of pedagogical preparation for writing a research report in terms of the demands and skills it requires. They also acknowledged the need to equip the teachers in the Department of Business with experience and training in the requirements of academic writing, considering that most of them have spent more time in industry than in academia:

*I believe the students need more instruction from our side about doing this project, especially the literature review, but the truth is that most teachers here are from the private sector, so academic writing is not their expertise. (TIB2)*

*The department needs to offer teaching classes to focus on the writing process for the project as students' writing level needs to improve. I know some teachers think it is not their job to teach writing, but since we offer this course we need to do what needs to be done [...] Teachers here [in the Department of Business] also need to educate themselves about how they can help students write better using their own words rather than just copying from sources. (TIB4)*

These two teachers recognized the learning needs of their students to successfully perform the task of writing a research report. One explained:

*We went through the same system of education and we feel that students need more from us and from the department. We need to*

*reform and reshape these course teaching materials and the assessment and support students more with their writing. (TIB2)*

When these two teachers were asked about why they were able to recognize the students' needs whereas the other teachers did not express any need for change or reform to their role, their answers focused on the fact that most teachers in the Department of Business have spent more time in the industry than in their teaching career, with no qualification degree for teaching. The two local teachers emphasized the good teaching and assessment insights provided through the Constructive Alignment Pedagogy programme, which most teachers in the department were denied the opportunity to benefit from. They also added that the more time the teachers had spent in industry may have an influence on their ability to identify and meet the learning needs of their students, which consequently impacted the teachers' attitudes towards supporting students' writing needs, including their textual-borrowing practices. However, the feedback and support for students' research reports provided by all teachers, including those who attended the training programme, were similar in terms of the focus on certain chapters and the limited feedback given on students' textual-borrowing practices.

### **6.5.3 Summary**

Teachers in the Department of Business are not required to have education teaching qualifications, except for the Omani teachers. Most teachers in this study did not have any teaching experience in Oman before they joined CAS. They had also spent time in industry, and their experiences in this sector seemed to have an effect in steering their teaching input and feedback. Although most teachers have published academic papers, which requires a good level of knowledge of writing practice in the discipline, their attitudes towards supporting their students' writing seemed to be limited to topic content. For most of them, as understood from their responses, academic writing at the undergraduate level is a common practice in any discipline and teaching of academic writing should be through the English language courses.

## 6.6 Prior student cohorts

In this study, I see every contextual layer affecting the way students write as diachronic, with a history; the policies enacted in the college have developed over time, as have the practices enacted by the staff, and the practices of the students. Current institutional policies and staff practices have developed over time in response to problems encountered by earlier cohorts of students. Student practices are to a great extent passed on from one cohort to another (Green, 2020). Therefore, I here present prior student cohorts as a contextual layer that plays a role in shaping CAS students' source-use practice.

At the beginning of the Graduation Project course, each supervisor gives his/her students a copy of a previous student's research report that is considered to be a good sample. Students are supposed to follow this sample in terms of the report structure, quality of writing, and presentation of citations. Each teacher then gives his/her current students a sample from one of his/her previous students, which means that different teachers give different samples. There were five samples distributed by the five Accounting teachers and five other samples given by IB teachers. Examining these good samples, as described by the teachers, reveals different standards of expectations for source-use practice. For example, some samples from both disciplines present sources as sub-headings in the literature review; one sample cites the sources as footnotes; another two samples present an abstract summary of each source in the literature review. However, all the samples use APA style when citing the sources and they all use the required number of sources. Moreover, most samples mainly present sources in the literature review chapter, with the exception of two samples from the IB teachers, in which sources also appear in the introduction and analysis chapters. The teachers perceived this sample as good because "the report represents the requirements of the task" (TIB1), "the analysis chapter is very well written and the findings are results of good calculation method" (TACCT4), and "the structure and format of the chapters reflect the assessment criteria" (TACCT1). There was no mention of the use of sources as a consideration for the teachers' choice of sample reports.

Each group of students reflected similar presentation of sources in their texts to the sample provided by their teachers. Using past students' reports as a reference was not the only way students gained information about writing a research report. Students also relied on their past peers who had finished this course and finished their study at the college. The student participants mentioned the role of these peers in shaping their own knowledge about the graduation project. They described their peers' roles as follows:

*My supervisor doesn't give me enough information about where to get the right sources or how to write the literature review and when I go to see him, he is busy most of the time. So, I always talk to my friends who did this project, and they help me a lot. **Researcher: how?** They showed me where I can find sources for my topic and they shared some advice with me related to writing the LR [...] they advised me to focus on the abstract summary of every article and try to make a similar one about each source to save time and be able to use 15 sources as required. (ACCT9)*

*My friends helped me a lot, especially with the LR chapter. They told me how to write it. They showed me how to write a small paragraph about every source and then move to the next. They also told me to focus on the objectives and findings of each study. (IB3)*

Students acknowledged the role of their peers in supporting their understanding and writing the research report since the teachers' role in supporting students' learning needs did not seem to meet the requirements of this genre. Therefore there was no consistent practice of source-use in students' texts, since their source of knowledge was the experiences of peers who were not necessarily from their discipline. Students had to seek the help they could not get from their teachers or department, as expressed by ACCT3:

*I didn't know anything about this report. It is very difficult, especially using 15 sources. I had to ask all my friends who did this course to answer my questions, since we do not have classes for this course.*

Prior students' knowledge and practice of writing a research report participated in shaping the current students' perception and practices of writing in the discipline. Similar to their peers' samples of reports, the investigated texts did not show specific disciplinary source-use practice. Besides, past peers' experience of writing in the discipline has not made a difference to understanding the practice of writing in the discipline among the

current students who relied on their peers' support. This is because the perception and practice of writing in the discipline are passed down through different generations of students without, as expressed by students, sufficient remedial effort from the institution, department or teachers, to change current and new students' practices of writing in the discipline.

The impact of the past experience of prior students who served as a point of reference to the current students seems to be enforced by the lack of support from teachers. According to the student participants, the support they sought from their peers of past cohorts was to compensate for the lack of the pedagogical support they needed to manage the new task. The shared knowledge and experiences that are passed along to different students continue to be unverified and unguided by the course teachers.

## **6.6 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter presented the contextual layers identified through the analysis of the interviews with students, teachers, some official administrators, and the analysis of official documents obtained for the purpose of this study. Five contextual layers surrounding the production of texts (research reports) were identified as having an impact on shaping students' source-use practice. These layers are the college, the department, the task, the teachers, and the past students. The effect of these layers on each other is overlapping and intertwined so each layer is influenced by the other layers. What each layer does in relation to students' source-use practice has a direct impact on the other layers. For example, students' perceptions of the importance of sources in composing their own texts, and their lack of knowledge of source-use practice, are the result of what seems to be limited teaching support from their subject teachers, who appeared to underestimate the value of source-use practice in academic writing at the level of undergraduate study. The teachers' attitudes toward supporting students' writing can be attributed to the lack of support and guidance they receive from their departments, which offer course design, teaching materials, and assessment guidelines. Both teaching materials and assessment frameworks do not seem to require teachers to

enculturate their students into their disciplinary writing practices. They also provide, as described by participants, limited support to familiarize students and teachers with the norms and the disciplinary requirements of writing in the new genre. The department's practices are also a reflection of the institution's policies and practices, which focus more on explaining the consequences of plagiarism and the importance of referencing sources in order to avoid plagiarism. To conclude, the findings of this chapter provide in-depth insights into the possible reasons for the inability of students from both disciplines to synthesize and use citations for more complex rhetorical functions, as shown in Chapter 5.



## Chapter 7: Discussion

### 7.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the key findings of the study, which aim to provide a better understanding of the results in relation to other studies from different contexts. The findings of this research attempted to explain:

1. the use of rhetorical functions of citation of CAS final-year students in the academic disciplines of Accounting and IB in their graduation research report;
2. the variations of frequencies of rhetorical functions of citations between the disciplines of Accounting and IB using a textual analysis of students' research reports;
3. the possible contextual factors that influence CAS students' use of rhetorical functions of citations in both disciplines.

This chapter provides an analytical understanding of what the results of the textual analysis mean in relation to prior literature. It also discusses the impact of the context of writing which has led students to use citations for the purposes highlighted in Chapter 5. Chapter 5 presents the results of the textual analysis of all sections of students' research reports in both disciplines. The findings show that students in both disciplines use citations for knowledge display, and their source-based writing is a summary and description of existing meaning. Chapter 6 identifies the key contextual layers that have an impact on the use of the citations shown in Chapter 5. The findings of both chapters need further exploration and interpretation in terms of their similarities and differences to other writing contexts in order to establish a better understanding of CAS students' source-use practice. This chapter aims to establish this understanding, which attributes more meaning to the findings in relation to what is already known about L2 undergraduates' citation practice.

The chapter is divided into three further sections. 7.2 highlights the general understanding of the results of the textual analysis of students' reports in relation to prior research findings. This section also discusses the extension of this study to Petrić's (2007) typology used in the analysis of students' texts.

The study identifies two more rhetorical functions which, unlike the other functions, have a unique textual structure and were unanimously described by the writers as their way to organize the literature review, which they had not written before. 7.3 elaborates on the impact of the identified contextual layers on CAS students' knowledge and practice of source-use. The analysis of the participants' interviews concluded that the influence of the different layers on students' understanding of the role of citations in academic writing is overlapping and intertwined. All the layers have, together, participated in shaping students' source-use practice. Therefore, there is no separate discussion regarding the impact of each layer. Instead, the different impacts made by these layers are further explained and related to existing literature. Section 7.4 discusses the personal variables identified in the data analysis which also have a fundamental influence on students' citation practice.

## **7.2 Rhetorical functions of citations in Accounting and IB research reports**

Unlike prior research which indicates variance among different disciplines regarding citation rhetorical functions and motivations (Harwood, 2009; Petrić, 2007; Samraj, 2013; Thompson, 2001, 2005), the findings of this study provide no evidence to support different practices of citation use between Accounting and IBA texts. The differences in citation practice among disciplines in previous studies were evident because the investigated texts were either written by publishing writers or postgraduates who had more exposure to, and practice in, writing in the associated discipline. Moreover, the analysed texts in this study were produced in an authentic setting in which the researcher had no control over the conditions in which the texts were composed and had not provided any input to teachers or students to support certain levels of production, as had been the case in some previous studies (Hendricks & Quinn, 2000; Shi & Beckett, 2002; Wette, 2010). These studies demonstrated a level of improvement in the use of citations after providing students and teachers with relevant instruction about citations. However, the texts in this study were composed by undergraduate students who, besides working in an

L2 context, had to endure hindrances caused by the lack of support to enculturate them to the discursive practices of their discipline. More discussion of these contextual hindrances is laid out in the coming sections.

However, the results corroborate the findings of previous studies that novice writers use citations for knowledge display, which results in “descriptive” rather than “analytical” texts (Atiyeh et al., 2014; Davis, 2013; Kafes, 2017; Lee et al., 2018; Petrić, 2007; Thompson, 2005). Citations for attribution and for content display were the most commonly-used rhetorical functions by participants of this study to show their knowledge of the subject content and their understanding of their sources. Neither of these rhetorical functions required a challenge of the authority of the published source or established a clear writer’s stance, as they undoubtedly reflected an acceptance of the source authority and position (Coffin, 2009). Overall, most studies focused on source-use practice have found that using citations mostly for attribution is a common practice among both advanced and novice writers. However, more expert writers are more competent when using citations for non-attribution purposes (Abasi et al., 2006; Lee et al., 2018; Mansourizadeh & Ahmed, 2011; Petrić, 2007; Thompson, 2003, 2005). However, Samraj (2013) found that both Masters theses and published research articles display the same range of rhetorical functions of citations and that students’ writing “did not tend towards descriptiveness” (p. 309). This finding can be explained by the fact that Samraj (2013) chose to analyse successful exemplars of the thesis genre that are produced in an L1 context, whereas other studies examined the same genre including low- and high-rated texts, not just the ones with the best grades (Petrić, 2007; Thompson, 2003).

In my study, the more complex rhetorical functions of citations were very limited and they only appeared in a few texts written by students whose English level is more advanced, as described by their teachers. The impact of English language proficiency in the practice of citation is broadly supported in prior literature. For example, students with a higher level of English language proficiency have better comprehension of their sources, which can make them more confident when composing from sources and less intimidated when

challenging the authority of published writers (Cumming et al., 2016; Keck, 2006; Pecorari, 2003; Thompson, 2003). The few attempts made by individual students in this study to critically engage with sources cannot be assumed to be a representation of students' source-use practice. Their use of more complex functions was due to individual variables, which are elaborated in Section 7.4.

Moreover, there were no noticeable differences in citation practice between the disciplines across the different parts of the reports. Most citations in both sets of reports appeared in the literature review chapter as citations for attribution or knowledge display summary, in most cases. The appearance of citations in the other chapters were limited in both sets of reports. The main rhetorical function which appeared in the other chapters was attribution. Similarly, attribution was the most frequent function to appear in all chapters of high- and low-rated gender studies Masters theses analysed by Petrić (2007). Given the dearth of research in citation practice at undergraduate level, and specifically in the research report genre, the comparison between the research report genre and the Masters thesis genre is valid for the great similarity that both genres share in the overall rhetorical structure (see section 3.3.5). An example from citation conventions of the thesis genre is that some genre studies allocate specific sets of rhetorical moves for each rhetorical section of the thesis. For instance, other studies have referred to the use of intertextual literature in the discussion section as one move, "commenting on results" (Samraj, 2006; Ruiying & Allison, 2003). The main rhetorical function expected for this move is "comparing results with literature". In her analysis of the discussion chapter in Masters theses and research articles, Samraj (2013) identified more rhetorical functions of citations for "commenting on results" that are not only limited to the comparison of results but also include "interpretation of results, explanation of results, evaluation of study, evaluation of field, research recommendations, applied recommendations and background" (p. 304). Although there is no separate chapter for the discussion of results in the texts analysed in this study, the discussion of results is integrated into the results chapter as per the project guidelines. Few citations for the comparison

of results and attribution were identified in the results chapter in IB texts and none were found in the Accounting results chapter, except for attribution. This indicates insufficient knowledge and practice of the rhetorical moves of the task genre.

Furthermore, previous work in source-use practice has always associated understanding rhetorical functions of citations with types of citations; these are the beginning step towards identifying writers' knowledge of citations and their rhetorical practices, as certain functions come in specific types (Petrić, 2007; Thompson, 2003; Thompson & Tribble, 2003). Types of citations are also crucial in characterizing some disciplines. For example, non-integral citations are a feature of writing in Biology, whereas integral citations are found more in published articles in Philosophy (Hyland, 2000). Former research found advanced writers use fewer integral citations which offer more focus on the message and allow the citer to surface his or her authorial voice more (Kefes, 2017; Mansourizadeh & Ahmed, 2011; Petrić, 2007; Thompson, 2003). Consistent with the literature, the textual analysis of this research shows that students in both disciplines used integral citations significantly more than non-integral citations. Integral citation is very common in novice L2 writing because of its 'syntactic simplicity' (Kefes, 2017). Integral citations are perceived as enablers to citers not to engage in "dialogic contraction" to contradict different views and perspectives (Coffin, 2009). Therefore, it is not unexpected to find the non-attribution function less when integral citation is overused. Integral citations make it easy for citers to hide behind the author's name and reputation to avoid sustaining their argument and voicing their stance. Students in this study overused integral citations in their literature review chapters because of their insufficient knowledge and lack of practice dealing with a large number of sources to synthesise, as understood from their responses and their use of citations. This is not a surprising finding, as it has been reiterated by many scholars who have attempted to understand and contextualize students' writing from sources (Howard, 1999; Pecorari, 2003; Pennycook, 1996; Petrić, 2007; Samraj, 2006; Thompson, 2003, 2005). Interestingly, students in both disciplines used non-integral citations slightly

more in the introduction chapters. This accords with Samraj's (2006) analysis of Master's thesis introductions, where she found that non-integral citation is used significantly more often in Biology and Linguistics theses. Samraj (2006) explained that citations found in the introduction chapters were meant to offer generalizations based on multiple sources, which requires more use of non-integral citations since "writers are not likely to place multiple authors in subject position [...] and will more likely place multiple authors in non-integral constructions" (p. 63). However, Jalilifar (2012) found that MA students used integral citations significantly more than non-integral citation (699/435, respectively). Although the research article writers also used more integral citations, the difference between integral and non-integral citations in research articles introductions was not significant, 366/356 respectively. Jalilifar explained

*[t]his difference emerges from the distinct communicative purposes that MA students and RA writers have, since students have a great tendency to establish a strong support for their claims within the text by emphasizing the researcher rather the research whereas the latter prefer to draw on information, concepts and authors equally (p. 36)*

In the current study, non-integral citations were not used to report generalized results from former studies, but rather to cite definitions of terminology and key concepts used throughout the report. These definitions and concepts were offered at the end of the introduction and were written in separate sentences that were unconnected and isolated from each other. Including definitions and important concepts is required and clearly stated in the report guidelines and assessment rubric for the course. Therefore students followed that requirement with a subtitle in the introduction called "important definitions". It is fair to conclude that the use of non-integral citations by participants in this study was not to indicate the message prominence of the cited source, nor to "appear dialogically contractive". It was their strategy to avoid composing a coherent section that presents definitions and concepts related to their study because they simply do not know, as one student stated: "I don't know how to put them in one paragraph, it is easier this way and the teachers are fine with it" (IBA4).

In summary, the quantitative findings of the textual analysis are not surprising. They indicate that students are not equipped with the knowledge or practice to write from sources in their discipline. Students' performance of citations as tools to describe and summarize what has already been stated in prior literature is expected owing to the contextual limitations discussed in Section 7.3.

### **7.2.1 Extending Petrić's (2007) typology of rhetorical functions of citations**

When using Petrić's (2007) typology, there were instances in which one citation carried more than one function or in which the function of the citation could not be identified. In the current study, the citations were not very complicated to identify considering the linguistic context within which they were housed. Therefore, there were no instances in which one citation was allocated more than one function or instances of ambiguity in identifying the function of the citation. However, the textual analysis of students' research reports resulted in identifying two more rhetorical functions of citation: textual structuring and knowledge display summary. Petrić (2007, p. 246) stated that "most citations are, by definition, attributions", unless there is an explicit indication of an additional rhetorical function. As explained in Chapter 5, there was an explicit structural marker for both of these new functions, and they also reflect the purposes that students gave when asked about their real intention for using citations that present these two functions (see Section 5.1.3). When citations were used as sub-headings in the literature review chapter of the report, they were intended to break the chapter into different sections, and each section provides a summary of the study shown in the sub-heading. Citations for the acknowledgment of authorship for content display were also identified in the literature review chapter (see Section 5.1.3). These citations appeared in one paragraph to provide a summary of one source. Each study is summarized in a separate paragraph, and no connection (comparison, contrast, or similarity) is made with other studies. The citations for both functions appeared mainly in the literature review chapter, in which students were supposed to demonstrate their understanding of the sources they had

read and their contribution, based on the gaps they had identified from reviewing prior research.

The two functions appeared slightly more often in the Accounting reports. This increase was explained by the writers who said “we deal with calculation more in our writing” (ACCT10), and “IBA students are used to writing from sources more than us, we do calculation sheets more than writing” (ACCT3). CAS Accounting students and their teachers maintained that Accounting students are engaged less with writing from sources and more with statistical knowledge and mathematical principles, and the texts they produce present more tables, charts and graphs. This description is consistent with the features of the Accounting discipline described in previous literature (Siddiqui, 2015; Uba, 2017) (see section 2.3). In general, the Accounting reports also showed less complex rhetorical functions of citations compared to the IB reports. However, I do not recognize these differences between the two disciplines as a general practice, as the more complex functions were mainly identified in three reports (see section 5.2.3). This was, again, not a general observation across all IB reports. The three report writers were, as described by their teachers, academically high achievers and their English was more advanced than their peers. These small variations are due to participants’ variables, which are discussed in section 7.4.

Overall the two functions have not been identified in previous typologies as most functions of citation typologies were formed and developed by analysing expert or postgraduate writers who are more aware of and experienced with the citation practice of the genre and discipline. I assume that use of these functions could be specific to L2 undergraduates who lack the knowledge and skills necessary to use citations in the research report genre. Unlike expert writers, who use intertextuality to synthesise and make new meanings, students in this study utilized citations to survive a major assessment in which they produced a new genre about which they had poor knowledge. CAS students’ reports are not, therefore, “constructed of a mosaic of quotations” to make new knowledge (see section 3.2.3), but rather to describe previous literature. Although previous studies concluded that L2 novice writers lack the



knowledge and practice of using citations for more analytical writing, CAS students demonstrated a severe lack of understanding of the role of citations and genre conventions in composing texts. Hence, these two new functions were a result of lack of knowledge and lack of support in familiarizing students with the role of sources beyond their mechanical use. During the interviews, students explained that using citations as sub-headings and summaries of studies in the literature review chapter was their only way of coping with a task they were unfamiliar with. They also expressed their fear and worry about taking the risk of using citations differently, as this is what their peers from previous cohorts did to survive the task. The level of anxiety about writing a research report, especially the literature review chapter, was very high among CAS students and they did not seem to find the right guidance from teachers or their peers to overcome their anxiety, as understood from their responses. Freedman (1993) stated that “the less anxiety, the greater the learning” (p. 238).

Thus these functions are not likely to be found in the works of expert writers, as their engagement and exposure to the discursive practices of writing in their disciplines provide them with more confidence to engage with sources critically and analytically, as per the conventions of the genre and discipline. In the case of CAS students, their source of anxiety about writing from sources was not addressed owing to many contextual and personal factors which are discussed in the next sections. Lastly, the newly identified functions became an accepted practice by the subject teachers, as stated by the teacher participants, to compensate for their lack of support for students’ writing and to adapt to the unrealistic assumptions made about undergraduate students’ inability and lack of knowledge, as described by some teachers, to comply with the requirements of composing a research report.

### **7.3 The influence of the context of writing on students’ source-use practice**

*We should make it clear that the knowledge-telling model does not imply that young people have no goals or concerns when they write. It implies only that their executive system lacks the means of*

*bringing these goals and concerns actively into the composing process and applying strategies to them.* (Scardamalia & Bereiter, 1986, p.150)

Chapter 5 presents the contextual layers which had a significant impact on CAS students' source use practice: the college, the department, the teachers, the task, and the peers from past cohorts. Each layer was presented in a separate section in which the practices and attitudes related to citation in the academic writing of each layer were detailed with the participants' excerpts and quotations from the relevant documents. This section discusses the impact of the different contextual layers on students' understanding and practice of citations.

In prior research, some of these layers were identified as fundamental participants in the production of texts (Fairclough, 2002; Gee, 2014; Paltridge, 2010; Samraj, 2002; Swale, 1998). What is unique in the findings of this study is the presentation of the influence of these layers as overlapping and intertwined. Unlike Samraj's (2002) taxonomy, which presented the relation between thesis layers (except for peers) in a hierarchical order (see section 3.3.1), this study perceives the role of these layers as integrated and inseparable. The impact of these layers on students' citation practice is shaped by the collective practices of the layers. Therefore, the discussion of these layers is not a representation of the order of the most influential layer to the least on the way CAS-students perceive and use citations.

### **7.3.1 Anxiety about using citations for more complex rhetorical functions**

The themes developed from the interviews with teachers and students demonstrated the perceived value of source-use as a means to avoid plagiarism to pass written assessments. The role of source-use as a means to construct new meanings and produce knowledge did not seem to be valued by students, nor was it supported or encouraged by discipline teachers or the college. Unlike other studies which found that L2 students have serious issues with the technicality of citation format and style appropriation, both in-text and in the reference list (Abasi et al., 2006; Ellery, 2008; Flowerdew & Li, 2007;

Pecorari, 2003, 2006, 2008), the textual analysis of this study showed that most students have appropriately cited all their sources within the text and in the reference list using APA style, as required by the college and the Department of Business. During the interviews, students expressed their understanding of the consequences associated with not citing the words they use from other sources. Students stated: “we can fail the course if we don’t use appropriate citation style”; “I have to use APA style to cite all the sources we use in our writing”. The consequences were made very clear in the plagiarism policy provided by the college to all academic departments. The policy presents plagiarism as an illegal act which is a violation of academic integrity and breaks the college’s governing laws.

Similarly to Sutherland-Smith’s (2010) analysis of 18 different plagiarism management policies from 18 universities, the legal discourse is the basis of the writing and management of the CAS plagiarism policy. The CAS plagiarism policy also presents the act of plagiarism as an offensive misappropriation of knowledge. Similar to Sutherland-Smith’s (2010) findings, the language used to write the policy is parallel to the terminology used in criminal law, such as “detection”, “punishment”, “rectify”, “serious violation”, “penalties”, and “legislative compliance”. The harsh criminal language used in the policy causes students a high level of anxiety and has directly affected their textual-borrowing practices. Students in this study stated that they are intimidated to use their own words to critically engage with the sources as the investigated task requires. One of the students said “I just want to get the job done without being accused of plagiarism”. Students shared their serious concerns about the consequences of violating the plagiarism policy, which limited their confidence when writing from sources. They believe they are not yet qualified to present their authorial voice nor to use sources for purposes other than attribution and summary. “Who am I to disagree with other authors? I just want to survive this task and graduate” (IBA3), “As long as I summarize the article and write the citation I will be fine” (IBA11).

The anxiety caused by the plagiarism policy’s threatening legal tone and its negative influence on students’ academic writing has been discussed by many

scholars (Ashworth et al., 1979; Flowerdew & Li, 2007; Pecorari & Petrić, 2014; Sutherland-Smith, 2010). The researchers all agree on the limitations these policies create regarding students' source-use. These limitations can be clearly observed with the text writers in this study. Although they used in-text citations and reference lists with accurate format and consistent style, the rhetorical functions of their citations were limited to attribution and their occurrences were mainly limited to the literature review chapter, in which they had to reference at least 15 previous studies. Another limitation that can be understood from students' interviews was their misconception of plagiarism. They believe that as long as they attribute all the sources they use and make a few lexical changes to copied excerpts, they will survive any plagiarism act. According to participants, they tend to use the abstracts or introductions of their sources to write their assignments, which reproduce a summary of what they read instead of building a flow of thoughts to establish their argument. These types of citers are called "risk takers", one of Davis's (2014) descriptors of competence level in source-use. Risk takers are citers who copy from their sources but acknowledge them while their own authorial voice is absent. This citation practice is also described as "near copy", which reflects a lack of substantial paraphrase of the cited source owing to insufficient linguistic competence (Keck, 2006). This stage of copying from sources with few changes in lexis and syntax is known as "patchwriting", a concept that is heavily discussed in prior research on L2 novice writing (Abasi & Akbari, 2006; Howard, 1999; Pecorari 2003, 2008; Pecorari & Petrić 2014) (see section 3.4.2.1).

However, within the context of the current study, this stage is not recognized as a "transitional stage that helps students to develop as writers both in terms of raising their rhetorical awareness and in terms of their writing practices" (Pecorari & Petrić, 2014, p. 277), see Section 3.5. Although the student participants in this study are final-year students, their perceptions and practice of citations have remained the same since their EAP courses, as most of their knowledge of citation was obtained from their EAP teachers. CAS students' writing is still a reproduction of what others have said, instead of being a

practice that reflects “a *conceptual* understanding of knowledge construction and conventions in the dominant academic community” (Gu & Brooks, 2008, p. 338). CAS EAP courses focused more on teaching the generic features of citations than on introducing the complex role of citations in making new knowledge (see section 2.2.2). This is a common observation of Thompson and Tribble (2001), who conducted a review of the most-used EAP textbooks and reached the same conclusion. The call of EAP scholars for more pedagogical support of the patchwriting phase to develop students’ awareness of the critical role of citation in the construction of knowledge does not seem to be met by CAS’s policies, nor by the academic departments. Rather, there was always a threatening tone of containment and punishment of plagiarism which made students unwilling to make any change in their citing behaviour, fearing the consequences of plagiarism. Polio and Shi (2012) best summarised how knowledge of citation should be offered to students, stating that “[r]ather than writing under the fear of being accused of plagiarism, students need to have a safe environment to practice academic writing and citation skills for knowledge construction” (p. 99). A safe learning environment should be more engaging and interactive. Wenger (1998) adds that learning takes place when providing

*intensive ways of engaging students in meaningful practices, of providing access to resources that enhance their participation, of opening their horizons so they can put themselves on learning trajectories they can identify with, and of involving them in actions, discussions, and reflections that make a difference to the communities that they value. (p. 10)*

Moreover, students’ anxiety was not only caused by their teachers and college acting as “guardians of academic values and standards” (Flowerdew & Li, 2007, p. 171), but also by the lack of logistical support to facilitate students’ writing from sources. Although most assessment tasks in the academic departments require writing from sources, the selection and availability of sources is limited to CAS students (see section 6.2.2.1). The struggle students face to find appropriate sources for their writing tasks has influenced their understanding of the topic about which they write. Plakans and Gebiril (2012) found that the process of selecting appropriate sources has a significant

impact on students' writing practices. They added that finding the relevant sources can give students more confidence about the writing topic and can facilitate the integration of sources into their texts. Even for electronic sources, CAS students are only offered one electronic database to access a limited number of articles, which makes it harder for students to dedicate more time to their writing. Even the normal search for articles, when access to many databases is offered, takes a large amount of time and effort. In the case of CAS students, this time devoted to searching for articles can be significantly longer, and therefore less time is spent on the writing process. Some students described their search for sources as "tedious", "struggle", and a "big worry". Most of them spent more than a month trying to find relevant sources for a project they had to compose in a three-month course. Davis (2013) stated that "the electronic age influences the composing process of writing, so more time may be dedicated to researching the internet than formulating the text; this may result in less time of formatting citations" (p. 133). The limited amount of sources the students had access to made them settle for sources which were not relevant to their topic, which were very difficult to read, or which were sometimes unreliable to use, such as personal blogs or unofficial forum discussions. This added to students' anxiety about the task and the way they should deal with their sources. They were challenged by the sources they could not understand or the sources they could not directly relate to their topic. They were very worried about acquiring the number of sources required for their writing which they could not find. Therefore some of them ultimately used unreliable sources with limited knowledge about how to present them in their writing and how to connect them to information they retrieved from other sources. Moreover, the lack of sources could have been a factor in denying students opportunities to become enculturated into their disciplinary conventions, given that reading articles is an important way of modelling the discipline's writing norms (Freedman, 1993; Wingate, 2006).

The level of anxiety caused by the fear of being accused of plagiarism or the difficulty of finding appropriate sources was not sufficiently acknowledged or addressed by the college or subject teachers. Students were left alone to deal

with their concerns and they had to rely on their peers, who experienced the same worries. They sought their peers' survival techniques to help them pass the big task, with little support from the department and teachers. Flowerdew and Li (2007) argued that "perceptions of peers" is a crucial factor in the learning process and in "the understanding and acceptance of academic integrity" practice (p. 169). The influence of peers is also an important tool in the scaffolding process within the ZPD (see section 3.2.2). In the case of this study, students shared their understanding of the practice of citation in writing a research report with each other with no guidance or intervention from their teachers to correct the inaccurate knowledge and experience they got from each other. Abasi et al. (2006) urged teachers to take an active role in organizing peers' scaffolding so that the more competent in the practice can guide and help the less competent peers. Peer support facilitated by the teacher can help achieve the best results and ensure that the flow of information is reliable and helpful. In contrast to this, CAS subject teachers made no intervention to stop or limit the unreliable and inaccurate information that their students kept receiving from their peers about using citations in the research report. What the students ended up getting from their peers from prior cohorts was survival advice about using a large number of sources in writing in a new genre. This is not because of the previous cohort's ill will or passing on inaccurate knowledge, but it is the knowledge they themselves developed to help them achieve the task successfully. They may also have lacked the support they needed from their teachers when they were doing the same task, and they may also have had to rely on their previous peers. Thus the cycle of sharing inaccurate information about citation practice in the research report passes to new generations of student cohorts without ample efforts from subject teachers to break this cycle and create new pedagogical support that enacts positive peer scaffolding.

Finally, the impact of anxiety on the learning of writing is critical in shaping the production of texts (Freedman, 1993). CAS students spent most of their energy and time anxious about avoiding plagiarism, coping with the requirements of the new task, finding appropriate sources, and seeking from

their peers the help which they could not get from their teachers. Students claimed to be emotionally exhausted from the stress they had to endure in order to finish this task. Their highest aim was to survive the task and graduate. This was reflected in their descriptive writing, which had limited representations of their views and the synthesis practice required in the composition of a research report. More elaboration on the type of support CAS students needed and the influence of this on their writing and citation practice is presented in the next sections.

### 7.3.2 Writing in the discipline

As in many higher education contexts, writing in CAS is “a key assessment tool, with students passing or failing courses according to the ways in which they respond to and engage in academic writing tasks” (Lillis, 2001, p. 20). In the context of this study, writing is perceived as a significant indicator of academic achievement and as the best way to demonstrate an understanding of the subject content. The role of writing in the construction of subject-based knowledge did not seem to be recognized or acknowledged by the participants. Throughout the interviews, participants remained consistent about the way they perceive writing in their discipline. For them, writing is one practice that differs only in the content and language that might be specifically used for certain topics. The following excerpts exemplified their understanding of writing:

*Writing is writing, it is the same practice. We just write about different topics but the structure and the presentation of ideas are the same. (IBA3)*

*It is not different [writing in Accounting] than writing other assignments in other courses. The only difference is the assignment topic and we do lots of calculation in Accounting and we use more numbers and formulas than words. (ACCT5)*

This view of writing as a single process, regardless of the setting, is a result of teaching writing as a skill under the approach of skills-based academic writing that focuses on its generic features (see section 3.3.1). The EAP courses at CAS in which students learned about academic writing skills approached writing without any link to the subject content. This separation “encourages the undesirable epistemological belief that knowledge is an



external, objective body of facts” (Wingate, 2006, p. 459). As expected, the pedagogical support offered by CAS EAP courses focuses on the explicit teaching of the technical aspects of writing, such as grammar, vocabulary, summarizing, and “simplified representations of text structure and citation practices” (Lillis, 2001, p. 22). These skills are then meant to be transferable to any other context of writing, including writing in the discipline. The gap created by the exclusion of discipline-specific features of writing in the EAP courses is not addressed by the subject teachers, who justified their lack of participation in supporting students’ academic writing by insisting that they are not language teachers. However, this was not a unique situation to CAS. This is a common practice in many tertiary settings, in which subject teachers are not involved in scaffolding students’ academic writing and believe that it is the responsibility of English teachers to teach writing (Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hunter and Tse, 2013; Linton, Madigan & Johnson, 1994; Wingate, 2006).

As in the current study, it has been assumed that English teachers are able to prepare their students for writing subject-specific texts, writing using different types of genres, disciplinary styles and concepts of discourse communities (Linton et al., 1994; Wingate, 2006). Although what counts as knowledge construction varies across disciplines as each discipline requires different sets of values, “world views”, structures and conventions, the involvement of subject area specialists in conveying the practices of their discipline remain limited (Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Linton et al., 1994). Thus it is not surprising that students fail to identify their disciplinary discursive practices related to writing, or for students’ writing to be a reproduction of the existing knowledge they absorb and then describe in their texts with little attempt to contest, debate or evaluate the described knowledge. According to Wingate (2006) (see Table 31 below), levels of learning involved in academic writing require developing certain techniques which can support more complex understandings about knowledge and how it is constructed. Wingate (2006) believes that the level of techniques required in academic writing can be acquired through generic EAP courses. However, students cannot reach an adequate level of understanding without direct involvement from their subject

area specialists in the process of academic writing learning. For example, the first stage of academic writing learning, which is “selecting/evaluating information sources”, is explicitly addressed in the CAS EAP teaching materials and assessment tasks. Moreover, the analysis of the students’ research reports, along with their responses in the interviews, demonstrated that most of them had developed specific techniques to search for appropriate sources and to navigate the relevant information and key concepts related to their research topic. As for the techniques in the second stage, students developed a level of awareness regarding the serious consequences of plagiarism through their EAP courses, and they were able to transfer that awareness to their disciplinary writing. However, most CAS students, and other novice writers in other contexts (see Lee et al., 2018; Pecorari, 2006; Shi, 2004), failed to develop an understanding of the rhetorical functions of references, and they were unconfident and unsure about their ability to present their authorial stance. Given the subject teachers’ lack of participation in their learning processes of academic writing, students were convinced that their role as undergraduate students is to retell and summarize previous findings, and that they are incompatible with the authority of published authors. The level of involvement needed from subject teachers to familiarize their students with the writing in their discipline requires pedagogical support that involves explicit explanation, modelling and feedback (Wingate, 2006).

**Table 31: Academic writing and levels of learning  
(Wingate, 2006, p. 462)**

Stages in writing academic texts	Levels of learning	
	<i>Techniques</i>	<i>Understanding</i>
Selecting/evaluating information sources	Finding relevant sources	Making meaning within unfamiliar discourse Understanding which information is relevant
Synthesising the ideas/establishing the argument	Referencing Avoiding plagiarism	Knowing why, how and when to reference Understanding referencing as a method of: providing evidence attributing others' works showing writer's stance constructing knowledge
Writing ideas/arguments up into a structured coherent text	Structuring Language skills Style/conventions/ appropriate terminology	Participating in specialist discourse Understanding the rhetorical processes needed for knowledge construction

The call to integrate the process of writing learning and knowledge construction with disciplinary learning is increasing by both educators and researchers (Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Gibbs, 1994; Hunter & Tse, 2013; Wingate, 2006; Wingate et al., 2011). Wingate et al. (2011) argued that “when writing is taught outside the discipline, students have little opportunity to understand what their discipline requires and what their tutors expect” (p. 15). However, similarly to the teacher participants in this study, previous research suggests that students at the undergraduate level are not expected to master disciplinary practices, and they instead need to master the generic features of writing that can benefit them when they are introduced to disciplinary writing at a higher level of study (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995). “This is not a Masters dissertation”, and “these students are not PhD students, they will learn this [using sources more critically] in their postgraduate studies”, are some of the responses that subject teachers reiterated when asked why they gave high marks to student reports that did not meet the citation requirements of a research report. It is true that students at the baccalaureate level are at the “thresholds of their discipline”. However, it is crucially important to prepare students for the “acquisition of disciplinary style” and to introduce them to the writing features of their discipline using the explicit teaching of “reasoning,

conventions and the epistemological assumptions of the relevant discourse community” (Linton et al., 1994, p. 65). This process of enculturation into the discipline is not possible when the subject teachers are not involved in teaching academic writing.

Similar to the findings of this study, prior research found that it was challenging for subject teachers to participate in students’ learning of writing (Hunter & Tse, 2013; Lea & Street, 1998; Wingate et al., 2011). Some of the challenges participant teachers mentioned to justify their lack of engagement in students’ learning of writing included their feeling that it is not their responsibility to teach English, their lack of expertise regarding teaching writing, and their overload of teaching duties. These challenges are not specific to CAS subject teachers. They are well acknowledged in former studies as common challenges that university subject teachers share (Fang & Coatoam, 2013; Hunter & Tse, 2013; Liu et al., 2016; Murray, 2006; Wingate, 2006). Lea and Street (1998) explained that although subject teachers have knowledge of writing in their field of study, their knowledge is tacit, and they find it very difficult to explicitly articulate it to their students in teaching settings. For example, most of the teacher participants in the current study are published writers (see section 6.2.5), which indicates their mastery of writing in the discipline. However, they expressed their inability to convey the knowledge and skill of writing to their students. Fang and Coatoam (2013) explicated that subject teachers are simply not literacy teachers, and they are challenged with their lack of literacy strategies and the language awareness needed to meet the literacy demands of their disciplines. Thus relying on the EAP teachers to prepare students for writing in any setting, assuming that EAP courses can cover the literacy demands of any discipline, is what the subject teachers do to compensate for their lack of literacy teaching skills. However, whether the EAP instructors are qualified to meet the literacy demands of a discipline to support their students to reach the level of understanding that Wingate (2006) described in the three stages of writing learning, is still arguable.

The EAP teachers at CAS, like EAP teachers in other tertiary education contexts, are literacy teachers who are not trained or familiar with disciplinary

literacy demands or discipline-specific practices. Thus it is unrealistic to expect them to prepare students to be literate in specific disciplines and to enculturate students into their “disciplinary habits of mind (i.e. ways of reading, writing, viewing, speaking, thinking, reasoning and critiquing)” (Fang & Coatoam, 2013, p. 628). Realistic expectations for meeting discipline-specific literacy demands require collaboration with EAP teachers to “facilitate unlocking the tacit knowledge” of subject teachers (Hunter & Tse, 2013, p. 3). In some contexts, EAP teachers were assigned to help the subject teachers, which created unequal partnerships between the two parties in which the EAP teachers’ role was downgraded (Fang & Coatoam, 2013). Equal partnership requires working together to identify shared objectives, design supporting teaching materials for writing, and create assessment and evaluation criteria of writing tasks (ibid.). Both parties need to know what is expected from students and to design a working plan to scaffold each other’s mission and goals (Wette, 2019). Teacher participants in this study expressed their unfamiliarity with what is taught in the English department. They made assumptions regarding students’ learning outcomes based on no communication or familiarity with the EAP courses’ content and assessment. The role of the institution is vital here as it facilitates the collaboration between the EAP teachers and the subject teachers and prepares both parties with the knowledge necessary to enact their collaboration in the classroom. The institution is also responsible for equipping their subject teachers with the knowledge of disciplinary literacy they need to convey to their students. This can be done by offering continuous teacher development training and providing teachers with the resources they need, such as communication with academic programme directors to keep up with students’ learning needs and establishing channels of communication between the college and students in regard to their learning. A good example of preparing subject tutors with discipline-specific writing instruction was carried out by Hunter and Tse (2013). They adapted Wingate’s (2006) table of academic writing and levels of learning to design a programme that enables macroeconomics teachers to participate in students’ writing learning by embedding the three stages of Wingate (2006) in their teaching of the subject content. Teachers were

provided with the instructions and activities necessary to engage and support students' writing activity. The results of the programme showed that students achieved better grades and their writing was more analytical, which "attests to the claim that exploration of the complexities of writing practices can develop content knowledge" (Wingate, 2006, p. 11).

As aforementioned, the complex level of learning writing in the discipline can be achieved using explanations, modelling and feedback (Wingate, 2006). In the case of this study, there was no formal teaching for the investigated task (see section 6.4). Teachers acted as supervisors and met with their students individually once a month. Although observation of the meetings was not a part of the study methodology, the study participants confirmed that there was no input from the teachers in relation to writing features, the rhetorical moves of the assessed genre, or citation practice beyond using APA style for formatting citations. Even for the modelling component, teachers provided students with what they considered an "exemplar" research report that was produced by one of their past students. The exemplar samples given to students presented inconsistent use of citations in the different chapters, and there was no critical engagement with sources. When the teachers were asked about the standards they relied on when choosing the exemplar report, their responses could be summed up into two conditions: they met all the requirements in the evaluation rubric, and their analysis of the findings was correct. In the rubric, there were no mention of critical engagement with sources to contribute to knowledge, no clear requirements for discipline-specific writing practices, and no expectations for rhetorical moves in every chapter. Although teachers could always provide feedback and suggestions for changing and improving teaching materials and assessment rubrics, they did not express the need to do so for the investigated task. In other words, most teachers did not see the need to change the evaluation of the rubric or the method of the course delivery in order to include more consideration for discipline-specific writing features and more pedagogical involvement in teaching the genre requirements. Moreover, examining the comments given by teachers in the first drafts of the reports revealed that no feedback was

given to students regarding their descriptive writing, nor to their inconsistent use of citations across all chapters (see section 6.5). It was not clear to me whether it was the teachers' lack of knowledge of the genre requirements or their inability to explain what needed to be changed or improved regarding their lack of feedback about the use of citations. However, I believe that a consultation with the EAP teachers could have better informed the assessment of the research report and the teaching materials related to composing in this genre. This collaboration could have integrated both literacy demands and discipline-specific conventions in the delivery and assessment of research report projects. However, this collaboration is not likely to happen unless academic institutions take an active role in identifying "students' needs for support on source use, and administrators must respond proactively by offering students EAP courses or source use workshops" (Liu et al., 2016, p. 53). Also, the distribution of responsibilities related to supporting source-use practice should be organized and managed by the institution and policies related to the standards of academic writing in the institution should be consistent and knowledgeable to all staff and students (ibid)

As a final remark, relying on generic writing at the undergraduate level denies students the opportunity to understand the "integral relationship between writing and knowledge construction" in their discipline (Somerville & Crème, 2005, as cited in Wingate et al., 2011, p. 15). The undergraduate schooling level is the best time for students to develop an understanding of their discipline's discourse practices and genre conventions, as proceeding through their postgraduate studies will then be smoother and easier. For example, McGowan (2005) reported that source-use practice is a significant challenge for postgraduates as they have little time to adapt to their disciplinary conventions of citation considering the great amount of time dedicated to their subject courses. For the participants in this study, writing is one practice in any setting, and such a perspective is very hard to transform in a one-year Masters programme.

### 7.3.3 Teaching of citation practice in different genres

There is a consensus among scholars that citation practice in different genres needs to receive more pedagogical attention in EAP courses and in discipline-specific settings (Davis; 2013; Harwood, 2010; Keck, 2006; Mansourizadeh & Ahmed, 2011; Petrić, 2007; Qin, 2016; Thompson & Tribble, 2001; Wette, 2017). Most of the published research on citation practice states that clear instructions about the practice of writing from sources does help students improve their use of citations and produces more analytical writing than descriptive (Cumming et al., 2016; Davis, 2013, 2014; Hendricks & Quinn, 2000). In the CAS context, the perception of teaching genre and its rhetorical practices is “static and stable across contexts and over time” (Collin, 2012, p. 80) (see section 3.3.5). This was evident in the EAP teaching materials, which included no information regarding how citation practice differs across genres (see section 2.2). The subject teachers also maintained their position throughout the interviews that students can rely on their knowledge of citations that they assumedly obtained from their EAP courses. Although there was an acknowledgment from some teachers who were interviewed of the variations “in terms of citation integration, presentation, frequency, and reporting verb usage” (Lee et al., 2018, p. 1) across different genres, they seemed to believe that it is not necessary for students at the undergraduate level to know about these. The citation practice in CAS is introduced as one fixed practice that aims to help students survive plagiarism rather than produce knowledge (see section 6.2). For the research report, there was a lack of scaffolding of understanding the citation practice required in this genre. This was, consequently, reflected in students’ writing, which demonstrated a limited understanding of the role of sources in the synthesis of writing.

Although the issue regarding the explicit use of instruction of features of genre, specifically citation practice, has long been debated by different scholars, there is no single, fixed opinion on genre teaching. Freedman (1993) cautioned about the danger of the overgeneralization of rules of writing when teaching is explicit, as it can be harmful to the learning process for students. She argued that in explicit teaching settings, implicit knowledge, which is



unconscious and procedural, is unlikely to be formed and activated when required in different contexts. However, for learning to be internalized and develop to the next level, students should be guided and supported by their teachers and peers (Vygotsky, 1978). Explicit teaching can be very beneficial as an intervention strategy to allow students to improve within their ZPD, especially in the context of L2 novice writers (Davis, 2014). This is not to disregard the vital role of indirect teaching of instructions in forming tacit knowledge; however, direct teaching of genre and citation practice is a fundamental first step for undergraduate writers in L2 contexts (see Section, 3.5). Considering the assessment demands of different subjects, the undergraduate level is the time during which students begin to familiarize themselves with their disciplinary discourse, as “completion of the undergraduate major is typically the first stage in mastery of the discipline” (Linton et al., 1994, p. 65). Undergraduates often “lack the contextualized knowledge” of their discipline to raise their consciousness of the linguistic features, citation practices, writing conventions and genre rhetorical moves related to their discourse community without direct help from the experts (ibid., p. 64). Moreover, the acquisition of the tacit knowledge of writing requires a real context of writing (Freedman, 1993), which is not the case in EAP assignments. Students’ assignments and written texts at CAS were designed for assessment purposes, and responded to ‘imaginary situations’ (ibid.). Students’ written essays are responses to unreal conditions that are set for assessment purposes and which require no engagement with the real context or with its participants. However, Freedman (1993) stated that enabling a context is possible through providing lectures, social interactions with the teacher in the lecture, responding to students’ questions, and providing exemplary models through readings. Although the investigated course in this study requires students to read and use fifteen sources in writing their text, which can provide exemplary models through reading, there seemed to be little attempt to fully enable the real context of the research report through lectures and social interactions. There were no formal classrooms, the feedback was mainly provided for the content of the text, and students did not have opportunities to learn from each other in a formal teaching setting.

Besides, implicit teaching requires indirect support from teachers, which includes “co-operative interaction over the work-in-progress, with the teacher probing and responding tactfully where necessary, and giving over more and more responsibility to the learner as the learning progresses” (Freedman, 1993, p. 240). The teachers in this study, as aforementioned, did not seem to be very involved in the teaching and development of students’ writing in the discipline. They are ill-equipped with the skills necessary to participate in the literacy demands of their discipline. Besides the overload of teaching, the teachers also lack the professional development training that could support their informed involvement in supporting students’ literacy skills in the discipline.

Furthermore, peers’ support and collaborative efforts to assist their less capable peers is one of the conditions needed for establishing implicit teaching. However, peer interactions in the current study were not proper source for assistance, as there was no organization by the teachers to pair the more capable students with the less capable in social interactions. Students had to rely on their personal relationships with other students from previous cohorts who provided them, from a distance, with conflicting input and sometimes incorrect information. The past cohort also sought assistance from their previous peers in the same way, and the inaccurate knowledge and practice kept reoccurring in new cohorts’ writing practices (see section 6.6). There was little intervention exhibited by teachers to limit the flow of inaccurate practices or to be the source of the right input, despite their knowledge of the challenges that students experienced when writing their research reports.

Moreover, different genres have various task requirements and representations that either encourage or discourage certain uses of citation functions. For example, in a case study conducted by Petrić and Harwood (2013), they found that Sofie (a successful Masters student) cited for different purposes according to the task type: “task requirements and task representation encouraged Sofie to cite for purposes she believed were useful for task achievement, and conversely, discouraged the use of citation functions she did not feel matched task requirements” (p. 121) (see section

3.4.2.1). The task requirements for writing a research report in this study were not explicitly explained in terms of using citations. If students clearly understood the expected functions of the citations required to produce analytical writing instead of descriptive writing, the result of the analysis could have been different. Petrić and Harwood (2013) recommend that students' awareness of the requirements of source-use for each task type should be made explicit. Students' task representation, therefore, could be constructed using the explicit cues provided by their teachers, teaching materials, and task instructions (*ibid.*). The task in this study lacked detail regarding the rhetorical purposes of citations necessary to perform the task, which led to inadequate representation of citations in the different rhetorical moves of the genre. No explicit instructions or written guidelines or feedback were given to students about the specifications of citations in the rhetorical moves of the genre. Teachers relied on students' common knowledge of citations to be applied in new tasks for which they were not sufficiently prepared. Thus the use of citations in the different parts of the research report was no different from writing any essay in any course, since students are assumed to use the knowledge of citations that some of them developed in their EAP courses. To support students' understanding of discipline-specific or genre-specific functions of citations, both EAP and subject-teachers can adapt Harwood's (2010) approach to teaching materials design that can facilitate students' learning of functions of citations (refer to Section 3.5).

As for source-use practice as a fundamental and complex feature of academic writing, insufficient knowledge of the role of sources in knowledge-making among novice writers in general, and among L2 novice writers specifically, requires explicit teaching of the "multiple facets of citation" in the synthesis of academic texts. These instructions can facilitate the learning of citation and its complex rhetorical functions, and they can later enable the acquisition of this knowledge (Mansourizadeh & Ahmed, 2011). Samraj (2013) added that explicit labelling and description of the different rhetorical roles of intertextual links are necessary to novice academic writers in their first stages of writing in a new genre. She argued that students need to be aware of the complex role

of intertextuality and its conventional role in every genre type. This is even more necessary in L2 contexts in which knowledge of citation is different or contradictory to the western practice of citation (Davis, 2013). For example, common knowledge and information taken from lecture notes or teaching materials does not need to be attributed in some eastern cultures (Shi, 2004). This was the case with the students in this study, who maintained that they do not need to reference definitions, calculation formulae, or excerpts taken from presentation slides or handouts given by their teachers. Overall, most studies which aim to improve the role of EAP in writing for the disciplines recommend more explicit pedagogical instruction to support and improve students' knowledge and practice of citation (Davis, 2013; Harwood, 2010; Lee et al., 2018; Liu et al., 2016; Petrić, 2007; Samraj, 2013; Thompson, 2001; Wette, 2017, 2018, 2019; Zhao & Hirvela, 2015). These studies conclude that more explicit instruction regarding citations and their rhetorical functions can assist students' understanding and performance of citations.

#### **7.4 Participant variables in shaping source-use skills**

The previous section discussed the role of contextual layers in shaping the participants' source-use skills. This section discusses students' individual variables which have a direct impact on their practice of citations. Recognizing the participants' variables is important in the process of identifying the gap between what students can currently do and what they can potentially do with the pedagogical support they need (ZPD) (see section 3.2.2). Although the conceptualization of ZPD within Vygotsky's learning development theory focuses on the significant impact of social layers in the learning process (institution, discipline, teachers, peers), the individual variables are not to be excluded from the ZPD focus as they are a result of past social factors. They continue to be significant determiners when shaping students' writing activity. Proficiency in English is among the variables most discussed in literature which have a significant impact on the practice of citation (Abasi et al., 2003; Flowerdew & Li, 2007; Keck, 2006; Pecorari, 2001, 2003, 2006; Petrić, 2007; Shi, 2008, 2010; Thompson, 2003 ). Another important variable is the students'

prior knowledge of citation practice, which has resulted from their ability to transfer the knowledge from their EAP courses to new contexts of writing (Davis, 2003; Thompson & Tribble, 2003). Both of these variables were found to be important in shaping the practice of intertextuality among the participants in this study.

#### **7.4.1 Proficiency in English language**

Writing from sources is a challenging task for all writers, especially L2 writers. In source-based writing, L2 writers experience a different level of challenge, which can lead to inappropriate textual-borrowing practices such as plagiarism (Lee et al., 2018; Pecorari, 2006; Shi, 2004; Spack, 1997). The impact of proficiency in English, as stated by different scholars, was acknowledged by the participants in this study and observed in the analysis of their texts.

The linguistic demands of writing have been widely discussed in the literature. Cumming et al. (2016) listed some of the linguistic difficulties L2 students experience when using sources in their writing: comprehension of the source texts, lack of vocabulary and grammar knowledge in expressing their ideas or summarizing the source, and problems with restructuring the ideas of the source. Other challenges, such as syntactic simplification or text reduction, are also observed in L2 writing because of limited linguistic skills. Previous studies (Keck, 2006; Kibler & Hardigree, 2016; Mansourizadeh & Ahmed, 2011; Shi, 2004) found that writers with higher levels of English proficiency can better focus on cohesion and rhetorical moves when they write from sources. This can result in more complex rhetorical functions of citations. For example, Kibler and Hardigree (2016) observed the development of the use of sources of one L2 student in writing argumentative essays across high school and university, and noted the

*close relationship between the language and literacy expertise needed to employ such evidential types and more nuanced rhetorical skills, particularly in terms of illustrating authorial positions, given backgrounds relevant to the argument, establishing links between texts, and critiquing others' claims (p.102)*

Similarly, teachers in this study maintained that students with a good level of English proficiency write better than those with a low level of English. This is because students with better English proficiency need less time to read the sources and less time to write, so they have more time to enhance the quality of their writing. CAS teachers perceived a low level of English as a barrier that hinders students' understanding of the content of previous literature, which consequently affects students' writing from sources:

*They do not understand how to do paraphrasing in literature review, how to connect different ideas or sources through the sentences in academic writing. So these setbacks coming from the side of students [...] When students are designing the topics, objectives, I will help them, but during the stage of the literature review I can't help them because this depends on their English level. What I mean is that if their English is good they can easily write their LR. (TACCT5)*

*Writing the graduation report requires very good English and most students are weak in English. So you find they copy from sources, especially in the literature review, where they have to read many articles and understand them. You know, most of them don't understand these articles. I wonder how we expect them to write the literature review. (TIBA8)*

When exploring the experiences of students who performed more complex rhetorical functions of citations, such as evaluation of sources or comparisons between different sources, I found that they were high achievers, given their GPAs, and they have high levels of English proficiency, as described by their teachers, refer to Table 8. Table 32 further shows the relationship between high academic achievement, including high grades in EAP courses, and the more analytical use of citations.

**Table 32: GPAs and EAP grade of students who used more complex functions of citations**

Complex functions of citations	Students who used complex functions of citations	GPAs / EAP grade	Teachers' descriptions of students
Further reference	ACCT3	3.6/ A	High achievers/ high level of English proficiency
Statement of use	ACCT3	3.6/ A	
Evaluation	ACCT6/ ACCT5	3.2/A-; 3.2/ B	

	IB2/ IB6; IB1	3.1/B; 3.3/B+, 3.2/B	
<b>Establishment of links between sources</b>	ACCT3/ ACCT6	3.6/ A; 3.2/A-	
	IB1/IB6/IB7/IB2/IB11	3.2/B; 3.3/B+; 3.1/B-; 3.1/B; 3.2/A-	
<b>Comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources</b>	ACCT3	3.6/ A	
	IB2	3.1/B	

The table shows that students who used citations for more complex rhetorical functions were academically high achievers and their grades in the last EAP course they had before the graduation project course were either very good or outstanding, as per the description of grades adopted by CAS. This is compatible with academic literacy studies, which indicate the significant impact of the students' level of English on their academic performance. Students with advanced levels of English are more likely to be academically better achievers (Hyland, 2006; Leki & Carson, 1994; Pecorari, 2003). Kibler and Hardigree (2016) argue that growth in English proficiency is a significant factor in the development of students' source-use practice. They found that the use of citation type, function and range of reporting verbs develop as level of language proficiency grows, see Section 3.4.3.

Moreover, the same students who used complex rhetorical functions of citations in this study did not use citations as sub-headings for textual structuring purposes; this, as aforementioned, indicates syntactical weakness and insufficient rhetorical structuring skills, which L2 undergraduate students are more likely to have. Their presentation of citations were integrated in their paragraphs and they were syntactically well presented.

Linguistic difficulties can become an excuse for teachers to be more forgiving of students' poor use of citations and irregularity of citation convention of the discipline (Li & Casanave, 2012). The teachers interviewed for this study acknowledged the advanced linguistic demands placed on students to perform the analytical use of citations. They were therefore more lenient with

students when evaluating their research reports, as expressed in these interview excerpts:

*I don't expect a lot from them [students] because of their limited English. At this point, the rationale is to allow students to correlate what they have learnt theoretically to the practical aspects. As for their writing, I give students a pass because I understand their language struggles, so I don't give it much attention. (TIB 3)*

*I hope if the students can write about many articles in discussing one idea. **Researcher: So they don't do this now?** No, I don't expect they do this because of their weak English. I ask them to write a summary of each article separately so it is easy for them to write their literature review. I think so. We have to consider the students' level. (TACCT5)*

Given students' low English proficiency, the subject teachers felt they had to overlook the limited practice of source-use that students used in their writing, especially in the literature review chapter. This also caused teachers to misinform students about the way in which they should write their literature review. Some teachers asked students to present their sources as sub-headings or divide the literature review into unconnected parts so each part presented a summary of a particular source, as shown in the textual analysis (Chapter 5). The teachers' intentions were to ease the task for students, considering their low level of English and the linguistic demands of the project. Besides the lack of instruction, teachers did not seem to mind giving students a full mark for the literature review chapter as long as students cited at least fifteen sources and presented a summary of each. The next excerpts validate this observation:

*We understand students are not competent with their English language and that is okay, we don't expect them to write a literature review as PhD students, they need to have excellent English. So, the way they use other articles is okay for now. (TACCT3)*

*I don't think students can write about sources differently, this is their level and we must accept that [...] there is no time to teach them how the literature review should be written. (TIBA4)*

The lack of proficiency was perceived by teachers in this study as a reason for not meeting the standards of writing a research report and a reason for teachers to lower their expectations of the writing outcomes. The low expectations of students' ability to meet the linguistic demands of the task



disadvantaged students in terms of the support they needed to improve their source-use practice in writing in a new genre. This has also significantly implicated the performance of students who are more competent, linguistically and academically, and who were not challenged or rewarded for their more advanced textual-borrowing practices. It was best put by one student who said “why should I bother to use citations in all chapters or for criticizing the sources; eventually, we all get full marks if we use the exact number of sources and reference our citations using APA style” (ACCT10).

Most of the teachers in this study expressed their low expectations of students’ ability to improve their writing at this stage which led them to spend less time on scaffolding students’ practice of source-use. They did not know how to cope with the linguistic requirements of the task because of their lack of expertise in literacy teaching; therefore they focused their feedback and support on the content in their area of expertise. This is very similar to the findings of Wette (2018). She explained

*Assessors [subject-teachers] appeared to take a tolerant approach to how much copying and inaccuracy was considered acceptable in their citations, and focused on understanding of content and quality of argument when assigning grades (marks were deducted only for inaccuracies in technical aspects of students' referencing). All this suggests that relatively modest expectations with regard to citation quality and assistance from lecturers and tutors helped students to be successful in the assignment, and narrowed the gap between their current capabilities and the level of ability required to achieve a satisfactory grade. These findings may also serve as a reminder to academic literacy specialists that source text use abilities are not the primary criteria by which essays are assessed in disciplinary courses for beginning undergraduates, and are not always considered worthy of careful scrutiny (P.71)*

#### **7.4.2 Transferability of EAP skills**

In the previous chapter, the subject teachers made clear that they do not consider themselves “language teachers” and therefore are not responsible for supporting students’ writing skills, including source-use practice. The teachers in this study seem to rely on EAP courses to bring students to the level of citation practice required in their disciplinary courses. Prior studies

have challenged this notion, considering the fact that most EAP courses offer generic support for the surface features of citation and its mechanical structures (Davis, 2013; Shi 2004; Thompson & Tribble, 2003). Davis (2013) also questioned the applicability of the limited input of citation practice offered in EAP courses to the conventions of practice of the discourse community within which students write. Davis (2014) noticed that not all writers in her study transferred the citation skills they had learned in their EAP programme at pre-Masters level. On the other hand, Mertala (2006) observed that the transfer of knowledge of citations was limited to the practice of referencing (see section 2.2.3). The issue of critical engagement with sources remained a very challenging task for most students. This is not very different from the findings of the current study. CAS students were able to transfer some of the skills they learned in their EAP courses, such as paraphrasing, summarizing, and avoiding plagiarism, as most of them explained. Students maintained that everything they know about source-based writing came from their EAP teachers, and that their citation skills had not improved since they finished their EAP courses. Although some students expressed their inability to remember everything they had learned about citations, their subject teachers were confident that EAP courses prepared students for source-based assessments in any writing context. The subject teachers were unaware of the EAP courses' content and objectives. Their assumptions of what students know were not based on valid data or regular communication with EAP teachers. Moreover, the assumption of transferring knowledge that students never obtained is unrealistic. This is because the EAP courses offered at CAS are theme-based language instruction and an integration of curriculum areas surrounding a topic. They are not related to the content of students' disciplines and the assessment tasks are quite different from subject assessment tasks. Therefore, the citation skills offered in these EAP courses are not discipline-specific. Investigations of the EAP courses at CAS revealed the same finding as Thompson and Tribble (2003), that only generic features of citations are offered to students. Even the transfer of these generic skills can be seen as an individual variable, as shown in Davis' (2014) analysis. Davis categorized her study participants into three groups based on their citation performance.

The competent users, who attributed their knowledge of citations to their EAP course, were more able to cautiously transfer their citation knowledge to the new tasks, whereas the risk takers failed to make such a transfer. The safe players could only recall some of the skills they had learnt in their pre-Masters EAP course and found some knowledge difficult to recall or apply. If the transfer of knowledge is such an individual ability, it is not realistic for subject teachers to make assumptions regarding students' ability to transfer knowledge to different contexts. Spack (1997), for example, stated that we cannot assume there is a transfer of EAP learning outcomes to new learning contexts since not all students are able to successfully make that transfer without support or the availability of certain conditions to promote the transfer. James (2006) also supported Spack's (1997) finding, but he suggested some factors that can either promote or constrain the transfer of learning outcomes to new contexts. These factors are the learner, the instructional task, and the broader instructional context. All of these factors were highlighted by the current study as contextual layers that significantly participated in shaping CAS students' source-use practice (see Chapter 6). However, these factors are addressed in this section for the role they play in the transfer of knowledge of citation practice from EAP courses to subject courses.

Aside from the individual differences between learners, the instructional task and text types are important factors in the transfer of knowledge. The transfer of skills might be encouraged to occur when there are contextual similarities between the EAP language courses and subject courses regarding the content and genres (James, 2006). As explained earlier, the content of CAS EAP courses is not discipline-specific given that the content includes different themes that serve one goal, which is to teach general academic English. Regarding the text types, CAS EAP courses prepare students for writing academic essays which require writing from sources, but they do not target the practice of writing in the discipline. Regarding citation skills, EAP objectives only cover generic citation skills such as "use APA referencing conventions, integrate other voices into a text through paraphrase and quotation and understand what plagiarism is and how to avoid it" (MoHE,

2017a, p. 3). There is no mention of rhetorical functions of citations, types of citations, or the structural moves of genre and their relation to the use of sources. Moreover, the maximum written work that students produced in the EAP courses was 1000-1200 words in length, a report that had to include an introduction, three body paragraphs and a conclusion. The research report such as the one analysed in this study is not something students were prepared for during their EAP courses. Therefore, the similarity condition is not applicable in the context of this study. James (2006) and Davis (2014) also found that the transfer of knowledge can happen more effectively when the time period between the EAP instruction and the application of the instruction to the subject courses is short. In the context of this study, this period consists of at least two academic semesters between the last EAP course and the investigated course, which is considerably long. Hence it is not surprising that students expressed difficulty remembering and applying the skills they learned in EAP courses or any other study skills course. Yet the expectations of knowledge transfer are still strongly held by the subject teachers.

To attest, I asked students to describe the functions of citations in the examples provided to them during the interviews (see Appendix A.1). Their answers revealed that their knowledge of rhetorical functions of citations, as a critical feature of academic writing, is limited to these responses: “to describe the idea” (IBA8), “to reference the source” (ACCT3), “to summarize the main idea of the article” (ACCT6), and “to tell what the article is about” (IBA11). Although some students (one from Accounting and two from IBA) stated some different functions, such as “to criticize the writer”, “to show the weakness”, or to “disagree with the writer”, most students’ responses described the “attribution” rhetorical function of citation (Petrić, 2007). This indicated that students’ knowledge of the different rhetorical functions of citations - that a text writer needs to know how to utilize previous studies when synthesizing their own texts - does not meet the expectations of writing a research report.

Finally, these assumptions of students’ prior knowledge of academic writing and source-use practice were the basis for requiring students to perform the

higher level of textual borrowing practice needed in writing a research report. These assumptions are also used by the subject teachers to justify their lack of support for students' writing and source-use practice. Therefore the confident overestimated expectations of the subject teachers in this study, about what students have previously learned and their ability to transfer their learning, need to be altered, as these assumptions resulted in denying students the pedagogical support they needed to improve their writing in the discipline.

## **7.5 Summary of the chapter**

This chapter provides a detailed discussion of what CAS students in the disciplines of Accounting and IB know about the role of citations in academic writing in general, and in writing in the discipline specifically. The study findings show that CAS students are unfamiliar with the role of citations in knowledge-making and that their use of citations is merely to avoid plagiarism and to describe the sources. Moreover, the analysis shows that CAS students do not perceive writing in their discipline differently from their writing in other subjects. For them, writing is one practice and the knowledge of writing they gained from their EAP courses is applicable to any writing activity. The study also revealed the significant influence of the social context in shaping CAS students' understanding of citations in writing. This is consistent with Fairclough's (1992) affirmation that "discourse is shaped and constrained by social structure at all levels" (p. 64). The exploration of the context of writing identified five contextual layers that greatly influenced source-use practice among CAS students. The influence of these five layers (the college, the department, the teachers, the task, and the previous peers) on facilitating or constraining students' learning of citations is interwoven; the impact of each contextual layer on citation practice cannot be isolated from the influences of other layers. One impact, such as using citations to survive accusation of plagiarism, is not a result of one layer. All five layers have contributed to this understanding of citations. Lastly, this chapter presents the individual student variables which also influenced their use of citations, including their level of

English and their ability to transfer common knowledge about citations learned in their EAP courses to new writing contexts. When discussing these variables, it is important to understand that proficiency in English is a significant factor in understanding the source and integrating it into a new writing document. In addition, teacher instruction and curriculum should not be based on assumptions of common knowledge or ability to transfer this knowledge to a new a context.

## Chapter 8: Conclusion

### 8.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the main contributions of this study regarding source-use practice at the undergraduate level. First, a summary of the study findings in relation to the research questions is provided. Then the study's implications and limitations, upon which the recommendations for future research are based, are discussed. Lastly, some personal concluding remarks are shared.

### 8.2 Summary of key findings

In this study, I used quantitative textual analysis to investigate the rhetorical function of citations in the research reports produced by final-year CAS students from the disciplines of Accounting and IB. The study also explored the context of writing to identify the contextual layers that influenced the practice of using sources in writing the investigated genre. This combined approach offered an in-depth understanding of CAS students' source-use practice in the disciplines of IB and Accounting. Further discussed are the contextual determiners that play a significant role in shaping the practice of source-use in source-based writing. This chapter includes a summary of the key findings of the study in relation to the research questions. The four research questions this study aimed to answer are restated below in order to relate each finding summary to the relevant question. The answers for RQ1 and RQ2 are offered in one summary given that the findings for both questions are very similar.

***RQ1: What rhetorical functions of citations do CAS final-year students in the academic discipline of Accounting use in their graduation research reports?***

***RQ2: What rhetorical functions of citations do CAS final-year students in the academic discipline of IB use in their graduation research reports?***

The answers for these two questions were generated from the data collected by analysing the functions of citations in 11 Accounting research reports and

11 IB research reports. Chapter 5 provides a detailed account of the analysis procedures and results with which this quantitative work was conducted, to present the findings in table and chart formats. The findings from both sets of reports showed that students from both disciplines use citations to describe sources without critically engaging with sources to produce new meanings. Students mainly used citations for knowledge display and most citations appeared in the literature review chapter, in which students were expected to discuss the prior studies related to their topic as per the description of the project specifications. The few occurrences of citations in the other chapters demonstrated a lack of understanding of source-use in writing a research report. Also, for the citations used in the literature review, there was no analytical presentation of the sources through the use of more complex rhetorical functions of citations. The presentation of sources throughout the reports was mainly descriptive in both disciplines.

The textual analysis also resulted in identification of two more rhetorical functions of citations not included in Petrić's (2007) typology, which was used in the analysis of rhetorical functions of citations for this study: citations for textual structuring and citations for content display. These functions are not found in expert writing and are not included in any of the typologies offered in prior literature which investigated postgraduates' writing (Mansourizadeh & Ahmed, 2011; Petrić, 2007; Samraj, 2013; Thompson, 2001). The identification of these two functions was dependent on clear structural and linguistic markers and on the intentions described by the citers themselves (see Chapter 5). The use of these functions was found in the literature review chapters in the texts from both disciplines, and they both indicated the inability to integrate sources to establish the writer's argument. They also showed the writers' lack of understanding of and practice in combining sources in writing to make new knowledge. Moreover, the high percentage of citations for acknowledgment of authorship for content display in the literature review chapter displays the paucity of knowledge of the conventions of citation practice in the research report genre.



Overall, the findings of the textual analysis validated what previous studies have concluded regarding L2 novice writers, that their use of sources are limited to attribution and appropriation of their citations to avoid plagiarism (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Keck, 2006; Moore, 1997; Pecorari, 2003; Shi, 2004). However, the findings added two more rhetorical functions of citations that are more likely to be found in texts produced by L2 undergraduate novice writers. These functions can enrich our understanding of how L2 writers use citations, which can help teachers and curriculum writers reform their teaching and materials to improve source-use practice in academic writing.

***RQ3: What variations of frequencies of rhetorical functions of citations exist between Accounting and IB textual analysis of research reports?***

A thorough discussion of the variations in the use of citations between the Accounting and IB research reports is presented in Chapter 5. In summary, the students from both disciplines showed fairly similar behaviour regarding the use of sources when composing the graduation research reports. This was not surprising considering that the task materials, assessment, and instructions are the same for both disciplines. The findings from both sets of reports showed that citations were mainly used in the literature review chapters and mostly for attribution or content display. The few attempts to use citations for more complex rhetorical functions in the other chapters in the reports were performed by three students whose English language proficiency and accumulated grades were outstanding compared to their peers. Thus these individual attempts should not be viewed as a general observation in the IB and Accounting texts.

***RQ4: What possible contextual layers might influence the students' use of rhetorical functions of citations in both disciplines?***

This study identified five contextual layers that have a direct influence on shaping students' understanding and practice of source-use: the college, the academic department, the teachers, the past student cohort, and the task (see Chapter 6). The identification of these layers and their effect on source-based writing was investigated by interviewing the writers of the texts (students), their

teachers and some official administrators in the college, and by analysing the relevant official documents. The analysis of qualitative data showed that the influence of each layer cannot be seen in isolation from the other layers. This study highlighted the integrated role these layers play in forming the knowledge and practice of citations in academic writing at CAS. Moreover, each layer is influenced by the practice and representation of the other layers, as they are intertwined and interrelated. In terms of the influence of these contextual layers on the use of sources in writing the graduation research report, the study found that there was a lack of pedagogical and logistical support to improve students' sources-use practice. This lack of support made students anxious and less confident in their ability to use sources beyond description and summarizing as they feared accusations of plagiarism if they risked writing about sources more critically, considering their low English proficiency and their sense of inferiority to the authority of the published articles. The focus on threatening students with plagiarism by the college, the department and the teachers always made students anxious when using sources in their writing.

Exploring the context of writing also highlighted the insufficient pedagogical support CAS students receive to prepare them for the practice of writing for different disciplines and in different genres. There is a significant lack of involvement by subject teachers in teaching or supporting students' academic writing, as they consider teaching academic writing to be the responsibility of the language teachers. On the other hand, the EAP courses do not teach English in the discipline, but rather offer general courses for students from all academic programmes. Therefore CAS students are disadvantaged in that they do not find the support they need to understand the discursive practices of writing in their disciplines, nor they are aware of the conventions and norms of writing in different genres. Generally, the findings from this question provided a detailed account of why students use sources the way they do, which can inform any future pedagogical reform at CAS.

### 8.3 Contribution of the study

This study makes two types of contribution. The first contribution is to the growing body of knowledge of source-use by L2 novice writers. Section 3.5 provides a thorough account of the rationale for conducting this study given the scarcity of studies which aim to understand L2 undergraduates' source-use practice beyond the appropriation of citations or strategies of citations. This study adds to the knowledge of rhetorical functions of citations for L2 novice writers at the undergraduate level when they write in the disciplines of Accounting and IB. Writing in the discipline at the undergraduate level has rarely been investigated in prior literature, as learners at this level are mainly expected to master the generic skills of writing such as citation practice. Investigating undergraduates' use of sources in this study revealed students' lack of understanding of the variety of norms and conventions when using sources in different disciplines. It also revealed the lack of pedagogical support for undergraduate students from their subject teachers to prepare them for writing in the discipline.

Moreover, this study is one of the few to investigate students' source-use practice by combining the analysis of students' texts and exploration of the context of writing. Part of the aim of this study was to provide an understanding of why the writers use citations the way they do. Prominent studies in the area of source-use practice, either at the level of postgraduate theses or published writers (Harwood, 2009; Petrić, 2007; Samraj, 2013; Thompson, 2001), or at the undergraduate level (Lee et al., 2018; Thompson et al., 2013; Wette, 2017), have only focused on identifying the citers' motivations for using citations without exploring the context of writing to explain why citers use citations the way they do. Furthermore, little attention has been given to exploring the contextual factors that impact the citers' use of sources. Mansourizadeh & Ahmed (2011), however, is among the few studies to offer a brief explanation of why L2 postgraduates use citations for less complex rhetorical functions compared to published writers from the same discipline (see section 3.4.2.1). Identifying the role of context in the practice of source-based writing in the discipline at the undergraduate level is a significant

contribution to the little knowledge available about source-use practice in tertiary education.

Additionally, the findings of this study extend Petrić's (2007) typology adopted in the analysis of the function of citations in students' texts. This study identified two more rhetorical functions that might only be specific to L2 undergraduates' source-based writing: citations for acknowledgment of authorship for content display and citations for textual structuring. The use of these two functions indicates the citers' poor knowledge of using sources to establish their argument or to make new meaning. They also reflect how students perceive the function of citations as descriptive tools that display their summary of the sources they have read. Additionally, the identification of these functions can better inform the design of EAP textbooks that currently give more attention to the mechanical use of citations and lack instruction related to the role of citations in producing analytical source-based writing.

The second type of contribution this study makes is methodological. This study involved the teacher participants to help make decisions about the time and procedures of the interviews with students (see section 4.5). Involving the teachers in the decision-making process provided me with a well-informed plan regarding the time students need to establish an understanding of the investigated task (in terms of source-use) so that they could share the knowledge and experience of their source-use practices. The time suggested by teachers was helpful to the quality of the collected data, which can be described as insightful and enlightened by the real experiences of participants and their reflections on the contextual factors that affected their source-use practice. Furthermore, the suggested procedure for the collection of texts facilitated my involvement in monitoring students' submissions and recording their progress in their drafts. I believe that if I had continued with my original plan for when and how to collect data from the participants, the responses from participants would perhaps have been based on assumptions. Their responses might also have been based on their past experiences, which cannot portray the real understanding and experiences of using sources in writing a research report in their disciplines. This approach of involving the

participants in making well-informed decisions about the process of collecting data can make a significant difference to the quality of data any researcher desires to obtain from his or her participants, especially when investigating a new context or unfamiliar area of research.

Another contribution of this study to the methodology of investigating source-use in any context is the use of a combination of textual analysis and directly asking the citers to identify the new functions of citations that were not identified in previous typologies. Prior research used one method to classify citers' intentions. Some focused on the linguistic context to allow researchers who are not familiar with the text content to conduct the textual analysis (Petrić, 2007; Samraj, 2013; Thompson, 2001). Other research relied on interviewing the citers to hear directly from them about the purposes of their citations (Cronin, 2005; Harwood, 2009; Petrić & Harwood, 2013). Combining the two approaches in this context was very helpful in defending the two new functions. There was no contradiction found between what the citers described and what the linguistic context indicated in regards to identifying the intentions of citations. However, other studies in different contexts or studies with a large number of participants might reveal different findings which can introduce more innovative ways to validate the research findings or open new queries about the reasons for such contradictions. Moreover, combining the two methods for the analysis of rhetorical functions of citations can also lead to a better understanding of the linguistic context in which the citation occurs. For example, in cases where the linguistic context does not relate to the citer's intention, more investigation would be required to understand why the citer decided to situate his or her citation in such a context that does not indicate his or her true intention.

In summary, this study contributes to the understanding of L2 undergraduates' use of sources in source-based writing. This study also provides an account of the contextual layers that significantly contribute to shaping students' source-use practice. This knowledge is important to reform the teaching of source-use practice to L2 undergraduates.

## **8.4 Implications of the study**

The findings of this study provide valuable insights for the pedagogy of EAP/ESP courses, subject teachers and the college in regards to their role in shaping the practice of citations in source-based writing in tertiary education. The next sections present the implications of this study under two sub-headings: Implications for understanding source-use practice at the undergraduate level, and implications for practice at CAS.

### **8.4.1 Implications for the understanding of source-use practice at the undergraduate level**

The main implication of the findings for this study relates to the understanding of source-use practice at undergraduate level. Our understanding of the role of sources in academic writing is related to our conceptualization of academic writing. If academic writing is perceived as a skill, the focus of teaching is on its generic technical features (Street, 2003). The teaching of features of academic writing includes the use of sources, which will therefore be affected by this perception (see section 3.3). The teaching of source-use using this approach focuses on the mechanical use of citations, such as styles of referencing, quoting and summarizing from sources. This understanding of academic writing as a skill does not reflect the complexity of academic writing, the variation of academic writing across different disciplines and genres, and the role of academic writing in constructing new knowledge (Lee & Street, 1998). Hence it is an expected outcome to use intertextual links for descriptive purposes when the approach to academic writing is skills-based.

However, when academic writing is conceptualized as a social practice that is shaped by the surrounding context which varies across the different genres and disciplines, a written academic text is an outcome of a complex process that involves different players (Candlin & Hyland, 1999) (see section 3.3.1). The complexity of academic writing is evidenced through recognizing the significance of the context of the discipline, the institution, the text type and the students' experiences in the production of the text. In academic contexts in which disciplinary and institutional communities regulate the 'activity systems' shaping students' writing, "students need to understand the activity

systems they work within if they are to make use of their affordances [within a specific institution] and to work within their constraints” (Green, 2020, p. 99). Therefore, teaching academic writing with this conceptualization considers the complexities of the task and the role of the context in the performance of the written task. This applies to teaching citation practice as a key feature of academic writing. This means that, instead of focusing on the mechanical aspect of citations, a more complex perspective is to be associated with citation, in which the role of citations in the construction of knowledge is recognized, as well as the role of context in shaping this practice.

Moreover, involving the context of writing in understanding source-use practice can provide a more situated perspective of the disciplinary norms and conventions of source-use. Green (2020) argues that academic communities, including disciplines, “offer disciplinary interactions in the shared practice of constructing knowledge [which includes the use of intertextuality] that are [...] identical in outcome if not in process” (p. 20). The discipline is a very important contextual layer that plays a critical role in shaping the context of writing, as writing varies across disciplines (Samraj, 2013) (see section 3.3.1.1). Therefore, when the discursive practices of the discipline are involved in the teaching of writing, more contextualized knowledge of this discipline is provided to students, which can significantly improve their understanding of the linguistic features and norms of using citations in that discipline. An important way of teaching writing in the discipline is through ESP courses that can familiarize and equip students with the literacy practices of their discipline. ESP also plays a central role in introducing the relevant genres of the discipline in terms of structural and linguistic conventions. Furthermore, the disciplinary norms of using sources in source-based writing require active involvement from the subject specialists in supporting students with the common practice of source-use in the discipline. Thus, when knowledge of the discipline and genre is part of the teaching of source-based writing, the practice of source-use becomes more related to the norms of the discipline and the requirements of the genre.

In summary, source-use is a complex social practice that is influenced by the different contextual layers surrounding the context of writing. The complexity of the use of sources is also reflected in its role in the construction of new knowledge when it is delivered as a situated practice that varies across the different disciplines and genres. Therefore, teaching the use of sources should represent its complexity by highlighting its role in producing analytical writing and identifying the unique practice of source-use in the discipline and genre.

#### **8.4.2 Implications for practice at CAS**

The findings of this study identify some of the contextual challenges at CAS that hinder the understanding of the complex role of sources when composing a new text. This section provides some suggestions for practice for CAS to better support its students when using sources in source-based writing.

According to the findings, CAS subject teachers have a limited role in supporting their students' writing in the discipline. The subject teachers attribute their lack of support for students' academic writing to their lack of knowledge of teaching literacy skills such as writing. Therefore, the study suggests an active collaboration between the literacy teachers and subject teachers to "push" students to improve their writing in ways which conform to the norms and conventions of their discipline. This collaboration can provide students with "opportunities for meaningful use of their linguistic resources with their output being shaped by the assignments set and the feedback offered in response to these assignments" (Freedman, 1993, p. 239). This partnership can be initiated by involving the CAS EAP teachers with writing the written assessment for the evaluation rubrics of different subjects. They can also collaborate and offer workshops regarding giving feedback on the quality of academic writing and engaging sources for more complex rhetorical functions to produce more analytical writing. Subject teachers, on the other hand, should provide EAP teachers with the literacy skills that are specific to their discipline requirements. This mutual exchange between the two parties could enrich understanding of the relevance of teaching writing in EAP courses as well as the writing requirements for the discipline. Moreover, the college should be involved in organizing, regulating, monitoring and evaluating the



collaboration between the EAP teachers and the subject teachers in order to achieve the best results from this constructive alignment.

The findings also show that CAS students felt a high level of anxiety when engaging with source-based writing, caused by their fear of being accused of plagiarism. The study suggests that, instead of threatening students with the serious consequences of committing plagiarism, CAS should involve all academic staff in professional training about identifying the reasons for plagiarism, identifying acts of plagiarism before the final submission, and educating students about plagiarism by engaging them in a fruitful discussion about why plagiarism is a serious act and how the college handles it. Moreover, CAS should support EAP teachers' efforts towards more resources and time to provide teaching assistance to students to develop their paraphrasing skills by expanding their vocabulary and reporting verbs. EAP teachers at CAS are currently encumbered with heavy timetables and are overwhelmed with teaching the content in textbooks that do not offer enough support to work on source-based writing. A team of EAP teachers from CAS should be assigned to design complementary teaching materials to introduce source-use practice beyond its technicalities. This team should conduct a needs assessment analysis of the requirements of source-based assessments in the different academic programmes within CAS. Kuzborska (2011) recommended conducting an "analysis of needs" in the development of EAP courses, defined as "the techniques for collecting and assessing information relevant to course design: it is the means of establishing the *how* and *what* of a course" (Hyland, 2006, p. 73, as cited in Kuzborska, 2011, p. 2). Information should be collected from all stakeholders involved in the learning process, including learners, teachers, college administrators, and programme leaders. It is also crucial to communicate with the other academic departments and subject teachers when surveying information for the development of EAP materials to investigate the literacy needs of the discipline for which students need to be prepared. The members of this team should be freed from their teaching duties and allowed to dedicate their time

to constructively designing the teaching materials that target the varied learning needs of source-use in the different disciplines within CAS.

The study also suggests that CAS needs to offer more logistical support, such as access to journal search databases that are relevant to the academic programmes offered in CAS. CAS should also provide more reference books in the library in coordination with the heads of academic departments. Moreover, CAS should facilitate students' searches for relevant sources by offering them access to a reliable Wi-Fi network on their college campus. This could ease the stress students endure when they do source-based writing.

Furthermore, the English Language Program in CAS should activate the true purpose of ESP courses by designing tailor-made materials that can better prepare students for the linguistic demands of their discipline. The ESP curriculum should be based on a systematic needs analysis which involves EAP teachers, subject teachers, and college administrators. The ESP courses will not only help students familiarize themselves with the linguistic features of their discipline but also with the types and structures of the genres in their disciplines. These courses can facilitate the use of sources as well as help to acquaint students with the content of their discipline through reading relevant published articles and producing discipline-related texts, under the guidance of language teachers. The linguistic support available to students in their ESP courses is significant in expanding their discipline-related vocabulary and helpful for understanding the content of their subjects, which can then facilitate their writing from sources in their discipline.

Finally, as discussed in section 7.3.3, the findings indicate that explicit teaching of source-use practice is the most appropriate intervention for CAS undergraduates. This is a fundamental first step to dealing with the challenges imposed by the insufficient pedagogy of source-use in the EAP textbooks and the lack of involvement from subject teachers in supporting their students' source-use practice. Explicit explanations of the role of intertextual links in making new meanings could make students more aware of the complex rhetorical functions of citations that they can use when they write from sources.

## 8.5 Limitations of the study

While the study contributes to our understanding of undergraduates' source-use practice in the disciplines of Accounting and IB in an L2 context, the study is not without limitations. First, being an insider researcher can be viewed as a limitation according to previous literature, in terms of being less objective and more biased when searching my context (Smyth & Holian, 2008). Although I was very careful when evaluating and analyzing the research data, as discussed in section 4.9, I might have been blindsided by some issues that an outsider might consider important or sensitive, which can affect the understanding of the context.

Another issue is the limited scope of the study regarding participants and research context, which can affect the generalizability of the findings. The sample of the research was purposive and included all students who were doing their graduation projects from the disciplines of Accounting and IB during the time of data collection. The number of students doing the graduation project course was small, 11 from each discipline, and all were recruited as research participants. However, considering the methodological design in which all participants were interviewed, and their graduation reports analyzed, having more participants could have been overwhelming in terms of the time and effort needed for the collection and analysis of the data. As for the research context, it was one of the five Colleges of Applied Sciences, which might have affected the generalizability of the findings across CAS. Although another College offered the investigated disciplines, the graduation project course was not offered there because there were no students eligible to take the course during the period of data collection. Despite this, every context is unique, and this was emphasized throughout the study. Therefore, the findings obtained from one College may not be applicable in another context, even if both contexts are very similar in terms of providing the same syllabi, using the same textbooks and course descriptions, etc.

Finally, relying only on textual analysis to identify the rhetorical functions of citations that Petrić (2007) suggested could be perceived as a limitation to this study, considering that citation practice is a "private and subjective process"

(Harwood, 2009, p. 497) (see section 3.4.1). Although the students were asked directly about the new two functions that are identified in their texts but not included in Petrić's typology, interviewing students about each citation in their report was not feasible considering their lack of understanding of the role of citation (see Section 4.6). During the pilot study, it was clear that most students were not able to express the different rhetorical functions of citations beyond summarizing and avoiding plagiarism. Therefore, the decision to conduct textual analysis to identify the rhetorical functions of citations was informed by the lesson learned from the pilot study, which revealed the inadequate level of understanding of source-use practice in making new knowledge among CAS final-year-students. Interviewing citers about their motivations to cite will be more appropriate if the investigated citers are well informed about, and more experienced with, the complex rhetorical role of citation in knowledge-making.

## **8.6 Recommendations for future research**

In general, the study suggests that more research should be conducted to understand source-based writing at the L2 undergraduate level, as this level of study has not had the attention it needed to improve the quality of source-based writing for undergraduates. One important area of research is an investigation of the development of source-use within the four-year program of undergraduate study. This investigation could unveil the progress that students develop in their source-use throughout their study, and could also identify the different practices of citation, if any, between writing in EAP courses and writing in the discipline. In addition, a better understanding of the transferability of knowledge of citations from EAP to writing in the discipline could be achieved by examining undergraduates' source-use progress. As for CAS, a practical investigation of source-use pedagogy in EAP needs to be conducted to compare what the EAP curriculum offers to students with the level of knowledge and practice of source-use required by the different academic programs in CAS. This research is crucial as a part of the systematic needs analysis CAS needs to conduct for any pedagogical reform of source-

use practice. This investigation should also involve interviewing subject teachers for their input about the citation skills they expect their students to have in order to successfully meet the standards of the written assessment for their subjects. Another important research consideration for reforming source-use pedagogy in CAS is to measure the progress in using sources in source-based writing when students are explicitly taught source-use beyond its superficial role to focus on its complex features and its role in the construction of new knowledge. For example, a refined pedagogy that introduces sources from a specific genre as tools for making new meaning and producing critical writing could be taught to a particular group of students in an experimental research project during a specific period of time. The written texts produced by this group could then be compared with the texts produced by the other groups of students who did not receive the same teaching intervention, to measure the differences in the ways sources are used between the two groups. Then the impact of the teaching intervention can be measured, and decisions for reform in source-based writing pedagogy can be made.

## **8.7 Concluding remarks**

Throughout the four-year journey of writing this thesis, I have developed a great level of empathy towards the struggle that L2 novice writers feel when they write from sources. Writing from sources is difficult and complex, and it requires collaborative effort from everyone involved in the writing context. I have also realized that it all starts from our understanding of academic writing. If the perception of academic writing is to master the techniques of writing (see section 7.3.2), then teaching will target the technical aspects of writing, including source-use. In contrast, when the perception of academic writing involves understanding the nature of knowledge and how it is constructed, it becomes “necessary to teach students that knowledge is constantly developing, and that they are expected to question existing knowledge and contribute to its development, using evidence from previous contributors” (Wingate, 2006, p. 463). Teaching the complex role of source-use is challenging if epistemological beliefs about academic writing as a means to

report existing knowledge are not changed. For students to develop an understanding of academic writing and its role in knowledge-making, Wingate (2006) suggested that subject teachers should take an active role in introducing and modelling the academic discourse of the discipline. To help students understand subject-specific writing requirements, including source-use, Wingate (2006) proposed four important steps that subject teachers should introduce in their teaching. These are:

1. Address epistemological assumptions.
2. Demonstrate how knowledge is constructed in the specific discipline.
3. Make explicit that students are not recipients of, but active contributors to, knowledge.
4. Demonstrate rhetorical processes in academic writing; for instance, ways of integrating one's own voice with existing knowledge. (p. 464).

Finally, achieving this level of understanding of academic writing at the undergraduate level could prepare students with a solid knowledge of their role as academic writers when they start their postgraduate studies. This knowledge could also facilitate their engagement with sources to produce more critical academic writing. More time and effort could then be dedicated to enriching depth of knowledge when students do not have to spend most of their time trying to grasp the demands of building new knowledge from previous literature. Reflecting on my own writing journey, I believe that denying undergraduates understanding of the complexity of academic writing can negatively affect their mental coping strategies to survive their pursuit of higher studies.

## List of References

- Abasi, A. R., Akbari, N., & Graves, B. (2006). Discourse appropriation, construction of identities, and the complex issue of plagiarism: ESL students writing in graduate school. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15(2), 102–117.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2006.05.001>
- Abasi, A. R., & Graves, B. (2008). Academic literacy and plagiarism: Conversations with international graduate students and disciplinary professors. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7(4), 221–233. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.10.010>
- Al-Amer, R., Ramjan, L., Glew, P., Darwish, M., & Salamonsen, Y. (2016). Language translation challenges with Arabic speakers participating in qualitative research studies. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 54, 150–157.  
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2015.04.010>
- Al-Badwawi, H. S. Q. (2011). *The perceptions and practices of first year students' academic writing at the Colleges of Applied Sciences in Oman* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Leeds, United Kingdom.
- Alba-Juez, L. (2009). *Perspective on Discourse Analysis: Theory and Practice*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing
- Alfaro, M. (1996). Intertextuality: Origins and development of the concept. *Atlantis: Revista de La Asociación Española de Estudios Anglo-Norteamericanos*, 18(1), 268–285.  
<https://doi.org/10.2307/41054827>
- Al-Hajri, F. (2013). *An evaluation of the effectiveness and predictive validity of English language assessment in two colleges of applied sciences in Oman*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Edinburgh, United Kingdom.
- Al-Issa, A. (2005). The Implications of the Teacher Educator's Ideological Role for the English Language Teaching System in Oman. *Teaching Education*, 16(4), 337–348.  
<https://doi.org/10.1080/10476210500345656>
- Al-Issa, N. (2017). *Investigating the Perceptions of EAP Teachers about Curriculum Challenges in Colleges of Applied Sciences in Oman*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Exeter, United Kingdom.
- Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J. P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(4), 465–483. <https://doi.org/10.2307/328585>
- Allwright, R. (1981). What do we want teaching materials for? *ELT Journal*, 36(1), 5–18.  
<https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/36.1.5>
- Al-Muqarshi, A. S. (2018). *Group dynamics and the construction of identities in Omani higher education: A case study of cultural diversity using a social identity approach* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Southampton, United Kingdom.
- Al-Sadi, H. (2015). *Learner autonomy and voice in a tertiary ELT institution in Oman* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Sheffield, England.
- Alshenqeeti, H. (2014). Interviewing as a Data Collection Method: A critical Review. *English Linguistic Research*, 3(1), 39-45. <https://doi:10.5430/elr.v3n1p39>
- Bakhtin, M. (1986). *Speech genres and other late essays* (V. McGee, Trans.), Austin, TX: University of Texas Press.
- Barriball, L., & While, A. (1994). Collecting data using a semi-structured interview: A discussion paper. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*, 19(2), 328–335.  
<https://doi:10.1111/j.1365-2648.1994.tb01088.x>
- Bawarshi, A. & Reiff, M. (2010). *Genre: An Introduction to History, Theory, Research, and Pedagogy*. Indiana: Parlor Press

- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 544–559. Retrieved from <http://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol13/iss4/2>
- Baynham, M. (2002). Academic Writing in New and Emergent Discipline Areas. In R. Harrison, F. Reeve, A. Hanson & J. Clarke (Eds.), *Supporting lifelong learning* (pp.188-202). London: Routledge Falmer.
- Bazerman, C. (1988). *Shaping written knowledge: The genre and activity of the experimental article in science*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press Madison.
- Bazerman, C. (1994). *Systems of genres and the enactment of social intentions*. London: Taylor and Francis.
- Bazerman, C. (2004). Intertextuality: How texts rely on other texts. In C. Bazerman & P. Prior (Eds.). *What writing does and how it does it: An introduction to analyzing texts and textual practices* (pp. 83–96). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bazerman, C., Wac Clearinghouse, & Open Textbook Library. (2013). *A rhetoric of literate action: literate action volume 1*. Retrieved from <https://open.umn.edu/opentextbooks/BookDetail.aspx?bookId=307>
- Beaufort, A. (2004). Developmental Gains of a History Major: A Case for Building a Theory of Disciplinary Writing Expertise. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 39(2), 136–185.
- Becher, T., & Trowler, P. R. (2001). *Academic tribes and territories: Intellectual enquiry and the cultures of disciplines* (2nd ed.) Buckingham: Open University Press/SRHE.
- Belsey, C. (2005). Textual analysis as a research method. In G. Griffin (Ed.), *Research methods for English studies* (pp.157-174). Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press
- Berkenkotter, C., & Huckin, T. (1995). *Genre knowledge in disciplinary communication : cognition, culture, power*. Hillsdale, N.J: L. Erlbaum Associates.
- Bhatia, V. K. (1998). Intertextuality in legal discourse. *The Language Teacher*, 22(11), 13–39. Retrieved from <https://bit.ly/2RLa2rs>
- Birbili, M., & Birbili, M. (2001). Translating from One Language to Another. *Social Research Update* (31). Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/60409325/>
- Blommaert, J. (2005). *Discourse. A Critical Introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bloor, M., & Bloor, T. (2007). *The practice of critical discourse analysis: an introduction*. London: Hodder Arnold.
- Borg, E. (2000). Citation practices in academic writing. In P. Thompson (Ed.), *Patterns and perspectives: Insights into EAP writing practices* (pp. 27–45). Reading, PA: University of Reading.
- Bornmann, L., & Daniel, H. (2008). What do citation counts measure? A review of studies on citing behavior. *Journal of Documentation*, 64(1), 45–80. <https://doi.org/10.1108/00220410810844150>
- Braine, G. (2002). Academic literacy and the non-native speaker graduate student. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 1(1), 59–68. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1475-1585\(02\)00006-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1475-1585(02)00006-1)
- Brannen, J. (2005). Mixing Methods: The Entry of Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches into the Research Process. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 8(3), 173–184. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13645570500154642>
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77–101. <https://doi.org/10.1191/1478088706qp063oa>
- Brooks, T. (1986). Evidence of Complex Citer Motivations. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 37(1), 34–36. [https://doi.org/10.1002/\(SICI\)1097-4571\(198601\)37:13.0.CO;2-0](https://doi.org/10.1002/(SICI)1097-4571(198601)37:13.0.CO;2-0)



- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press
- Bryant, C. (1975). Kuhn, paradigms and sociology. *The British Journal of Sociology*, 26(3), 354–359. <https://doi.org/10.2307/589851>
- Bryman, A. (2001). *Social research methods*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Bryman, A. (2012). *Social research methods* (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Butler, K. (2014). Kristeva, Intertextuality, and Re-imagining “The Mad Woman in the Attic”. *Studies in the Literary Imagination* 47(1), 129-147. [doi:10.1353/sli.2014.0000](https://doi.org/10.1353/sli.2014.0000)
- Candlin, C. N. & Hyland, K. (1999). Introduction: Integrating approaches to the study of writing. In C. N. Candlin & K. Hyland (Eds.), *Writing: Texts, Processes and Practices* (pp.1-17). London: Longman.
- Carter, S.P. (2006). "She would've still made that face expression": The uses of multiple literacies by two African American young women. *Theory Into Practice*, 45(4), 352-358. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4504\\_9](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4504_9)
- CAS-Nizwa (2012). Report of an Audit of College of Applied Sciences-Nizwa: Oman Academic Accreditation Authority (QAAA). Retrieved from <https://www.oaaa.gov.om/Review/CAS%20Nizwa%20Report%20Final.pdf>
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge, Mass: M.I.T. Press.
- Chouliarakis, L., & Fairclough, N. (1999). *Discourse in late modernity: rethinking critical discourse analysis*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- Coffey, A., & Atkinson, P. (1996). *Making sense of qualitative data: Complementary research strategies*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Coffin, C. J. (2009). Incorporating and evaluating voices in a Film Studies thesis. *Writing and Pedagogy*, 1(2), 163–193. <https://doi.org/10.1558/wap.v1i2.163>
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education* (6th ed.). London: Routledge.
- Collin, R. (2012). Genre in discourse, discourse in genre: A new approach to the study of literate practice. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 44(1), 76–96.
- Cong, W. (2013). An Analysis of the Attribute of Accounting Discipline from the Historical Process of Accounting Development. *iBusiness*, 05(3B), 128–132. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ib.2013.53b027>
- Creswell, J. W. (1998). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five designs*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. (2009). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. (2014). *Research design : qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed., International Student Edition.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W., & Tashakkori, A. (2007). Editorial: Differing perspectives on mixed methods research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(4), 303–308. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689807306132>
- Creswell, J., & Creswell, J. (2018). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (5th ed., International Student Edition.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Cumming, A., Lai, C., & Cho, H. (2016). Students' writing from sources for academic purposes: A synthesis of recent research. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 23, 47–58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2016.06.002>

- Davis, M. (2013). The development of source use by international postgraduate students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), 125–135. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.008>
- Davis, M. (2014). *The development of competence in source use by international postgraduate students* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of London, United Kingdom.
- Davis, M. (2015). Can EAP meet the needs of international students with source use? *International Student Experience Journal*, 3 (2). Available at <https://bit.ly/2LKxgdl>
- Demski, J. (2007). Is Accounting an Academic Discipline? *Accounting Horizons*, 153–157. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/208924430/>
- Denscombe, M. (2008). Communities of practice: a research paradigm for the mixed methods approach. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 2(3), 270–283. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689808316807>
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1998). *Collecting and interpreting qualitative materials*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Dontcheva-Navratilova, O. (2016). Rhetorical functions of citations in linguistics research articles: A contrastive (English-Czech) study. *Discourse and Interaction*, 9(2), 51–74. <https://doi:10.5817/di2016-2-51>
- Doolan, S., & Fitzsimmons-Doolan, S. (2016). Facilitating L2 Writers' Interpretation of Source Texts. *TESOL Journal*, 7(3), 716–745. <https://doi.org/10.1002/tesj.239>
- Dornyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Doz, Y. (2011). Qualitative research for international business. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 42(5), 582–590. <https://doi.org/10.1057/jibs.2011.18>
- Dremel, A., & Matic, R. (2014). Discourse and/as Social Practice – the Analysis of the Problem of Resistance and Hegemony. *Mediterranean Journal Of Social Sciences*, 5(22), 155. Retrieved from <https://www.mcser.org/journal/index.php/mjss/article/view/4323>
- Dunning, J. (1989). The Study of International Business: A Plea for a More. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 4(11). Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/197152970/>
- Erikson, M., & Erlandson, P. (2014). A taxonomy of motives to cite. *Social Studies of Science*, 44(4), 625–637. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0306312714522871>
- Eun, B., & Lim, H. S. (2009). A sociocultural view of language learning: The importance of meaning-based instruction. *TESL Canada Journal*, 27(1), 12–26. <https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v27i1.1031>
- Fairclough, N. (1992). Discourse and Text: Linguistic and Intertextual Analysis within Discourse Analysis. *Discourse & Society*, 3(2), 193–217. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0957926592003002004>
- Fairclough, N. (2003). *Analysing discourse: Textual analysis for social research*. London: Routledge.
- Fairclough, N. (2010). Discourse, social theory, and social research: the discourse of welfare reform. In *Critical Discourse Analysis: The Critical Study of Language* (pp. 179–213). <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315834368-24>
- Fang, Z., & Coatoam, S. (2013). Disciplinary Literacy : What You Want to Know About It. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 56(8), 627–632. <https://doi.org/10.1002/JAAL.190>
- Farquhar, J. (2012). *Case study research for business*. Los Angeles, [Calif.]: SAGE.
- Flowerdew, J., & Flowerdew, J. (2015). John Swales's approach to pedagogy in Genre Analysis: A perspective from 25 years on. *Journal of English for Academic*

- Purposes*, 19(Sep), 102–112. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1735642412/>
- Flowerdew, J., & Li, Y. (2007). Plagiarism and second language writing in an electronic age. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 27, 161–183. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0267190508070086>
- Freedman, A. (1993). Show and tell? The role of explicit teaching in the learning of new genres. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 27, 222–251.
- Gee, J. (2005). *An introduction to discourse analysis : theory and method* (Second edition.). London, New York: Routledge.
- Gee, J. (2014). *An introduction to discourse analysis : theory and method* (Fourth edition.). Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.
- Gibbs, G. R. (2007). Thematic coding and categorizing. In Gibbs, G. R (Ed.), *Qualitative Research kit: Analyzing qualitative data* (pp. 38-55). London, England: SAGE Publications, Ltd. [doi:10.4135/9781849208574](https://doi.org/10.4135/9781849208574)
- Graham, C. (2013). Teaching accounting as a language. *Critical Perspectives on Accounting*, 24(2), 120–126. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cpa.2012.01.006>
- Green, S. (2016). Teaching disciplinary writing as social practice: moving beyond “text-in-context” designs in UK Higher Education. *Journal of Academic Writing* 6(1), 98-107 <http://dx.doi.org/10.18552/joaw.v6i1.286>
- Green, S. (2020). *Scaffolding academic literacy with low-proficiency users of English*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, 11(3), 255–274. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1163620>
- Groom, N.W. (2007). *Phraseology and epistemology in humanities writing: a corpus-driven study* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The University of Birmingham, United Kingdom.
- Gu, Q., & Brooks, J. (2008). Beyond the accusation of plagiarism. *System*, 36(3), 337–352. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2008.01.004>
- Guba, E. G. (1990). *The paradigm dialog*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Hanney, S., Frame, I., Grant, J., Buxton, M., Young, T., & Lewison, G. (2005). Using categorisations of citations when assessing the outcomes from health research. *Scientometrics*, 65(3), 357–379. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11192-005-0279-y>
- Harwood, N. (2005). What do we want EAP teaching materials for? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 4(2), 149–161. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2004.07.008>
- Harwood, N. (2009). An interview-based study of the functions of citations in academic writing across two disciplines. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 41(3), 497–518. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2008.06.001>
- Harwood, N. (2010). Research-based materials to demystify academic citation for postgraduates. In N. Harwood, (ed.) *English Language Teaching Materials: Theory & Practice*, pp.301-321. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, pp.301-321
- Hatim, B. (1997). Intertextual intrusions: towards a framework for harnessing the power of the absent text in translation. In *Translating sensitive texts: Linguistic aspects* (29-45). Amsterdam and Atlanta: GA Rodopi
- Hatim, B., & Munday, J. (2004). *Translation: an advanced resource book*. London: Routledge.
- Hendricks, M., & Quinn, L. (2000). Teaching Referencing as an Introduction to Epistemological Empowerment. *Teaching in Higher Education*, 5(4), 447–457. <https://doi.org/10.1080/713699175>

- Hirvela, A., & Du, Q. (2013). "Why am I paraphrasing?" Undergraduate ESL writers' engagement with source-based academic writing and reading. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), 87–98. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.005>
- Hoadley-Maidment, E. (2000). From Personal Experience to Reflective Practitioner: Academic Literacies and Education. In M. Lea & B. Stierer (Eds.), *Student Writing in Higher Education: New Contexts*. Buckingham: SRHE and Open University Press
- Holmes, J. (2004). Intertextuality in EAP: An African context. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 3(1), 73–88. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s1475-1585\(03\)00030-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/s1475-1585(03)00030-4)
- Howard, R. M. (1995). Plagiarisms, authorships, and the academic death penalty. *College English*, 57(7), 788–806. <https://doi.org/10.2307/378403>
- Howard, R. M. (1999). *Standing in the shadow of giants: Plagiarists, authors, collaborators*. Stamford, CT: Ablex.
- Howard, R. M., & Jamieson, S. (2011). *The citation project: Preventing plagiarism, teaching writing*. Retrieved from <http://site.citationproject.net/>
- Hunter, K., & Tse, H. (2013). Making disciplinary writing and thinking practices an integral part of academic content teaching. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 14(3), 227–239. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787413498037>
- Hutchinson T., & Waters A. (2002). *English for specific purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. (1999). Academic attribution: Citation and the construction of disciplinary knowledge. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(3), 341–367. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/20.3.341>
- Hyland, K. (2002). *Teaching and researching writing*. Harlow: Longman.
- Hyland, K. (2003). Genre-based pedagogies: A social response to process. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(1), 17–29. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743\(02\)00124-8](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1060-3743(02)00124-8)
- Hyland, K. (2004). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, 7(2), 173–192. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445605050365>
- Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16(3), 148–164. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2007.07.005>
- Hyland, K. (2015). Genre, discipline and identity. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 19(C), 32–43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2015.02.005>
- Hyland, K., & Tse, P. (2007). Is there an "academic vocabulary"? *TESOL Quarterly*, 41(2), 235–253. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2007.tb00058.x>
- Hyon, S. (1996). Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(4), 693–722. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587930>
- James, M. (2006). Transfer of Learning from a University Content-Based EAP Course. *TESOL Quarterly: A Journal for Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages and of Standard English as a Second Dialect*, 40(4), 783–806. <https://doi.org/10.2307/40264308>
- Jalilifar, A. (2012). Academic attribution: citation analysis in master's theses and research articles in applied linguistics. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 22(1), 23–41. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1473-4192.2011.00291.x>
- Johns, A. M. (2002). *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives*. Mahwah, NJ: L. Erlbaum. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/11.3.253>
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14–26. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189x033007014>

- John-Steiner, V., & Mahn, H. (1996). Sociocultural approaches to learning and development: A Vygotskian framework. *Educational Psychologist*, 31(3-4), 191-206. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep3103&4\\_4](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep3103&4_4)
- Jupp, V. (2006). *The SAGE dictionary of social research methods*. London: Sage.
- Kafes, H. (2017). Citation practices among novice and expert academic writers. *Ted Eğitim ve Bilim*, 42, 441-462. <https://doi:10.15390/eb.2017.6317>
- Karatsolis, A. (2016). Rhetorical Patterns in Citations across Disciplines and Levels of Participation. *Journal of Writing Research*, 7(3), 425–452. <https://doi.org/10.17239/jowr-2016.07.03.06>
- Keck, C. (2006). The use of paraphrase in summary writing: A comparison of L1 and L2 writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15(4), 261–278. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jslw.2006.09.006>
- Kibler, A., & Hardigree, C. (2017). Using Evidence in L2 Argumentative Writing: A Longitudinal Case Study Across High School and University. *Language Learning*, 67(1), 75–109. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12198>
- Kress, G. (2011). A Multimodal Social Semiotic Approach. In R. Rogers (Ed.), *An introduction to critical discourse analysis* (pp.205-255). New York: Routledge.
- Kristeva, J. (1980). *Desire in language: a semiotic approach to literature and art*. New York: Columbia University Press.
- Kublin, K. S., Wetherby, A. M., Crais, E. R., & Prizant, B. M. (1998). Prelinguistic dynamic assessment: A transactional perspective. In A. M. Wetherby, S.F. Warren, & J. Reichle (Eds.), *Transitions in prelinguistic communication* (pp. 285–312). Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.
- Kuzborska, I. (2011). Teachers' decision-making processes when designing EAP reading materials in a Lithuanian university setting. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, pp 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2011.07.003>
- Kvale, S. (2007). Epistemological issues of interviewing. In Kvale, S., *Qualitative Research kit: Doing interviews* (pp. 11-22). London: SAGE Publications. <https://doi:10.4135/9781849208963>
- Lambert, B. & Clyde. M. (2000). *Re-Thinking Early Childhood Theory and Practice*. Australia: Social Science Press
- Landis, J., Koch, G., & Landis, J. (1977). The measurement of observer agreement for categorical data. *Biometrics*, 33(1), 159–174. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2529310>
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Laughton, D. (2005). The Development of International Business as an Academic Discipline: Some Implications for Teachers and Students. *Journal of Teaching in International Business*, 16(3), 47–70. [https://doi.org/10.1300/J066v16n03\\_04](https://doi.org/10.1300/J066v16n03_04)
- Lea, M., & Street, B. (1998). Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach. *Studies in Higher Education*, 23(2), 157–172. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03075079812331380364>
- Lea, M., & Street, B. (2006). The “Academic Literacies” Model: Theory and Applications. *Theory Into Practice*, 45(4), 368–377. [https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4504\\_11](https://doi.org/10.1207/s15430421tip4504_11)
- Lee, J., Hitchcock, C., & Elliott Casal, J. (2018). Citation practices of L2 university students in first-year writing: Form, function, and stance. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 33, 1–11. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2018.01.001>
- Leki, I., & Carson, J. (1994). Students' Perceptions of EAP Writing Instruction and Writing Needs across the Disciplines. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(1), 81–101. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/62813019/>



- Lemke, J. L. (1992). Intertextuality and educational research. *Linguistics and Education*, 4(3–4), 257–267. [http://doi:10.1016/0898-5898\(92\)90003-F](http://doi:10.1016/0898-5898(92)90003-F)
- Li, Y., & Casanave, C. (2012). Two first-year students' strategies for writing from sources: Patchwriting or plagiarism? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(2), 165–180. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2012.03.002>
- Lichtman, M. (2014). *Qualitative research for the social sciences*. 55 City Road, London: SAGE Publications, Inc. <https://doi:10.4135/9781544307756>
- Lillis, T. (2001). *Student writing: Access, regulation, desire*. London: Routledge.
- Lincoln, Y., & Guba, E. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Linton, P., Madigan, R., & Johnson, S. (1994). Introducing students to disciplinary genres: the role of the general composition course. *Language and Learning Across the Disciplines*, 1(2), 63–78. Retrieved from <https://wac.colostate.edu/llad/v1n2/linton.pdf>
- Liu, G., Lin, V., Kou, X., & Wang, H. (2016). Best practices in L2 English source use pedagogy: A thematic review and synthesis of empirical studies. *Educational Research Review*, 19, 36–57. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.edurev.2016.06.002>
- Lipetz, B. (1965). Improvement of the selectivity of citation indexes to science literature through inclusion of citation relationship indicators. *American Documentation*, 16(2), 81–90. <https://doi.org/10.1002/asi.5090160207>
- Mansourizadeh, K., & Ahmad, U. K. (2011). Citation practices among non-native expert and novice scientific writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(3), 152–161. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jeap.2011.03.004>
- Martala, M. (2006). Tracking pre-sessional students' writing abilities at the University of Hertfordshire. In A. Gillett and L. Wray (Eds.), *Assessing the Effectiveness of EAP Programmes* (pp.40-55). London: BALEARP.
- Mason, J. (2002). *Qualitative researching*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Mauranen, A., & Ranta, E. (Eds.). (2009). *English as a lingua franca: Studies and findings*. Newcastle upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- Merriam, S. B. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation: Revised and expanded from qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Miller, C. (1984). Genre as a Social Action. *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 70 (1), 151-167. <https://doi:10.1080/00335638409383686>
- Mills, A., Durepos, G., & Wiebe, E. (2010). *Encyclopedia of case study research*. Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- MoHE. (2016, June 15). *Heads of English Departments Exam Board Meeting*. English Programme Director Archives, MoHE, Muscat.
- MoHE. (2017a). *Course Specifications of English for Academic Purposes*: Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.
- MoHE. (2017b). *Introduction to Research Methods*. Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.
- MoHE. (2017c). *Project Specifications of English for Specific Purposes*: Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.
- MoHE. (2018a). *CAS plagiarism Policy*. Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.
- MoHE. (2018b). *Course Specification of Graduation Project for International Business*. Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.
- MoHE. (2018c). *Course Specification of Graduation Project for Accounting*. Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.
- MoHE. (2018d). *Research Report format*. Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.
- MoHE. (2018e). *Foundation Programme Prospectus*. Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.

- MoHE. (2019). *Information about the Department of International Business and Administration*. Muscat, Sultanate of Oman.
- Moravcsik, M. J., & Murugesan, P. (1975). Some Results on the Function and Quality of Citations. *Social Studies of Science*, 5(1), 86-92. <https://doi.org/10.1177/030631277500500106>
- Morgan, D. (2007). Paradigms Lost and Pragmatism Regained: Methodological Implications of Combining Qualitative and Quantitative Methods. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 48–76. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2345678906292462>
- Morrow, S. (2005). Quality and Trustworthiness in Qualitative Research in Counseling Psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 52(2), 250–260. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.52.2.250>
- Nesi, H., & Gardner, S. (2012). *Genres across the disciplines: student writing in higher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nurjannah, I., Mills, J., Park, T., & Usher, K. (2014). Conducting a Grounded Theory Study in a Language Other Than English: Procedures for Ensuring the Integrity of Translation. *SAGE Open*, 4(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244014528920>
- Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Teddlie, C. (2003). A framework for analyzing data in mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 397–430). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Östlund, U., Kidd, L., Wengström, Y., & Rowa-Dewar, N. (2011). Combining qualitative and quantitative research within mixed method research designs: A methodological review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 48(3), 369–383. <https://doi:10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2010.10.005>
- Ott, B., & Walter, C. (2000). Intertextuality: Interpretive practice and textual strategy. *Critical Studies in Media Communication*, 17(4), 429–446. <https://doi:10.1080/15295030009388412>
- Paltridge, B. (2002). *Discourse analysis: An introduction*. London: Continuum
- Park, J. (2015). Student interactivity and teacher participation: an application of legitimate peripheral participation in higher education online learning environments. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education*, 24(3), 389–406. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1475939X.2014.935743>
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative interviewing. Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Peacock, M. (2006). A cross-disciplinary comparison of boosting in research articles. *Corpora*, 1(1), 61–84. <https://doi:10.3366/cor.2006.1.1.61>
- Pecorari, D. (2002). *Original reproductions: An investigation of the source use of postgraduate second language writers* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Birmingham, UK.
- Pecorari, D. (2003). Good and original: Plagiarism and patchwriting in academic second-language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(4), 317-345. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jslw.2003.08.004>
- Pecorari, D. (2006). Visible and occluded citation features in postgraduate second-language writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, 25(1), 4-29. <https://doi:10.1016/j.esp.2005.04.004>
- Pecorari, D. (2013). *Teaching to avoid plagiarism: how to promote good source use*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.
- Pecorari, D., & Petrić, B. (2014). *Plagiarism in second-language writing*. 47(3), 269–302. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444814000056>
- Pennycook, A. (1996). Borrowing others' words: Text, ownership, memory, and plagiarism. *TESOL Quarterly*, 30(2), 201–230. <https://doi:10.2307/3588141>

- Peritz, B. (1983). A note on "scholarliness" and "impact." *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 34(5), 360–362. <https://doi.org/10.1002/asi.4630340508>
- Petrić, B. (2007). Rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-rated Masters theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(3), 238–253. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jeap.2007.09.002>
- Petrić, B. (2012). Legitimate textual borrowing: Direct quotation in L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(2), 102–117. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jslw.2012.03.005>
- Petrić, B., & Harwood, N. (2013). Task requirements, task representation, and self-reported citation functions: An exploratory study of a successful L2 student's writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), 110–124. <https://doi:10.1016/j.jeap.2013.01.002>
- Phillips, N., Lawrence, T., & Hardy, C. (2004). Discourse and Institutions. *The Academy of Management Review*, 29(4), 635-652. <https://doi:10.2307/20159075>
- Piaget, J. (1986). Essay on Necessity. *Human Development*, 29(6), 301–314. <https://doi.org/10.1159/000273106>
- Polio, C., & Shi, L. (2012). Perceptions and beliefs about textual appropriation and source use in second language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(2), 95–101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2012.03.001>
- Potter, L., Hellens, L., & Nielsen, S. (2010). The Practical Challenges of Case Study Research: Lessons from the field. In W. Bandara, W. Fernandez, L. Haughton, & B. Rowlands (Eds.), *5th International Conference on Qualitative Research in IT and IT in Qualitative Research, QualIT 2010*. Brisbane, QUT, Griffith University and ANU. Retrieved from: <https://research-repository.griffith.edu.au/handle/10072/37194>
- Prior, P. (2004). Tracing process: How texts come into being. In C. Bazerman & P. Prior (Eds.), *What writing does and how it does it: An introduction to analyzing texts and textual practices* (pp. 167–200). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Richards, K. (2009). Trends in qualitative research in language teaching since 2000. *Language Teaching*, 42(02), 147–180. <https://doi:10.1017/s0261444808005612>
- Ritchie, J., Lewis, Elam, G., Tennant, R., & Rahim, N. (2014). Designing and selecting samples. In J. Ritchie, J. Lewis, C. McNaughton Nicholls, & R. Ormston (Eds.), *Qualitative research practice: a guide for social science students and researchers* (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) (pp. 111-142). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Robson, C. (1993). *Real world research: A resource for users of social research methods in applied settings*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Robson, C. (2011). *Real world research: A resource for users of social research methods in applied settings*. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Rowley, J. (2002). Using case studies in research. *Management Research News* 25(1), 16-27. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01409170210782990>
- Ruiying, Y., & Allison, D. (2003). Research articles in applied linguistics: moving from results to conclusions. *English for Specific Purposes*, 22(4), 365–385. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906\(02\)00026-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(02)00026-1)
- Samraj, B. (2002). Disciplinary Variation in Abstracts: The Case of Wildlife Behaviour and Conservation Biology. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic Discourse* (pp. 40-56). London: Pearson.
- Samraj, B. (2006). Worlds of Written Discourse: A Genre-based View. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 28(4), 651-653. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S027226310633029X>.
- Samraj, B. (2008). A discourse analysis of Masters theses across disciplines with a focus on introductions. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 7(1), 55–67. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.02.005>



- Samraj, B. (2013). Form and function of citations in discussion sections of master's theses and research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(4), 299–310. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2013.09.001>
- Scardamalia, M., & Bereiter, C. (1987). Knowledge telling and knowledge transforming in written composition. In S. Rosenberg (Ed.), *Cambridge monographs and texts in applied psycholinguistics. Advances in applied psycholinguistics, Vol. 1. Disorders of first-language development; Vol. 2. Reading, writing, and language learning* (p. 142–175). Cambridge University Press.
- Schiffrin, D., Tannen, D., & Hamilton, H. (2001). *The Handbook of Discourse Analysis*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Shannon-Baker, P. (2016). Making Paradigms Meaningful in Mixed Methods Research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 10(4), 319–334. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689815575861>
- Shenton, A. K. (2004). Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research projects. *Education for Information*, 22(2), 63–75. <https://doi:10.3233/efi-2004-22201>
- Shi, L. (2004). Textual borrowing in second-language writing. *Written Communication*, 21(2), 171–200. <https://doi:10.1177/0741088303262846>
- Shi, L. (2010). Textual appropriation and citing behaviors of university undergraduates. *Applied Linguistics*, 31(1), 1–24. <https://doi:10.1093/applin/amn045>
- Shi, L. (2011). Common knowledge, learning, and citation practices in university writing. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 45(3), 308–334. Retrieved from <https://bit.ly/35gYaRF>
- Small, H. (1982). Citation Context Analysis. In B. Dervin & J. M. Voigt (Eds.), *Progress in Communication Science* (pp. 287–310). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Smith, L. (1994). The development of modal understanding: Piaget's possibility and necessity. *New Ideas in Psychology*, 12(1), 73–87. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0732-118X\(94\)90059-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/0732-118X(94)90059-0)
- Smith, A. (2005). Citations and Links as a Measure of Effectiveness of Online LIS Journals. *The IFLA Journal*, 31(1), 76–84. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0340035205052651>
- Smyth, A., & Holian, R. (2008). Credibility Issues in Research from within Organisations. In P. Sikes & A. Potts (Eds.), *Researching education from the inside* (pp. 33–47). New York, NY: Taylor & Francis
- Spack, R. (1997). The rhetorical construction of multilingual students. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(4), 765–774. <https://doi:10.2307/3587759>
- Squires, A. (2009). Methodological challenges in cross-language qualitative research: A research review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 46(2), 277–287. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2008.08.006>
- Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Stance, S., & Kao, P. (2010). Examining second language learning: Taking a sociocultural stance. *ARECLS*, 7, 113–131. Retrieved from [https://research.ncl.ac.uk/media/sites/researchwebsites/arecls/kao\\_vol7.pdf](https://research.ncl.ac.uk/media/sites/researchwebsites/arecls/kao_vol7.pdf)
- Street, B. (1984). *Literacy in Theory and Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Street, B. (1997). The Implications of the "New Literacy Studies" for Literacy Education. *English in Education*, 31(3), 45–59. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-8845.1997.tb00133.x>
- Street, B. (2003). What's 'new' in New Literacy Studies? Critical approaches to literacy in theory and practice. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 5(2), 77-91. Retrieved from: [https://www.tc.columbia.edu/cice/pdf/25734\\_5\\_2\\_Street.pdf](https://www.tc.columbia.edu/cice/pdf/25734_5_2_Street.pdf)

- Stubbs, M. (1983). *Discourse analysis: The sociolinguistic analysis of natural language*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Swales, J. (1980). ESP: The textbook problem. *The ESP Journal*, 1(1), 11–23.  
[https://doi.org/10.1016/0272-2380\(80\)90006-2](https://doi.org/10.1016/0272-2380(80)90006-2)
- Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swales, J. (2014). Variation in Citational Practice in a Corpus of Student Biology Papers: From Parenthetical Plonking to Intertextual Storytelling. *Written Communication*, 31(1), 118–141. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0741088313515166>
- Swales, J. M. (2016). Reflections on the concept of discourse community. *ASp. la revue du GERAS*, 69, 7–19. <https://doi:10.4000/asp.4774>
- Tabatabaei N. (2013). *Contribution of information science to other disciplines as reflected in citation contexts of highly cited JASIST papers* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). McGill University: Montreal, Canada.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Tawalbeh, T. (2018). Instructors' Perceptions of English for Academic Purposes Textbooks at University Level. *Higher Education Studies*, 8(4), 153.  
<https://doi:10.5539/hes.v8n4p153>
- Temple, B., & Young, A. (2004). Qualitative research and translation dilemmas. *Qualitative Research*, 4(2), 161–178. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1468794104044430>
- Thompson, P. (2000). Citation practices in PhD theses. In L. Burnard & T. McEnery (Eds.), *Rethinking language pedagogy from a corpus perspective*. Frankfurt: Peter Lang.
- Thompson, P. (2001). *A pedagogically-motivated corpus-based examination of PhD theses: Macrostructure, citation practices and uses of modal verbs* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Reading, UK: University of Reading.
- Thompson, P. (2005). Points of focus and position: Intertextual reference in PhD theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 4(4), 307–323.  
<https://doi:10.1016/j.jeap.2005.07.006>
- Thompson, P., & Tribble, C. (2001). Looking at citations: Using corpora in English for academic purposes. *Language Learning and Technology*, 5(3), 91–105. Retrieved from <https://www.lltjournal.org/>
- Tuli, F. (2010). The basis of distinction between qualitative and quantitative research in social science: Reflection on ontological, epistemological and methodological perspectives. *Ethiopian Journal of Education and Sciences*, 6(1), 97–108.  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.4314/ejesc.v6i1.65384>
- Uba, S. (2017). *Authorial stance in accounting PhD theses in a Nigerian university* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Leeds, UK.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher mental process*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1981). The genesis of higher mental functions. In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *The concept of activity in Soviet psychology* (pp. 145–188). Armonk, N.Y.: Sharpe.
- Wahyuni, D. (2012). The research design maze: understanding paradigms, cases, methods and methodologies. *Journal of Applied Management Accounting Research*, 10(1), 69–80. Retrieved from <http://dro.deakin.edu.au/view/DU:30057483>
- Walford, G. (2001). *Doing qualitative educational research: A personal guide to the research process*. London: Continuum.
- Wang, W. (2016). Intertextual practices in academic writing by Chinese ESL students. *Applied Linguistics Review*, 7(1), 53–72. <https://doi.org/10.1515/applirev-2016-0003>
- Webster, S., Lewis, J. & Brown, A. (2014). Ethical considerations in qualitative research. In J. Ritchie, J. Lewis, C. Nicholls McNaughton & R. Ormston (Eds.). *Qualitative*

- research in practice: a guide for social science students and researchers* (pp.77-110). London: Sage.
- Wellington, J. (2000). *Educational research : contemporary issues and practical approaches*. London: Continuum Publishing Co.
- Wette, R. (2017). L2 undergraduate students learning to write using sources: a trajectory of skill development. In Bichener, Storch, & Wette (Eds). *Teaching Writing for Academic Purposes to Multilingual Students: Instructional Approaches*, (pp147-168). London: Routledge
- Wette, R. (2017). Source text use by undergraduate post-novice L2 writers in disciplinary assignments: Progress and ongoing challenges. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 37, 46–58. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jslw.2017.05.015>
- Wette, R. (2018). Source-based writing in a health sciences essay: Year 1 students' perceptions, abilities and strategies. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 36, 61–75. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2018.09.006>
- Wette, R. (2019). Embedded provision to develop source-based writing skills in a Year 1 health sciences course: How can the academic literacy developer contribute? *English for Specific Purposes*, 56, 35–49. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2019.07.002>
- White, M., & Wang, P. (1997). A Qualitative Study of Citing Behavior: Contributions, Criteria, and Metalevel Documentation Concerns. *The Library Quarterly: Information, Community, Policy*, 67(2), 122-154. <https://doi.org/10.1086/629929>
- Wiles, R., Crow, G., Heath, S., & Charles, V. (2008). The management of confidentiality and anonymity in social research. *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 11(5), 417-428. <https://doi.10.1080/13645570701622231>
- Wingate, U. (2006). Doing away with “study skills.” *Teaching in Higher Education*, 11(4), 457–469. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13562510600874268>
- Wingate, U., Andon, N., & Cogo, A. (2011). Embedding academic writing instruction into subject teaching: A case study. *Active Learning in Higher Education*, 12(1), 69–81. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1469787410387814>
- Yeh, C. J., & Inman, A. G. (2007). Qualitative data analysis and interpretation in counseling psychology: Strategies for best practices. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 35(3), 369–403. <http://doi:10.1177/0011000006292596>
- Yin, R. (1989). *Case study research: design and methods* (Revised ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. (2003). *Case study research: design and methods* (3<sup>rd</sup> ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. (2014). *Case study research: design and methods* (5<sup>th</sup> ed.). Los Angeles, CA: SAGE.
- Zainal, Z. (2007). Case study as a research method. *Journal Kemanusiaan*, 5(1), 1–6. Retrieved from <https://bit.ly/36sJyyT>
- Zhang, Z. (2007). Towards an integrated approach to teaching Business English: A Chinese experience. *English for Specific Purposes*, 26(4), 399–410. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2006.10.006>
- Zhao, R. & Hirvela, A. (2015). Undergraduate ESL students' engagement in academic reading and writing in learning to write a synthesis paper. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 27(2), 219-241. Retrieved from <https://bit.ly/2RHmYOx>

## Appendix A Interview Questions

### A.1 Interview questions for IB and Accounting students

In this phase of the interview, I will be conducting interviews with the students whose assignments will be used for the analysis. These students are from two different disciplines: Business Administration and Accounting. This first phase of the interview aims to explore students' background information in relation to academic writing, including use of sources specifically when writing their disciplinary written work. It is also expected to reveal the students' challenges when they use sources and their perception of the institution and department roles in improving their source-use practice during their academic study in the institution.

#### Introduction

Thank you for coming for the interview. This interview will take about 40 minutes in 4 parts. In the first part, I will ask you some questions related to academic disciplinary writing in this institution. In the second part, the question will focus on your understanding of source-use in your academic writing. The third part will be about the support you get from the college and the department that affects your academic writing. The last part will be about the challenges you have faced when you use sources in your disciplinary writing.

#### Establish a rapport

The interview begins with a greeting and showing a genuine appreciation for the participant's time.

1. Good morning, how are you today and how is your study going?
2. Can you please tell me about you and about your study in this institution?
3. Tell about your discipline and why you chose to study (IBA or Accounting)

#### Part 1: Disciplinary academic writing in the institution

1. Tell me about your experience with academic writing in this college.
2. How can you describe your level of academic writing now compared to when you first started studying here?
3. How important is academic writing in your study?
4. How frequently are you asked to write in your discipline for assessment purposes?
5. Can you tell me whether academic writing should be given this importance?
6. Can you tell me whether you find writing in your discipline is different from other types of writing you do for other courses, such as English or elective courses?

#### Part 2: Source-use practice

1. How often are you required to use sources in your subject writing?
2. Why do you think we need to use sources when we write?
3. Can you tell me whether you feel confident when you present external sources in your writing?
4. Can you tell me whether you find using sources in your disciplinary writing different from the writing you do for other departments?
5. Can you tell me whether you have experienced different practices of source use from the one practiced in your institution?

6. Kindly read these two sentences and tell me what the difference between them is. Which one do you think you would use in your academic writing?
  - a) The number of female students in higher education institutions has increased considerably in the last few years.
  - b) The number of female students in higher education institutions in Oman is reported to be higher than male students, with 57.7% to female students and 42.4% for male students (OER, 2015).

*Rationale: to see if students can recognize the importance of citation in the second example and what it adds to the validity of the numeric details shown in the second example.*

7. Please read the following sentences and tell me what you understand of the role of sources.
  - a) According to Pecorari (2003), students' level of language is the main reason why non-native English writers are found to be less competent with source-use.
  - b) There are many reasons for plagiarism; for example, high linguistic demands made by disciplinary teachers can lead students to plagiarize to meet their teachers' high unrealistic expectations of language (Howard, 1998).
  - c) In this work, I will use Peter's (2009) model in analysing the data.
  - d) Being with CAS graduate students gave valuable information that helped me write my interview questions in Arabic so that I became a "retrospective researcher" (Reinhartz, 1992).
  - e) The study done by Salman (2006) is very useful for future employment plans that might be introduced by the government.

*Rationale: to find out if students are able to point out the different functions of citations and the signals they highlight to justify their understanding of the citation functions, e.g. reporting verbs.*

8. Can you tell me about the different ways we can show other writers' ideas and words in our own writing?
9. Please read the following part of an article from "Most people don't know climate change is entirely human-made" by Le Page, 2017 (p. 32). Can you then identify the citation style or type used in the following examples (a-c)?

*"How much of the warming over the past century do you think is caused by human actions, as opposed to natural processes?"*

*If you think natural processes have played a big part, you are far from alone. Less than half of people in the UK (43 per cent), Germany (49 per cent) and Norway (just 34 per cent) think climate change is mainly or entirely due to human activities, according to a public opinion survey. In France, a slim majority (55 per cent) holds this view.*

*The correct answer, by the way, is that more than 100 per cent of the warming over the past century is due to human actions. How can it be more than 100 per cent? Because without us the planet would likely have cooled very slightly thanks to natural factors such as volcanic emissions and orbital changes.*

*Even fewer people understand that the overwhelming majority of scientists agree climate change is happening and is largely due to people. Only around a third of people in all four countries thought more than 80 per cent of scientists agree with this. In fact, more than 90 per cent of scientists do. Among those actively studying the climate, the consensus is 97 per cent."*

- a) Many people in Europe believe that climate change is caused by human industry (Le Page, 2017).
- b) Le Page (2017) states that “more than 100 per cent of the warming over the past century is due to human actions” (p. 32).
- c) Less people understand that the overwhelming majority of scientists agree climate change is happening and is largely due to people.

*Rationale: to find out if students can recognize the different styles of citation, paraphrases or quotations and if they can point out what needs to be done in example C (plagiarized text).*

#### **Part 4: Challenges with source use**

1. Do you feel you need more training in using sources in your writing?
2. Where do you get your knowledge about source use and the role it plays in academic writing?
3. What are the challenges you face when you write for your assignments?
4. What are the challenges you face when you use sources in your writing?
5. Do the teachers from your discipline provide any teaching or feedback on how to use sources in your assignment writing? Do you think what they provide you with is enough?
6. What is the college’s and department’s role in shaping your source-use skills in academic writing? Do you think they need to do more?
7. Do subject teachers require you to use sources differently than the English teachers do, for example?

## **A.2 Interview questions for teachers**

### **Establish a rapport and explore the background of the participant**

The interview begins with a greeting and showing a genuine appreciation for the participant’s time.

1. Good morning, how are you today and how is your study going?
2. Can you please tell me about you and about your teaching experience in this institution?
3. Can you tell me about the nature of your teaching in this department?
4. Can you tell me about your role as a teacher on this course?

### **Interview purpose**

After going through the information sheet for this study, I hope you are clear about the aim of this research and the role of this interview. Kindly feel free to ask for any clarification.

The questions in this interview will be addressed to the discipline teachers who teach the two courses under investigation in the study: IBA and Accounting. The interview aims to gain insights into the discipline teachers’ perspectives of source-use in their disciplines and their role in transferring their knowledge of source-use to their students. The interview will take about 30 minutes.

### **Discipline academic writing**

1. From your experience of working for this institution, can you tell me about the importance of academic writing in your discipline?

2. Do you think academic writing should be given this importance? Why do you think so?
3. How would you describe your students' level of academic writing? Are they meeting the departments' academic writing demands? If not, what do you do about it?
4. Do you find academic writing in this discipline different from writing in other disciplines? If yes, how?

#### **Source-use in the discipline**

1. What do you think of this statement: "[A]n appropriate intertextuality is an index of successful academic achievement for students" (Shaw & Pecorari, 2013, p. A1). Do you agree with the statement?
2. How is source-use in academic writing in your discipline different from other disciplines?
3. Can you tell me about the common practice of source-use in your discipline?
4. Is source-use practice in your discipline adequately addressed in the course teaching materials and in the assessment rubric for any written assignment?
5. How can you describe your students' source-use skill at this level of their study?

#### **Role of teachers and institution and source-use**

1. Can you tell me about your role in teaching your disciplinary practice of source-use to your students?
2. Do you provide your students with feedback about source-use in their written assignment? How do you give it?
3. What are the steps you take to ensure that students understand the assignment's requirements related to source-use?
4. Does the institution provide any instruction or policies regarding source-use in academic writing?
5. Do the department administration (HoD and coordinators) provide you with any supporting materials related to academic writing and source-use?
6. What do you think needs to be done to improve students' competence in source-use practice when writing for their discipline?

Is source-use practice in your discipline adequately addressed in the course teaching materials and in the assessment rubric for any written assignment? Please explain.

## Appendix B Research Ethical Approval

Research and Innovation Service  
Level 11, Worsley Building  
University of Leeds  
Leeds, LS2 9NL  
Tel: 0113 343 4873

Email: [ResearchEthics@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:ResearchEthics@leeds.ac.uk)



**UNIVERSITY OF LEEDS**

Faiza AL-Dhahli  
School of Education  
University of Leeds  
Leeds, LS2 9JT

**ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee  
University of Leeds**

3 December 2019

Dear Faiza

**Title of study:** Source-use practice across academic essays in two disciplines: a case of undergraduate second language writers.

**Ethics reference:** AREA 16-047

I am pleased to inform you that the above research application has been reviewed by the ESSL, Environment and LUBS (AREA) Faculty Research Ethics Committee and I can confirm a favourable ethical opinion as of the date of this letter. The following documentation was considered:

Document	Version	Date
AREA 16-047 Ethical Review Form PhD Faiza al Dhahli.doc	1	27/10/16



AREA 16-047 Consent and information sheets.docx	1	27/10/16
AREA 16-047 final Low-Risk-Fieldwork-RA-form.doc	1	27/10/16

- You might want to include direct quotations from the essays or interviews in your work. If you do it might be easier to request permission for this at the outset as by the time you come to write up your thesis it might be difficult to contact the students (they may have left the university).

Please notify the committee if you intend to make any amendments to the information in your ethics application as submitted at date of this approval as all changes must receive ethical approval prior to implementation. The amendment form is available at <http://ris.leeds.ac.uk/EthicsAmendment>.

Please note: You are expected to keep a record of all your approved documentation, as well as documents such as sample consent forms, and other documents relating to the study. This should be kept in your study file, which should be readily available for audit purposes. You will be given a two week notice period if your project is to be audited. There is a checklist listing examples of documents to be kept which is available at <http://ris.leeds.ac.uk/EthicsAudits>.

We welcome feedback on your experience of the ethical review process and suggestions for improvement. Please email any comments to [ResearchEthics@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:ResearchEthics@leeds.ac.uk).

Yours sincerely

Jennifer Blaikie

Senior Research Ethics Administrator, Research & Innovation Service

On behalf of Dr Kahryn Hughes, Chair, [AREA Faculty Research Ethics Committee](#)

CC: Student's supervisor(s)

## Appendix C Research Information Sheet

### Source-use Practice in Research Reports: The case of Colleges of Applied Sciences Undergraduates in the Disciplines of Accounting and International Business

You are being invited to participate in a research project. It is important to know and understand why this research is being conducted and what it will involve, before you make any decision whether to take part or not. Would you mind taking the time to read the following information? In the event that there is anything which is unclear or if you would like more information, you can ask us. Please take time to decide whether or not you wish to take part in this study.

#### Who is the researcher?

My name is Faiza Al-Dhahli. I was born in Nizwa, Oman. I am currently a PhD student at the University of Leeds, United Kingdom. I am conducting research on **Source-use practice across research reports in two disciplines: a case of undergraduate second language writers**. In this study, source-use means how writers across two disciplines in the Omani context represent other people's words in their academic essays.

#### What is the purpose of this research?

This research aims to explore and gain insights into why and how undergraduate second language writers across two disciplines in CAS, Oman, represent other people's words and ideas in their graduation research reports. In addition, the findings of this research will improve the teaching and learning of academic writing in CAS.

If you are interested to participate, you will be asked to present your graduation reports for linguistic analysis only (this is not meant to evaluate or critique your work) and you will be invited for an individual interview in a few weeks' time. Your graduation reports will not be marked or graded by the researcher and they will be kept confidential at all times.

#### Why have I been chosen?

You have been chosen because you meet the criteria for participation in this research. You are either a final-year student in the discipline of International Business and Accounting doing the Graduation Project course, or a teacher of the Graduation Project course in either of the mentioned disciplines in CAS, Oman.

#### Do I have to participate?

You may decide to participate or not. If you do decide to participate, you will be given this participant information sheet to keep, and you will be asked to sign a consent form. You can withdraw at any time, without giving any reasons.

#### How can I participate?

In this research, there are two kinds of participation. If you are a student, your graduation research report will be collected for linguistic analysis only, and an interview will be conducted with you for about 60 minutes. The interview will be conducted after the analysis of your research report. If you are a teacher in either of the above-mentioned disciplines a 60-minute interview will be conducted with you.

#### Are there any risks or disadvantages to participating?

There are no possible risks or disadvantages to taking part in this study.

#### Are there any possible benefits of taking part?

There are no material benefits for participants. This study may provide you with more insights into and knowledge of academic writing, including knowledge of genre and citation practices. In addition, the findings of this study will improve English for Academic Purposes

(EAP)/English for Specific Purposes (ESP) pedagogical materials. As such, both learners and teachers may improve their performance in relation to teaching and learning of source-use.

**How will the information provided be kept confidential?**

All the information which you provide during this study will be kept strictly confidential. The study will focus on linguistic features only and is not meant to critique your work. Your name will not appear in any publications or reports.

**What will happen to the findings of this study?**

The findings of this study will form part of the researcher's PhD thesis at the University of Leeds. It will also be used for presentation at local or international conferences as well as publications.

**Will my voice be recorded? If yes, how will the recorded media be used?**

Your voice will be recorded and used. The audio recordings will be used only for analysis. For any other use besides this, written permission will be requested from you. You may note that access to your original voice recording is restricted to this research; no one outside this study will be allowed to access it.

**Contact for further information**

Should you wish to ask any questions or require further information, please do not hesitate to contact the researcher at: [edfzad@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:edfzad@leeds.ac.uk) and +447474582182; +96899257881

This doctoral study is supervised by Prof. Alice Deignan [A.H.Deignan@education.leeds.ac.uk](mailto:A.H.Deignan@education.leeds.ac.uk) and Dr Simon Green [S.J.M.Green@leeds.ac.uk](mailto:S.J.M.Green@leeds.ac.uk).

Thank you very much for taking the time to read through this information sheet and I look forward to working with you on this research project.

## Appendix D Research Consent Form

**Consent to participate in a research study entitled:**

**Source-use Practice in Research Reports: The case of Colleges of Applied Sciences Undergraduates in the Disciplines of Accounting and International Business**

	Please write your initials next to the statements you agree with
I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet which explains the above study and I have had the opportunity to ask any questions about the research.	
I understand that my participation is not compulsory, which I can withdraw at any time without giving any reasons.	
I agree to participate in the above research and I will inform the lead researcher should my contact details change.	
I give permission for the interview to be audio-recorded.	
I understand that the data to be collected from both the essays and interview will be kept strictly confidential; and my name will not appear in the research materials as well as be identified or identifiable in the report(s) that emanate from this study.	
I agree that the data to be collected from me to be used in Faiza Al-Dhahli's PhD thesis, presentation in conferences, seminars and publications.	

Name of participant	
Participant's signature	
Date	
Name of lead researcher	Faiza Al-Dhahli
Signature	
Date*	

\*Once this form has been signed by the participants and the lead researcher, the participants would receive a copy of it, information sheet, and any other written information provided to the participants. One copy of the signed and dated consent form should be kept with the researcher's main documents.

## Appendix E Authorization Letter for Data Collection

Sultanate of Oman  
Ministry of Higher Education  
Directorate General of colleges  
of Applied Sciences



مملكة عُمان  
وزارة التعليم العالي  
المديرية العامة لكليات العلوم التطبيقية

Scientific Research Center



مركز البحث العلمي

التاريخ: 11/01/201

الرقم: 5/6

المخزم

الناضل/ سعيد بن خلف النبهاني  
عميد كلية العلوم التطبيقية بنزوى

والله اعلم بمراده وبركاته وبعد،،،

الموضوع: تسهيل مهمة الباحثة الفاضلة/فايز بنت زهران الذهلية

نود إفاضة عنايتكم الكريمة بأن الفاضلة/فايزة بنت زهران بن سيف الذهلية، تقوم بإعداد دراسة بحثية وذلك ضمن استكمال متطلبات الدراسة بجامعة ليدز (university of lees) بعنوان:  
(source-use practice across academic essays in two disciplines: a case of undergraduate second language writers).  
عليه يرجى التكرم بتسهيل مهمة الباحثة لإجراء هذه الدراسة. علماً بأن البيانات والنتائج المستخلصة سوف تستخدم لأغراض البحث العلمي.



عزيزة بنت سهيل المهرية  
مديرة مساعد مركز البحث العلمي

*(Handwritten signature)*

وتفضلوا بقبول فائق الاحترام

\* المدير العام المساعد للشؤون الأكاديمية المسادة

محمد العميدي، كاتب شؤون إدارية



نحو تعليم عال ذي جودة عالية يلبي متطلبات التنمية المستدامة

سلطنة عُمان ص.ب: ٨٢ روي - الرمز البريدي: ١١٢ - هاتف ٢٤٣٤٠٥٨٠ / فاكس ٢٤٣٤٠٥٧٨  
Sultanate of Oman, P.O.Box: 82 Ruwi, PC 112, Tel:24340580 / Fax 24340578 www.mohe.gov.om

## Appendix F CAS-Plagiarism Policy

### CASP006- PLAGIARISM POLICY

STATUS	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> New Policy
	<input type="checkbox"/> Continuation of Existing Policy
	<input type="checkbox"/> Revised Policy
SCOPE	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> All CAS
	<input type="checkbox"/> Some CAS (.....)
	<input type="checkbox"/> One CAS (.....)
TARGET AUDIENCE	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Staff: <input type="checkbox"/> All <input type="checkbox"/> Academic staff <input type="checkbox"/> Non-academic staff
	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Students: <input type="checkbox"/> All levels <input type="checkbox"/> UG <input type="checkbox"/> PG
	<input type="checkbox"/> All specialisations <input type="checkbox"/> Some (.....)

#### 1 Rationale and Purpose

The preservation of academic integrity is essential to the reputation of the learning institutions as well as their endeavours to promote creativity and innovation among their graduates. With the easy access to information nowadays, HEIs are expected to take additional measures to combat the misappropriation of knowledge and ensure that their products are original and truthful.

This policy provides a platform to combat plagiarism. It outlines strategies to detect cases of academic misappropriation and offers methods to respond to them.

#### 2 Definitions

For purposes of this policy, unless otherwise stated, the following definitions shall apply:

Plagiarism	It is the presentation of another person's work as one's own without proper acknowledgement.
Detection	It is the identification of any plagiarised contents in any spoken or written form, either manually or electronically.
Response	It is the staff's response to the plagiarised pieces which normally addresses the doing and redoing of such pieces.
Punishment	It is the last resort that staff can possibly do to plagiarised work when there is no clear intention from the student to rectify.
Penalty	It is the possible measure that could be taken by the respective departments according to established regulations against plagiarism.

**Policy template**

---

**3 Policy Content & Principles**

- 3.1 CAS regard plagiarism as a serious violation that has adverse effects on the image of the institutions as well as the prospects of those who commit it. The Colleges are committed to providing the requisite resources to address plagiarism.
- 3.2 CAS shall adopt a dual approach to combat plagiarism. At the academic level, they plan educational programs for students and faculty on a continuous basis. At the legal level, they enforce strict rules and impose severe penalties against people convicted of committing acts of plagiarism.
- 3.3 Faculty members are expected not only to systematically enforce the detection methods and procedures adopted by CAS, but also to lead their students by example through the full adherence to the principle of academic integrity. Failure to observe this vital boundary may incur severe professional and academic consequences, including contract termination and delay of academic promotion, etc.
- 3.4 Acts of plagiarism include, but are not limited to:
  - (a) Copying from the internet without acknowledging sources;
  - (b) Copying from published hard copy sources without due acknowledgment;
  - (c) Sharing of work by fellow students without actively taking part in it;
  - (d) The commissioning of texts from family members or friends; and
  - (e) Replicating one's own work without due acknowledgment
- 3.5 Plagiarism cases shall be handled fairly and transparently, and people who are convicted may appeal the decisions against them.

**4 Legislative Compliance**

The CAS is required to manage its policy documentation within a legislative framework. The legislation directing this policy is the academic regulations embedded in CAS Bylaw.

**5 Supporting Materials**

The current English Departments' plagiarism procedures



## Appendix G Examples of Analysed Pages From a Research Report

### CHAPTER - 4

#### RESULTS AND DATA ANALYSIS

##### 4.1 Introduction:

This chapter the analysis of data is done will application of appropriate models adopted in this study. In addition, I will analyze the selected objectives with application of appropriate methods. By insert tables and graph information will be more clear and easy to understand result.

##### 4.2 Data Analysis and Interpretation:

In majority of previous studies the CSR index was quantified the application of primary data collected to serious of questionnaires. Her in my study it was most prominent challenges to collect information through flubbing questionnaires into lack of time hence I applied unique methodology of quantified CSR used by (Haniffa and Hudaib, 2007). *Statement of - sco*  
 Although, I used the method given in the said studies I have made the suitable change to common features which are fit to Oman and business practise followed in Sultanate.

**CSR index:** CSR has been measured by five parameters for three companies from Oil and Gas sector during five years from 2012-2016. Table 2 presents the results of the overall CSR index. It can be seen from the table that Al-Maha petroleum company had highest average score of 68% percent for five consecutive years goes in corporate social responsibility followed by National Gas which had average of 63% for five years. While, the lowest average score of 48% percent obtained by Shell Oman marketing. Al-Maha petroleum company achieve highest rate in mission & vision parameter which include different dimensions such as Overview, Future plan and Objectives. While National Gas achieve the highest rate in other parameter which is towards environment which includes health and safety workplace, recognize and assess hazards, safety standards and HSE training. However, Shell Oman marketing had lacking towards stakeholders. As this result can conclude that Al-Maha petroleum company has best CSR in Oil and Gas industry. See table 2, presenting the data.



## CHAPTER - 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 Background information:

##### Corporate social responsibility in Oman:

Oman is an Islamic country which aims to maintain peace and helpfulness among its citizens. The government focus to conduct strategy to develop the society and economy of the country. The Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) followed by firms, which focuses to help the society, is not a new idea in the developed countries like Oman. However, it is develop or improve within the time under gridline from his Majesty Qaboos bin Said. Every year CSR conferences are held in Oman to discuss the changing role of companies and emphasize the significance of the economic development, social development and environmental sustainability and evaluation of successful experiences effecting positive community development in the Sultanate of Oman (CSR Oman, 2015). <sup>at</sup> Private sector play an important role to develop Oman's economy which lead to appear different types of companies such as production company ( Oil and Gas industry) which lead to generate pollution in the environment. As this result there is need to reduce this issue by conduct CSR in each company. Most of the private and public sectors works in relationship with government and multinational corporations and transnational corporations to guarantee the competitive advantages and social equality. This corporations with relation to government helps to reduce poverty issues, increase knowledge by constructing school, conduct training and provide living needs which is outlined in the national socioeconomic development plan, the 2nd Long Term Development Strategy and subsequent planning. As result the CSR is an necessary part of any business.

During the period of Holy Month of Ramadan and Eid celebrations the Telecommunications and Banking sectors working hard to perform charity work and to collecting donation from its side and from other citizens. this social activities conducting especially for children.

Every company in Oman should be responsible for corporate social responsibility and the activities provide or conduct should be different from one company to another company depend <sup>at</sup> on their ability and aims. "According to one research conducted by "(M. Firdouse & Ms. Aisha Al Mamari, 2016, they found a new Omani company established in 2012 by three companies

## Appendix H Evaluation Rubric

**International Business Project (BUSN 4404)**  
**Report Evaluation Sheet (For maximum of 70 Marks) Semester– Fall 2017**

**Title of the Project:**

**Name:**

**ID Number:**

<b>Evaluation Criteria</b>	<b>Maximum marks</b>	<b>Marks scored</b>
<b>Executive Summary (Briefing about introduction, research questions, objectives and methodology, conclusion and suggestion)</b>	<b>3</b>	
<b>Table of Contents</b>	<b>2</b>	
<b>Introduction</b>	<b>11</b>	
<b>Background of the study</b>	<b>3</b>	
<b>Statement of the problem</b>	<b>2</b>	
<b>Objectives / Purpose of the study</b>	<b>2</b>	
<b>Significance of the study</b>	<b>2</b>	
<b>Scope of the study</b>	<b>1</b>	
<b>Definition of key terms</b>	<b>1</b>	
<b>Literature Review</b>	<b>8</b>	
<b>Review of literature summary</b>	<b>6</b>	
<b>Contributions of the study</b>	<b>2</b>	
<b>Research Method</b>	<b>12</b>	
<b>Research questions</b>	<b>2</b>	
<b>Research methods/design</b>	<b>3</b>	
<b>Population, sampling &amp; data collection</b>	<b>2</b>	
<b>Data analysis, tools used</b>	<b>4</b>	
<b>Ethical consideration</b>	<b>1</b>	
<b>Results and Data Analysis</b>	<b>17</b>	
<b>Data analysis</b>	<b>8</b>	
<b>Interpretations and findings</b>	<b>8</b>	
<b>Summary of findings</b>	<b>1</b>	
<b>Conclusion and Recommendations</b>	<b>12</b>	
<b>Conclusions</b>	<b>4</b>	
<b>Recommendations</b>	<b>6</b>	
<b>Overall cohesiveness of the report - cohesiveness in first, third and fourth chapters</b>	<b>2</b>	
<b>References and Appendices</b>	<b>3</b>	
<b>Overall language mechanism and format</b>	<b>2</b>	
<b>Total</b>	<b>70</b>	

<b>Name of the Examiner</b>	<b>Signature</b>

Date: \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix I Inter-Rater Agreement Form

Inter-rater agreement about rhetorical function of citations in Petrić's (2007)

typology

Examples taken from IB3

No.	Citation	Rhetorical function	Research chapter	Rater		
				Agree	Disagree	Comments
1.	According to Zourikalatehsamad, Payambarpour, Alwashali, and Abdolkarimi(2002) the impact of online advertising on consumer purchasing behavior in Malaysian organizations.	Attribution	Introduction	√		
2.	Online advertising it is Advertising that published through the Internet and aims to promote the goods or marketing of a particular service or product (Business dictionary, 2014)	Attribution	Introduction	√		
3.	Mithun Shrivastava and Navdeep Saini present in his research that the advertising plays an important role in making consumer decisions regarding to purchase of any product or service.	Attribution	LR	√		
4.	Consumers from U.S considered the buying online will perceive less social, performance, financial and psychological risk compared to consumers from Saudi Arabia (Brosdahi & Almousa, 1995).	Attribution	LR	√		
5.	The study revealed useful findings for fund managers and investors to make more realistic decisions while placing money into funds	Evaluation	LR	√		

6.	This kind of research contribute to the future development of the Omani infrastructure related to online customer services.	<b>Evaluation</b>	LR	√		
7.	Similarly, others such as Peterman and Kennedy (2003) and Krueger (1993) reported that entrepreneurship education is an essential factor used to encourage students to start their own businesses and be self-employed	<b>Establishment of links between sources</b>	LR	√		
8.	This evidence [refers to a previous citation] is consistent with the other studies which declare that online costumers' services have more risks in the Arab countries because of the poor infrastructure.	<b>Establishment of links between sources</b>	LR	√		
9.	Actually, most of the results of the questionnaire [from the students] are in correspondence with other authors' ideas and with points that are mentioned in chapter two (literature review)	<b>Comparison of one's work with other sources</b>	LR	√		

**Rater: Faiza**