Citation Practices Among Novice and Expert Academic Writers

Hüseyin Kafes [1]

Abstract

Citation - one of the fundamental features of academic writing – serves numerous invaluable rhetorical functions ranging inter alia from establishing intellectual linkages to demonstrating paradigmatic allegiance, from contextualizing research to enhancing persuasiveness and managing interpersonal relationships (Paul, 2000), from attribution to exemplification, from further reference to statement of use, and from application to evaluation (Petric, 2007). Although citation has been subject to various cross-linguistic and cross-disciplinary research, it has not received due importance in studies on how Turkish academic writers employ it. Hence, this corpus-based exploratory study aims to investigate citation practices of novice Turkish writers and expert native English speaking academic writers, from a dialogic viewpoint, drawing on the systemic functional perspectives and formulations of appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005). The data of the study come from articles from the field of Applied Linguistics. All the incidences of citation in the corpus were identified and examined in an integrative analytic framework that characterized multiple aspects of citations in terms of dialogic contraction or dialogic expansion. After a detailed analysis of the citation density and types, a chi-square test was conducted to determine the significance of the differences found. The qualitative and quantitative results have indicated similarities and substantial differences in the frequency, type, and function of citation practices. These similarities and differences are interpreted in reference to the nature of cited information, epistemologies underlying discoursal and cultural practices, ethnolinguistic norms of communication, and culturally valued interpersonal relationships. Pedagogical implications gleaned from these findings are discussed.

[1] Akdeniz University, Education Faculty, ELT Department, Turkey, hkafes@anadolu.edu.tr

Introduction

Citation is one of the most obvious signs and a distinctive and essential feature of academic text (Bazerman et al., 2005; Petric, 2007; Swales, 2014; Thompson & Tribble, 2001), by which information of any sort and/or finding is attributed to a source (Coffin, 2009). As an integral part and distinguishing feature of academic text, citation performs invaluable functions- cognitive, epistemological and rhetorical- both for the writer and their respective discourse community. It helps build intellectual links, demonstrate allegiance, manage interpersonal relationships, claim membership, assert existence, contextualize research, and helps enhance persuasiveness (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Hewings, Lillis, & Vladimirou, 2010; Hu & Wang, 2014; Hyland, 1999, 2004; Paul, 2000; Swales, 2014). Besides increasing credibility and believability of their text, writers seek ways to "establish their own authority within their special discourse community" through citation (Jalilifar, 2012, p. 24). Indeed, citations help demonstrate that it is "a clear evidence of dialogism and intertextuality" (Swales, 2014, p. 119). They help open up and close down alternative views (Coffin, 2009). In addition to performing these key functions, citation serves as a reliable source of information, since citation counts inform about the "status and reputation of individual scholars, academic departments, institutions, and scholarly journals". Thus, citation is a clear signal of a writer's existence.

This multi-functional rhetorical strategy has attracted a lot of interest in the last two decades or so. This discursive practice, as White (2004) underlines, has been investigated under various terms; citation (Bazerman, 1988), reporting (Thompson & Ye, 1991), discourse representation (Fairclough, 1992), academic attribution (Hyland, 1999), intertextuality (Salager-Meyer, 1999), bibliographic reference (Flottum, Dahl, & Kinn, 2006), and referencing (Small, 2010).

These studies on citation have been conducted by researchers belonging to different traditions: discourse analysis, genre analysis, and English for research purposes (White, 2004). These different approaches, according to Swales (2014), categorized citation in terms of its syntactic placement and linguistic form (Charles, 2006; Swales, 1990); in terms of its importance (Valle, 1999); in terms of whether it is positive, neutral, tentative, or negative (Hyland, 2004); and in terms of its function or role (Harwood & Petric, 2012; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). In addition to these dimensions, researchers belonging to the English for research purposes tradition, according to Hu and Wang (2014), investigated citation in terms of density/ frequency of citations in academic texts (Coffin, 2009; Flottum et al., 2006; Hyland, 1999; 2002; Thompson, 2005; Thompson & Tribble, 2001), the linguistic environment of citations (Bloch, 2010; Hyland, 2002; Thompson & Ye, 1991) reporting structures (Charles, 2006; Hyland, 1999; Jalilifar, 2012); and tense (Davidse & Vandelanotte, 2011; Hawes & Thomas, 1997). Researchers belonging to this camp have also examined citation integration and its rhetorical effects (Coffin, 2009; Hyland, 2000; Swales, 1990; Thompson & Tribble, 2001); functions and motivations of citation (Bazerman, 1988; Harwood, 2009; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Petric, 2007), the nature of the cited sources (Coffin, 2009).

Researchers belonging to the applied linguistics camp, on the other hand, focused on cultural differences in citation use (Becher, 1994; Bloch & Chi, 1995; Pennycook, 1996), diachronic development of citation (Bazerman, 1988; Salager-Meyer, 1999), disciplinary variation in citation use (Hyland, 2000), and reporting verbs accompanying citation (Hawes & Thomas, 1997; Hyland, 2000). The studies on cross-cultural differences draw on the premise of Contrastive Rhetoric that each language is characterized by a set of unique rhetorical conventions, which influence how people in those cultures think and write. Contrastive Rhetoric holds that English expository writing develops linearly, whereas essays written in Oriental languages follow an indirect/circular/spiral approach, and essays written in Semitic languages develop on a series of coordinate sequences. On the contrary, essays written in Romance languages and in Russian include a certain amount of digression (Kaplan, 1966, 2000; Kaplan & Grabe, 2002). This difference in the flow of ideas is a representation of the foundational philosophical endeavors in the Western and Eastern literary traditions. While the Western literary tradition adheres

to classical Aristotelian and Greco-Roman rhetorical theory (Hinds, 1976), the Eastern literary tradition follows Confucian understanding of textual organization (Taylor, 1995). The Aristotelian discourse, still widely accepted and followed in the Anglo-American rhetorical tradition, subsumes "overt persuasion (*ethos*, *pathos*, *logos*)", and thus, aims to convince the audience and prove and justify one's position, but "does not assume harmonious social relationships" (Hinkel, 2002, p. 33). On the contrary, writing traditions based on Confucian, Taoist, and Buddhist philosophical precepts maintain "harmony and avoids impositions on both the writer and reader" (Hinkel, 1997, p. 363). Academic writers with writing traditions background based on Confucian rhetoric have consistently been shown to contribute to group harmony by abstaining from indicating a gap in the previous studies (See Adnan, 2014; Keraf, 1992; Sa'adeddin, 1989; Zhang & Hu, 2010).

Of particular importance to our study are the studies on cross-cultural and cross-linguistic variations in different aspects of citation. In one of these studies, Taylor and Chen (1991) demonstrated that Anglo-American physical scientists used more citations in journal article introductions than their Chinese counterparts writing in English and Chinese. Similarly, on their study on the influence of disciplinary and ethnolinguistic influences on citation in linguistics and medical RAs, Flottum et al. (2006) found important cross-linguistic differences in citation density. Yet again, in their cross-language study on citation practice in the literature review sections of English and Spanish PhD theses in the area of computing, Soler-Monreal and Gil-Salom (2011) showed that English writers had a tendency to make authors prominent through integral verb-controlling forms while Spanish writers downplayed the role of the authors. In a similar study on the frequency, distribution, type, and reporting structure of citations, Mur Duenas (2009) revealed similar results. Similar results were also found by French scholars. For example, in stressing these cross-linguistic and cross-cultural differences in their recent cross-linguistic study on citation in research articles (RAs) in French and English by French scholars, Rowley-Jolivet and Carter-Thomas (2014) concluded that citing practices are neither language- nor culture-free.

The other group of studies relevant to the present study is the studies comparing citation practices by expert and novice writers. In one of the earliest such studies on citation practices in doctoral theses in Agricultural Botany and Agricultural Economics, Thompson and Tribble (2001) found that novice writers used a limited range of citation types for a limited range of factions. Similarly, in his study on the rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-rated master's theses in the field of gender studies written in English as a second language, Petric (2007) found both similarities and differences. While both groups used citation mainly for attribution: that is knowledge display, low-rated theses employed citation for non-attribution functions less. Using citation mainly for attribution seems to be common both among expert and novice writers, especially among novice writers. For example, in their study on citation practices between non-native expert and novice scientific writers (Malaysian), Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) noted that the two groups employed the types and functions of citations differently. While the experts used citations strategically to justify their claims and provide support, the novice writers used citations mainly for attribution. In underscoring the importance of experience on citation practice in master's theses by Iranian writers and research articles in applied linguistics by expert English writers, Jalilifar (2012) showed that citations were employed differently by expert writers than novice writers, the difference stemming from the breadth of cumulative knowledge and experiences of expert writers. In her USA-based study on the functions of source text use in the discussion sections of master's theses and English research articles from biology, Samraj (2013) has drawn attention to differences as well as similarities between master's theses and research articles in the ways citation is employed.

As can be seen, the above-mentioned studies seem to invariably draw our attention to citation practice differences between expert and novice writers of English (second language writers, MA students, PhD students, PhD candidates etc.), identifying key characteristics of expert and novice writer citation practices. Among the features peculiar to novice writers, some stand out: favoring single

resource, employing to attribute an idea or finding, employing low-density citation, citing for a limited range of functions (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Gebril & Plakans, 2009; Hirvela & Du, 2013; Howard et al., 2010; Howard, R. M., 1995; Jalilifar, 2012; Li & Casanave, 2012; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; McCulloch, 2012; Petric, 2007; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). Yet, none of these studies, but one, has focused on citation density and type from a dialogic viewpoint, drawing on the systemic functional perspectives and formulations of appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005). And none has focused exclusively on citation practices of Turkish academic writers. Another distinguishing feature of the current study is related to the status of novice Turkish writers. The above-mentioned studies consider writers who completed or are doing their MAs and/or doing their PhDs as novice writers. In contrast to them, the novice writers in this study have already completed their PhDs.

Despite the extant cross-disciplinary and cross-linguistic studies on citation and citation practices by expert native speaker academic writers (published scholars) EWs and/or inexperienced writers, native and/or non-native novice English speaking writers (NWs), there is no study, comparative or otherwise, on citation practices of Turkish academic writers, be experienced or inexperienced. Driven by this apparent need, this corpus-based comparative study sets out to fill in this gap by focusing mainly on the following specific issues:

1. The citation density in English RAs from applied linguistics by native English speaker expert writers (EWs) and Turkish novice writers (NWs).

2. Textual integration and author integration in English RAs from applied linguistics by native English speaker expert writers (EWs) and Turkish novice writers (NWs).

3. Stance in English RAs from applied linguistics by native English speaker expert writers (EWs) and Turkish novice writers (NWs).

This study, the first of its sort with its scope and purpose, is expected to provide the academia with in-depth information, understanding, and revelations about citation practices of novice Turkish academic writers (NWs) and advance our knowledge about citations practices of EWs and NWs.

Method

Corpus

To address the foregoing questions, a corpus of 80 empirical English RAs in the field of applied linguistics, comprising two parallel sub-corpora, was formed; 40 English RAs by native English speaking expert American academic writers (EWs) and 40 English RAs by novice Turkish academic writers (NWs). In the selection of both corpora, special effort was made to sample comparable academic journals and RAs, paying utmost attention to parameters such as genre, subject matter, and reputation of the journals. Well-known international journals that are abstracted and indexed by SSCI were chosen to form the EWs. The EWs corpus consists of articles published in Applied Linguistics, Journal of Pragmatics, Journal of Second Language Writing, English for Academic Purposes, English for Specific Purposes, TESOL Quarterly, and Written Communication. These journals were chosen because of their impact factor and online availability. American writers' names and surnames, location of their institutions, and the information given in their CVs were taken into consideration. The novice Turkish writers (NWs), all had their BA, MA, and PhD degrees in English, and serve as lecturers at different universities in Turkey. As novice teachers have been defined as those who have been working for less than three years (Freeman, 2001), the NWs' corpus was made sure to include articles written during the first three years of Turkish writers' careers as academics. The NWs corpus comes from various Turkey-based journals indexed by ULAKBIM -Turkish Academic Network and Information Center. Except for two, all the articles in NWs were published in university journals. The data were restricted to empirical studies, excluding theoretical articles and articles published in special issues from the scope of the present study.

Data Coding

Initially, a corpus of 100 single-authored RAs by EWs and a corpus of 100 single-authored RAs by NWs were formed from the afore-mentioned journals, published between 2000 and 2014. Then 40 articles from each corpus were randomly selected. Once the corpus was compiled, the formal characteristics of citation; *Writer Stance-* acknowledge, distance, endorse, and contest; *Textual Integration-*insertion, assimilation, insertion+ assimilation; and *Author Integration-* integral versus non-integral citation, were manually analyzed, following the coding scheme proposed by (Coffin, 2009; Swales, 1990; Thompson & Tribble, 2001). The abstract, introduction, method, result, discussion, and conclusion sections of the corpus were considered, leaving textual elements outside of the main text, such as epigraphs, explanatory footnotes and references out. A native speaker English lecturer with a background in linguistics and the researcher himself analyzed and coded the data independently of each other after a training session of coding 10 articles. This comparison of coding yielded 90% agreement according to inter-rater reliability formula of Miles and Huberman (1994). A third rater, another American lecturer who was familiar with the categories, was consulted for the discrepancies. The three coders analyzed those discrepancies and reached full agreement. In determining the various dimensions of citation, not only the immediate context- the sentence(s) in which the citation is used but also the surrounding sentence(s) was/were considered. Given the difficulty of determining the real intention of an author solely by considering the linguistic context, the texts surrounding citations were read a number of times to accurately decide on the above-mentioned dimensions of citation. Each occurrence of an author's name was considered a citation even if it did not include the year of publication. Following Hu and Wang (2014), nominal forms of reporting verbs, which help determine the writer stance (e.g., supposition, presumption, refutation) and attitudinal markers (e.g., accomplishment, fundamental, confusing, persuasively, indeed), were also taken into consideration. Also, phrases which refer to a previously mentioned source such as "this definition" or "this theory" were also counted as citation. However, expressions that did not have a clear reference were not considered. Finally, the frequency of the types of integral and non-integral citations was calculated to detect the possible differences in the citation density and classes. All occurrences of citations in each section of the research articles were counted and categorized into different types based on the citation typology described below. Finally, a chi-square statistical analysis test (Preacher, 2001) was carried out to examine and find out the significance of the differences found between the two groups. The significance level was established at <0.05 and a significant difference was noted in citation density and type.
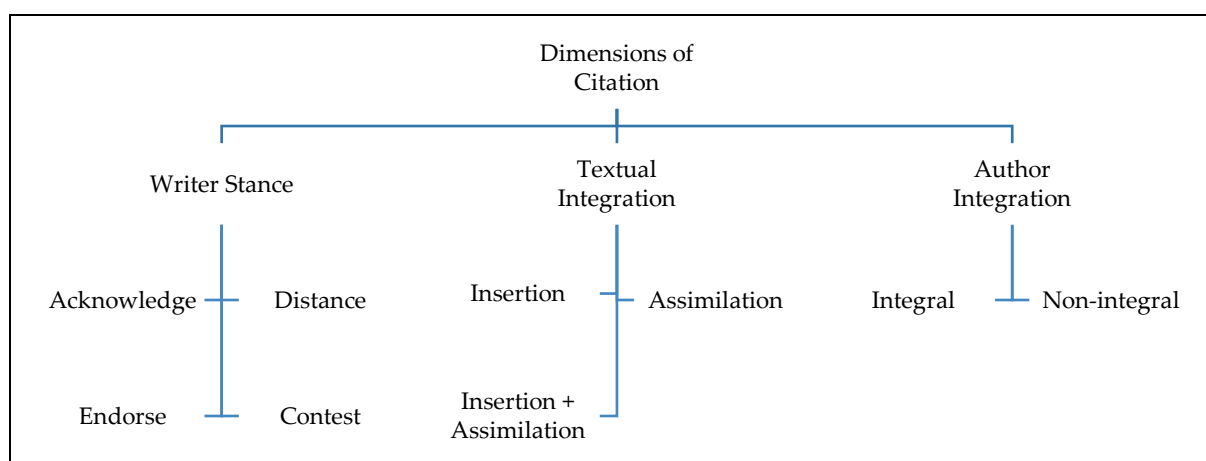

Figure 1. Dimensions of Dialogic Engagement in Writing

The analytic framework, which was developed by (Coffin, 2009), draws on the systemic functional perspectives and formulations of appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005) and has a dialogic view of linguistic recourses (See figure 1). The analytic framework draws on the systemic functional perspectives and formulations of appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005, p. 16). The framework

operates on three dimensions, integrating multiple perspectives of citation as seen in Fig. 1. (i.e., writer stance, textual integration, and author integration). This framework adopts a dialogic view of linguistic resources to attribute and construe diverse academic voices by focusing on linguistic resources that enable a writer to engage with sources in either a dialogically expansive or contractive way (Hu & Wang, 2014). Dialogically expansive citations are integral citations, especially when direct quotations are presented through them, insertion, insertion + assimilation, acknowledge and distance, whereas dialogically contractive ones are non-integral citations, assimilation, endorse and contest.

Data Analysis
Author Integration

A remark should be made in passing about citation type, which includes the distinction made by Swales (1990, p. 148) between "integral" and "non-integral citations". The former places the cited author(s) within the sentence structure (as subject or agent, or as part of a noun phrase or in an adjunct clause or phrase), whereas the latter places the cited author(s) in parenthesis. This basic syntactic distinction serves an important rhetorical purpose in that while integral citation allow writers to foreground the cited author(s), non-integral citation helps emphasize the propositional content. Elaborating on Swales' typology further, Thompson and Tribble (2001) suggest further divisions. They divide integral citation into three: *verb-controlling* in which the citation acts as the agent that controls the verb (See example 1 below); *naming* in which the citation is a noun phrase or part of a noun phrase (See example 2 below); and *non-citation* in which there is no reference to the author but the name is given without a year reference (See example 3).

Example 1
…Wright *et al.* (2007) think that using games are always effective for young language learners so language teachers should use games during their teaching. … (NWs 11)

As can be seen in example 1, the agent controls the verb, while the citation in the example below is a noun phrase or part of a noun phrase

Example 2
...But neither the Lalande (1982) or the Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986) study had control groups which received no correction, and neither found statistically significant differences between the various teacher response types…(EWs 9)

In non-citation, as exemplified below, we do have a reference to another writer but the name is given without a year reference, as seen in example below. This type is commonly used when the reference has been supplied earlier in the text and the writer avoids repeating it.

Example 3
… Although a more open genre, with a public audience, book reviews have a number of ideational and interpersonal features, as described by Hyland, in common with journal manuscript reviews… (EWs 3)

The examples above integrated a cited author into the citing sentence and thus gave more prominence to the author him/herself, signaling human agency in knowledge construction, which "contributes to a more personal style of persuasion" (Hu & Wang, 2014, p. 23). In contrast to integral citation, "non-integral citation gives more emphasis to the cited propositions, and obscure human agency in knowledge-making by placing the author in a parenthetical position or behind a superscript number and contribute to an impersonal tone". Non-integral citation allows for limited space for dialogic space and "alternative positions and voices" (Martin & White, 2005, p.102).

Thompson and Tribble (2001) divide non-integral citation into four: *source* or *attribution* which indicates where the idea is taken from (See example 4 below); *identification* which identifies an agent within the sentence (See example 5 below); *reference* which is signaled by inclusion of the directive "see" (See example 6 below); and *origin* which indicates the originator of a concept, technique, or product (See example 7 below).

Example 4

…The purpose, content, and specifics of how it will be performed need to be determined, and evaluation criteria need to be decided upon and defined (Dougan, 1996; 172)… (NWs)

Example 5

…There is the "planned curriculum" meaning what is included in the guidelines prepared by the authorities (Öztürk, 2003)… (NWs 7)

Example 6

…Many models of supervision are now based on the idea that teachers should be guided through a process of learning, reflection, and exploration to become more aware of their beliefs and behaviors (Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; see Pajak, 1993, for an overview of models)... (EWs 1)

Example 7

…The 735 essays were transcribed for use with the Child Language Analysis (CLAN) software program provided as part of the Child Language Data Exchange System (CHILDES, MacWhinney, 1995)… (EWs 39)

This citation indicates the originator of a concept, technique, or product.

Thompson and Tribble (2001) also classify integral citations as "Verb controlling", which control a lexical verb and "Naming", those which do not control a lexical verb (pp. 95–96).

Another dimension of the analytic framework characterizes cited source as *personalization* and *identification*. In case of the former, a source can be expressed as human (e.g., Wheeless and Grotz in example 8 below), abstract human (e.g., the Hirsh and Nation study in example 9 below), and non-human. In case of the latter, identification, the cited source is distinguished whether it is presented as named or unnamed author.

Example 8

…Wheeless and Grotz (1977) confirm that "trust and self-disclosure appear to be related in such a way that trust in a specific individual is a necessary condition for self-disclosure to that person" (p. 252)… (EWs)

Example 9

However, one limitation of the Hirsh and Nation study was that the texts used were novels written for teenagers and adolescents. (Hu & Wang, 2014, p. 14).

In this example, the Hirsh and Nation study was taken as an abstract human.

Textual Integration

Another dimension of Coffin's (2009) analytic framework, *textual integration* is directly related to what degree a cited proposition is integrated into the citing sentence. Textual integration offers three options: *insertion*, *assimilation*, and *insertion + assimilation*.

a) In case of *insertion*, the original quote is directly inserted without changing any word. As can be seen in the following excerpt, the citing writer directly quotes the cited author's words word by word.

Example 10

…The term 'classroom discipline' is used in this study as "a state in which both teacher and learners accept and consistently observe a set of rules about behavior in the classroom whose function is to facilitate smooth and efficient teaching and learning in the lesson" (Ur, 1996)… (NWs 15)

b) In contrast to *insertion*, in case of *assimilation* the writer paraphrases or summarizes a proposition as seen below, in which the citing writer summarizes the cited proposition.

Example 11

…As for the advantages and effects of DS on students and instruction, Dogan and Robin (2008) pointed out the teacher interviews during which teachers stated the increased technical and presentation skills of the students along with their better engagement and observed increased motivation…(NWs 14)

c) As the name implies, *insertion + assimilation* consists of a combination of *insertion* and *assimilation.*

Example 12

…Some temporary lowering in learner interest can be caused by factors beyond the teacher's control such as "the need of the learner to take a short break" (Ur, 1996) or external distractions… (NWs 15)

Writer Stance

Another dimension of analytic framework of citation, writer stance, consists of positions that the citing writer takes into account pertaining to the ideas, views, and voices of the cited author (Coffin, 2009). Coffin postulates four types of writer stance: acknowledge, distance, endorse, and contest.
a) *Acknowledge* is the type of stance in which the writer espouses a neutral position and makes no evaluative judgment concerning the cited position, as seen in the below excerpt, in which the writer simply describes a study.

Example 13

…Semke (1984), Frantzen (1995) and Chandler (2003) also examined differences between student writings who have received corrective feedback and those who have not… (NWs 9)

Distance, as the name implies, is a position by which the citing writer puts a distance between himself and the cited propositions to avoid responsibility for the cited proposition. In the excerpt below, we can see that the citing writer distances herself from the reliability of the cited proposition.

Example 14

…Jones & Jones (1998) claim that a good language teacher should understand children's needs and communicate with them in social contexts… (NWs 11)

Hu and Wang (2014) highlight that these two types are dialogically expansive, as they have room for alternative perspectives and voices. In contrast to these, both *endorse* and *contest* allow for only one perspective.

Endorse expresses a kind of stance by which the writer agrees with or supports the cited proposition, which is at times authoritative, strong, trustworthy, therefore convincing, as seen below.

Example 15

…Wheeless and Grotz (1977) confirm that "trust and self-disclosure appear to be related in such a way that trust in a specific individual is a necessary condition for self-disclosure to that person" (p. 252)… (EWs)

The final type of writer stance, *contest* states a negative attitude towards the cited proposition by direct critique or rejection, as seen below in the last sentence of the excerpt.

Example 16

…Doolan and Miller (2012) compared developmental L1 and Generation 1.5 students on 10 error types and found 4 error types (e.g., verb errors, prepositional phrase errors, word form errors and total identified errors) in which Generation 1.5 students were producing significantly more errors. Yet, research findings have not been entirely consistent in demonstrating patterns of textual different between Generation 1.5 students and their classmates at the developmental level… (EWs 14)

Results

Table 1 below summarizes descriptive information about citation density, types, and presents percentages.

Citation Density and Type

Citation density and types found in each corpus is presented in percentages in Table 1 below. The results reported here have revealed, in connection with our first research question, both marked differences and similarities in citation practices between English RAs by native English speaker expert writers (EWs) and Turkish novice writers (NWs). As the results show, a total of 1608 citations were identified in EWs corpus, whereas a total of 926 citations were found in NWs corpus, indicating that EWs employed citations a lot more than NWs. The chi square analysis showed a significant difference in the use of integral and non-integral citations. Given this pronounced (percentage) difference, it can be said that EWs seem to attach a lot more importance to contextualizing their research into previous studies and demonstrating their allegiance to their respective discourse communities. By doing so, they justify their research findings more.

Table 1. Citation Density and Type

	NWs (Novice writers)		EWs (Expert writers)	
	# of citations	%	# of citations	%
Integral citations	444	47.8	424	25.3
Non-integral citations	484	52.2	1256	74.7
Total	928		1680	

When it comes to differences/similarities in textual integration and author integration between English RAs by EWS and NWs, a huge pronounced disparity can be observed as seen in Table 1. EWs' corpus includes a total of 1680 citations; 25.3% of which is integral, whereas 74.7% is non-integral citations. However, in NWs' corpus, there are 444 integral and 484 non-integral citations, producing a percentual ratio of 47.8%-52.2%. As seen, the frequency was more or less evenly distributed in NWs' corpus; however, the same cannot be said for the EWs' corpus. The frequency of integral and non-integral citations seen in EWs' corpus is in accord with Swales' (2014) findings in that he found a percentual ratio of 27%-73% in favor of non-integral citations.

As has already been underlined above, the choice of integral vs. non-integral citation has been associated with an important rhetorical purpose. While the use of integral citations allows writers to foreground the cited author, the employment of non-integral citation helps emphasize the propositional content (Hyland, 1999; Swales, 1990; Thompson, 2005). With this in mind, we can surmise that EWs seem to attach more importance to propositional content whereas NWs seem to give equal importance to both the authors and their propositional content.

Both groups employed non-integral citation more (see Table 2 below). When we look at the distribution of non-integral citation across its types, we will see that the most common rhetorical function of citations is attribution in both sets of corpora. Through attribution, writers can demonstrate their knowledge, acknowledgement, and appreciation of previous studies, while at the same time; they situate their own study on a firm footing. Indeed, by announcing their commitment to their discourse community conventions and dependence on their discourse community, writers claim that they also do exist. As seen in the excerpt below, the writer does more than simply indicating the owner of the cited proposition.

Example 17

…The purpose, content, and specifics of how it will be performed need to be determined, and evaluation criteria need to be decided upon and defined (Dougan, 1996)… (NWs 1)

In addition to showing the owner of the cited content, the writer demonstrates that he is knowledgeable about and appreciates previous research. By so doing, he seeks recognition from and acceptance by his respective discourse community.

Another type of non-integral citation both groups used is identification of the author as seen in the excerpt below, in which the writer identifies the owner of the propositional content. NWs employed this type more probably because they used a lot more passive constructions.

Example 18

…There is the "planned curriculum" meaning what is included in the guidelines prepared by the authorities (Öztürk, 2003)… (NWs 7)

Table 2. Sub-types of Integral and Non-integral Citation

	NWs (Novice writers)		EWs (Expert writers)	
Non-integral citation	# of citations	%	# of citations	%
Source/attribution	384	79.6	1033	82.2
Identification	78	16.1	114	9
Reference	8	1	88	7
Origin	14	3	21	1.6
Total	484		1256	
Integral citation				
Verb-controlling	264	59.4	158	37.2
Naming	180	40.5	261	61.5
Non-citation	--	--	5	1
Total	444		419	

The third type of non-integral citation is reference, which is almost non-existent in NWs' corpus. EWs used this type of non-integral citation with a percentage of 7, albeit few. As seen in the following excerpt, which exemplifies the final category of non-integral citation, the writer recommends his reader to refer to 'Pajak' for an overview. This type of non-integral citation was almost always preceded by the verb 'see' to direct the reader to the source for more information.

Example 19

…Many models of supervision are now based on the idea that teachers should be guided through a process of learning, reflection, and exploration to become more aware of their beliefs and behaviors (Gebhard & Oprandy, 1999; see Pajak, 1993, for an overview of models)... (EWs 1)

The frequency distribution of integral citation across its types indicates a marked difference between the two groups. The results show that there is a pronounced tendency among NWs to use integral citations, in which the name of the researcher appears as a sentence element with an explicit grammatical role. NWs employed integral verb-controlling citation more, whereas EWs used integral naming citation two times more than integral verb-controlling citation. This type of citation acts as the agent that controls a verb, as in the excerpt below, in which the writer cites an author to prepare a firm footing for his upcoming proposition.

Example 20

…For example, Truscott (1999) goes further and basing on anecdotal evidences concludes that grammar correction should be abandoned in L2 writing classes because it is ineffective and it has harmful effects… (NWs 9)

Another obvious difference between the two groups lies in the way they employed integral verb-controlling citations. NWs mostly used integral verb-controlling citations one after the other without any comments in between as seen in the excerpt below.

Example 21

…Wright *et al.* (2007) think that using games are always effective for young language learners so language teachers should use games during their teaching. Roth (1998) mentions that card games, action games, stories, videos, songs and rhymes improve children's language skills and vocabulary. Brewster *et al.* (2004) say that children feel better and content when they learn in democratic, independent classrooms if their language teachers use more creative and communicative activities… (NWs 11)

As has been underlined, integral citation helps "foreground the cited author often through assignment of the syntactically prominent subject position (Hewings et. al., 2010, p. 105). Integral verb-controlling citations in EWs' corpus are generally accompanied with a comment and/or a remark and are combined with non-integral citations as seen in the excerpt below. As seen below, some comments are interspersed in between the citations, rather than listing them one after another.

Example 22

 …As Myers (1990) and others, e.g., Artemeva (2000), Berkenkotter and Huckin (1993), have noted, even experienced, already published professionals are not infrequently stymied in their efforts to publish their work and mystified by reviewer comments and editorial decisions. However, while the quest for publication can be a trial for any author, for those residing in ''off-network'' (Swales, 1987, p. 43) locations with… (EWs 3)

NWs employed integral-naming citation less probably because of its syntactic difficulty, which necessitates the use of nominalization or complex noun phrases. Maybe because of this difficulty, NWs repeatedly used the phrase "According to..." -35 times-compared to only two in EWs' corpus.

Example 23

…According to Bursalıoğlu (1994), Sönmez (1994) and Azar (2011), teachers should give importance to their own improvement and be aware of new trends in their field. In order to help their young students, they should put their objectives into an active process… (NWs 3)

As seen in the excerpt above, 'according to' signals that the writer attributes the entire responsibility for this/her interpretation or claim to the cited source, refraining from expressing his/her own point of view. It expresses neither his/her reaction to nor interpretation of it (Quirk et al. 1985, p. 712).

In contrast to them, EWs preferred integral naming citation, which allowed them to present a lot of information succinctly in less space as seen in the following excerpt.

Example 24

...But neither the Lalande (1982) or the Robb, Ross, and Shortreed (1986) study had control groups which received no correction, and neither found statistically significant differences between the various teacher response types… (EWs 9)

In this integral naming citation, which looks like verb-controlling citation, the writer presents information by reporting work done by three authors. Through integral-verb controlling and non-

integral citations, EWs were able to refer to three or more citations within brackets as seen below, which Flottum et al., refer as a 'cluster'.

Example 25

...As such, it can serve as an important means of both constructing the narrator's personal and social identity (e.g., Bamberg & Georgakopoulu, 2008; Baquedano-Lo´pez, 2001; Berman, 2000; Cortazzi, 2001; Georgakopoulou, 2007; Johnstone, 2007; Taylor, 2007; Wagner & Wodak, 2006) and of socializing novices into culturally acceptable views and behaviors (e.g., Ochs, 2004; Ochs & Taylor, 1992; Ochs, Taylor, Rudolph, & Smith, 1992; Paugh, 2005; Sterponi, 2003)… (EWs 46)

In the excerpt above, the writer cites a number of authors by synthesizing various sources concisely. The use of this type of citation helped present identical and/or similar ideas as summaries and keep the flow of the text uninterrupted. Another type of integral citation, which is more common in EWs' corpus, is integral naming. In this kind of citation, the citation is a noun phrase or part of a noun phrase as seen below:

Example 26

… Research on the methodology of vocabulary teaching finds that explicit teaching of vocabulary results in better retention than incidental learning from natural text-based input such as book passages or dictionary entries (Chun & Plass, 1996; Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Knight, 1994; Laufer, 1997; Laufer & Shmueli, 1997; Nassaji, 2003; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997; Prince, 1995; Zimmerman, 1997) and… (EWs 13)

Another common pattern found in EWs' corpus is the use of a sentence initial disjunct as seen below.

Example 27

…A focus on linguistic ability is well established in L2 writing research. For example, Silva (1993) conducted a meta-analysis of 72 empirical research studies on the distinct nature of L2 writing, identifying differences between L1 and L2 writing in process issues and textual issues… (EWs 14)

Yet another distinctive feature of EWs' text is the employment of left branching before an integral citation as seen below, which is almost non-existent in NWs. In addition to helping create a smooth flow of text, the left branching helped create a suitable context for the writer to present his view.

Example 28

…Fully integrating the role of supervision into the teaching-learning process, Gebhard and Oprandy (1999) present supervision as one of the activities that can lead to a deeper awareness of teaching for both the teacher and the supervisor… (EWs 43)

Textual Integration

As can be seen in Table 3, the distribution of the frequency of author integration is close. Both groups attached great importance to assimilation through paraphrasing and/or rephrasing the cited authors' views and ideas. This observation is interesting in that NWs employed assimilation a lot more than the other two ways of author integration although it requires experience, skill, and expertise in analyzing, synthesizing, and rewording the original text without losing its intention and meaning. This observation brings two explanations to mind: First and foremost, it indicates that NWs were highly skilled at analyzing, synthesizing, and rewording an original text and proficient in English. The other probability is that citation, as a complex rhetorical endeavor, does not easily lend itself to simple explanations and broad generalizations. NWs do have a slightly different tendency when it comes to insertion and insertion+ assimilation, in that they preferred insertion and assimilation+ insertion little more than EWs. As seen in the excerpt below, the writer prefers a direct quotation, giving the cited author the floor (Flottum et al., 2006).

Example 29

…Ayas (2006, 5) stresses that "*constructivism entered mainstream educational thought and research in the 1970s through the work of the disciples of Piaget and Vygotsky*"… (NWs 6) (Italics original)

When it comes to assimilation, the writer paraphrases and/or rephrases the cited authors' views and ideas without changing the meaning as seen in the excerpt below, in which the writer rewords three authors' original text.

Example 30

…The need to create a meaningful learning experience for teachers has directed attention to theories and models of supervision that encourage reflection through methods such as peer mentoring, coaching, and portfolio development, to name just a few (Holten & Brinton, 1995; Johnson, 1996; Nolan, 1991)… (EWs 1)

Interestingly, contrary to word-by-word citation of the author's words, the writer cites just two words word-by-word, probably because of the importance of them and rephrases the rest as seen below.

Example 31

…Ellis is precautious in her identifications and states that "'good teaching' is dependent on far more than the teacher's L2 learning experience" (p. 17)… (NWs 22)

Table 3. Textual Integration

		NWs (Novice writers)		EWs (Expert writers)	
		#	%	#	%
Author integration	Insertion	140	15	14	1
	Assimilation	703	75.7	1596	95
	Insertion + Assimilation	83	8.9	70	4.1
	Acknowledge	670	72.1	946	56.3
	Distance	---	---	98	5.9
Writer stance	Endorse	250	26.9	552	32.8
	Contest	4	---	74	4.4

Writer Stance

In deciding writer stance towards the cited authors, the immediate and wider contexts were taken into consideration as well as the verbs used. The frequency distribution of stance shows that both groups employed citation to acknowledge the most, followed by to endorse. However, there are noticeable differences in the frequencies in that NWs used citation mostly to acknowledge and to endorse a little bit. On the contrary, EWs used it to distance themselves from previous studies and findings and contest previous research and/or findings. As is illustrated in the following extracts, writers cited author(s), studies, findings, and propositions to strategically demonstrate their stance towards what they cited. For instance, the writer in the following excerpt has no purpose other than acknowledging the owner of the cited information by displaying his neutral stance towards the cited proposition.

Example 32

…With the proposal of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages which aims to achieve the standards of learners in different countries to create a close link between language, culture and the European identity to achieve a common communicative sphere (Council of Europe, 2001), individual plurilingualism and plurilingual competence… (NWs 45)

Another reason why the writers employed citation is to underline their support to previous studies and findings as seen in the excerpt below.

Example 33

…These findings are compatible with the related literature (Burrows, 2004; Song, 2006; Wall, 1999; Watanabe, 2000, 2001; Yıldırım, 2010)… (NWs 25)

In this excerpt, the writer used *endorse citation* both to indicate his own support and to seek support for his own findings, by using the adjective "compatible with", which obviously has a positive meaning. In contrast to endorsement citations, the writer may not use a term, which directly indicates the writer's stance in distance citations. However, the immediate context illustrates the writer's stance as seen in the following excerpt, in which the sentence initial adverb helps the writer to indicate that he aims to distance himself from the mentioned earlier findings.

Example 34

…Though previous research has often portrayed Generation 1.5 writers as making a unique blend of L1 and L2 errors (Ferris, 2009; Levi, 2004; Reid, 2005), the current study indicates that error patterns among these Generation 1.5 writers closely resemble the errors of L1 writers at the FYC level… (EWs 14)

In contrast to distance citations, contest citations convey explicit criticism as seen in the following excerpt, in which the writer underscores the inconsistencies in earlier findings.

Example 35

…Doolan and Miller (2012) compared developmental L1 and Generation 1.5 students on 10 error types and found 4 error types (e.g., verb errors, prepositional phrase errors, word form errors and total identified errors) in which Generation 1.5 students were producing significantly more errors. Yet, research findings have not been entirely consistent in demonstrating patterns of textual different between Generation 1.5 students and their classmates at the developmental level… (EWs 14)

Discussion

Citation is one of the essential features of academic articles and an important means of "meeting priority obligations and an effective strategy for supporting claims" (Hyland, 1999, p. 362). It is one of the few ways of claiming existence for academic writers, which numerous scholars have underscored. Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) have underlined its importance saying, contending that the writer is a reflection of what s/he cites, while Hyland (1999) has highlighted that the way writers cite is as important as what they cite. Writers employ this prominent feature for a variety of rhetorical purposes, ranging from positioning their research into a context to indicating significance and relevance of their research, from displaying competence in the research field to exhibiting the adequacy and accuracy of methodology and procedures, from proving the legitimacy of claims to justifying findings, and to convincing readers to accept new claims (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). Despite its importance, research has demonstrated that it poses considerable difficulties for non-native English speakers (Davis, 2013; Ramoroka, 2014).

The results reported above have revealed both similarities and differences in citation practices between EWs and NWs. In connection with our first research question, the findings have revealed that EWs exhibited a noticeably higher level of citation tokens, almost two times more than NWs. This finding accords with the findings of previous studies which demonstrated that Anglo-American scholars employed more citations than their non-native English-speaking counterparts (Mur Duenas, 2009; Rowley-Jolivet & Carter-Thomas, 2014; Taylor & Chen, 1991). In other words, the findings support former research that showed novice writers deploy a limited range of citation types for a limited range

of factions (Thompson & Tribble, 2001). Given this pronounced percentual difference, we can say that EWs seem to attach a lot more importance to contextualizing their research into previous studies and demonstrating their allegiance to their respective discourse communities. One of the reasons behind this manifest percentual dissimilarity seems to be the different audiences these two groups of writers have. As is known, EWs address an international readership, a much greater and more diverse discourse community with more complex expectations, which necessitates a much higher level of fierce competitiveness among scholars aiming to publish internationally (Mur Duenas, 2009). On the contrary, NWs mostly address a national audience, the gatekeepers of which may be less demanding to convince. In addition to higher citation density, EWs' corpus included a lot more non-integral citations than NWs, who employed integral and non-integral citations almost evenly, with verb-controlling integral citations constituting the majority of their integral citations. This revelation supports earlier findings in that novice writers displayed a tendency to overuse integral verb-controlling citation (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). This is most probably because of its popularity (Swales, 2014) and its syntactic simplicity (Jalilifar, 2012).

Unlike NWs, EWs used non-integral citations a lot, mainly to make generalizations and integral citations to support and/or substantiate their claims, focusing on the work rather than the cited author(s). EWs' tendency to deploy non-integral citations more could be related to their wanting to be and/or to appear dialogically contractive. According to Coffin's framework, when a cited proposition assimilated into the text and presented in the non-integral form, "is more likely to be perceived as an established fact, thus creating dialogic contraction" Coffin (2009, p. 174). The preference for dialogically contractive citations, which contract alternative views and viewpoints, could be closely related EWs' experience, expertise and reputations in the field. Citation counts, according to Swales and Leeder (2012), are a sign of the status and reputation of individual scholars.

Contrary to EWs, NWs showed an inclination for dialogically expansive citations, which could be related to a variety of reasons. For one thing, this predilection could stem from lack of experience and expertise. As they are new to the field, it is possible that they may need recognition, approval, appreciation, and support of experts more. It may also be associated with their wish to attribute the entire responsibility for their interpretation or claim to the cited source, abstaining from expressing their own point of view. This strategic employment rhetorical feature, attributing the whole responsibility to a source with a higher status and an authoritative and objective source, according to (Coffin, 2009, p. 178), helps a text to "position a reader to accept rather than challenge the referenced propositions".

In terms of textual and author integration, both differences and similarities have been found for the citation features. In addition to lower citation density, there was a lower incidence of source/attribution, reference, assimilation, and a more frequent use of identification, origin, insertion, and insertion and insertion + assimilation in the NWs' corpus. As for our last research question- writer stance- it has been found that NWs used citation mainly to acknowledge and endorse, whereas EWs employed it to distance themselves for the sources they cited and contest them in addition to deploying them primarily to acknowledge and endorse.

This study has demonstrated that there exist similarities and differences between citation practices of EWs and NWs, with differences outweighing the similarities. Considering the fact that neither undergraduates nor graduates have enough opportunity to study academic writing in Turkey, let alone citation, the findings underlined are not surprising. Overall, it would also sound reasonable to suggest that the above-mentioned differences could be related to culture-specific epistemologies, culturally valued interpersonal relationships, communicative norms, expertise in academic writing, cultural practices concerning interpersonal relationships characteristic of Western and Eastern societies, and the complex interactions of these intricate issues.

Easterners, who "are constantly being "primed" with interdependence cues" (Nisbett, 2003, p. 68) and "are highly attuned to the feelings of others and strive for interpersonal harmony" (Nisbett, 2003, p.76) value the maintenance of harmonious interpersonal relationships, avoiding face-threatening acts. Although Westernization attempts have been made in many aspects of social life for quite a long time, it is not unusual to see Turkish writers still bear traces of orientalist writing traditions, such as abstaining from underlying face-threatening acts i.e. direct confrontation with and public criticism of others' ideas and behaviors. Such avoidance can easily be seen both in macro and micro level rhetorical patterns. On a macro level, Turkish students' argumentation displayed similar patterns with that of both "stereotyped English and Confucian or Arabic argument traditions" because of "Turkey's geographical and cultural position right in the middle of the East and West" (Uysal, 2012, p. 146). Specifying Turkish students' argumentation preferences, Uysal (2012) underlines that Turkish students' argumentation preferences are more similar to Asian and Arabic traditions than Western and Anglo-American argumentation in terms of their employment of "adorned language, questions, citations and anecdotes" (p. 147). Turkish academic writers have also displayed macro and micro-level discourse features peculiar to Asian and Orientalist writing traditions (Enginarlar, 1990; Girgin, 2003).

For example, Yağız, Ötügen, Kaya, and Aydin (2014) showed that Turkish academic writers refrain from critically evaluating their counterparts. On a micro level, in her study on the generic structure of Turkish and English abstracts in educational abstracts, Çandarlı (2012) showed that Turkish scientific community abstain from establishing a niche by criticizing the others' works. This finding strengthens our observation Turkish writers have tendency to both distance themselves from and not to contest their counterparts' statements and claims, most probably not to assume responsibility. Nisbett's (2003) exposition and the above mentioned findings i.e. Uysal (2012), Çandarlı (2012), and Yağız et al. (2014), together with the findings of this study, help explain EWs' and NWs' complex citation practices and why NWs' citation practices displayed differences from as well as similarities to EWs' citation practices

Westerners, on the other hand, because of being "primed" with independence cues" (Nisbett, 2003, p. 68), are more concerned with knowing themselves and are pre-pared to sacrifice harmony for fairness, embracing an epistemologically critical stance toward received knowledge, ideas, and beliefs (Tweed & Lehman, 2002). Therefore, in the light of this reasoning and the findings of this and the above mentioned studies, it is not surprising to see American writers underline and foreground their individuality and contest other researchers' propositions much more frequently than their Turkish counterparts did, given these interpersonal and rhetorical norms are "constructed bit by bit from nursery school through college" in Anglophone cultures (Nisbett, 2003, p. 74).

The differences described above may also stem from what Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011, p. 160) call "the breadth of cumulative knowledge and experiences". The breadth of cumulative knowledge and experiences, which are undoubtedly gained through the years, are not readily available to the novice writers. Novice writers could move from peripheral positions to central positions by adopting the shared culture and practices of their respective discourse communities and demonstrating their competence on the shared practices of these communities (Lave & Wenger, 2000). Moving from a peripheral position to a central position, in other words, obtaining full membership requires careful observations of the practices of the more senior members; established cultural practices, and emulating them. The RA is no exception. However, some features of the RA may not always be evident from mere reading; they could be occluded to novice writers, which may necessitate raising novice writers' awareness of this issue.

Conclusion

This explanatory study, which aimed to investigate citation practices of EWs and NWs in the RA (i.e., citation density and type) and level of dialogic engagement (i.e., textual integration, author integration, and stance), have revealed important differences as well as similarities between these two groups. Overall, EWs exhibited a noticeably higher level of citation tokens, that is, citation density, diverse citation type (i.e., integral vs. non-integral), textual and author integration, and stance. It has also identified complex patterns of citation practices of EWs and NWs in the RA, which makes it difficult to draw clear-cut conclusions. Although it is hard to talk about substantial differences of dialogic engagement between the two corpora, we can still say that they differed from each other in terms of the extent and specific types of engagement they realized. On the whole, NWs employed dialogically expansive citations more frequently, whereas EWs showed a predilection for dialogically contractive citations. A greater dialogic expansion characterized the NWs' corpus because of higher frequency of dialogically expansive citations (i.e., integral citations, insertion, insertion + assimilation, and distance) and lower frequency of dialogically contractive ones (i.e., non-integral citations, assimilation, endorse, and contest). Conversely, EWs deployed dialogically contractive citations (i.e., integral citations, insertion, insertion + assimilation, and distance) more frequently, while they used dialogically expansive citations (i.e., integral citations, insertion, insertion + assimilation, and distance) less than NWs.

Suggestions

Given these findings, the thin-line between appropriate citation and plagiarism, and the numerous remarks about the difficulty of appropriate citation for novice writers, especially non-native English speaking novice writers, it seems imperative that citation be given due importance in advanced writing, academic writing, and EAP courses both at undergraduate and graduate level courses. Given that both BA and MA students in Turkey do not have enough opportunity to study citation, these young academics' needs should be given due consideration. In these courses, students could be sensitized to accurate and proper citation and different linguistic patterns of citation and their functions. Such awareness-raising could be complemented through pedagogical tasks. Novice writers should also be equipped with necessary strategies that will enable them to investigate different types of citations, their functions, and their importance in knowledge-making (Hu & Wang, 2014).

This corpus-based study investigated citation practices of EWs and NWs, so the findings reported here reflect only those citation practices identified in this particular corpus. Therefore, it is virtually impossible to make broad generalizations. Undoubtedly, much more data and research is needed to fully grasp the breadth and depth of such a complex issue. Given the limitations, it would be wise to conduct more comprehensive research on this important issue to fully grasp it. One avenue for further research might be to investigate experienced Turkish academic writers' citation practices both in Turkish and English. Also citation practices of writers holding different titles at Turkish universities could be investigated. Another avenue for further research could be tracing the developmental stages writers go through and the complex features of these phases in the course of their journey from studentship, be BA or MA, to professorship on their career path. Finally, citation practices of EFL/ESL writers from different countries merit investigation.

Acknowledgement

References

Abasi, A. R., & Akbari, N. (2008). Are we Encouraging patchwriting? Reconsidering the role of the pedagogical context in ESL student writers' transgressive intertextuality. *English for Specific Purposes*, *27*(3), 267-284.

Adnan, Z. (2014). Prospects of Indonesian Research Articles (RAs) Being considered for publication in 'centre' journals: A comparative study of rhetorical patterns of RAs in selected humanities and hard science disciplines. In A. Lydia, & K. Warchat (Eds.), *Occupying niches: Interculturality, cross-culturality and aculturality in academic research* (pp. 66-79). New York, NY: Springer.

Bazerman, C. (1988). *Shaping written knowledge*. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin Press.

Bazerman, C., Little, J., Bethel, L., Chavkin, T., Fouquette, D., & Garufis, J. (2005). *Reference guide to writing across the curriculum*. West Lafayette, IN: Parlor Press.

Becher, T. (1994). The significance of disciplinary differences. *Studies in Higher Education*, *19*(2), 151-161.

Berkenkotter, C., & Huckin, T. N. (1995). *Genre knowledge in disciplinary communication: Cognition/culture/power*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Bloch, J. (2010). A concordance-based study of the use of reporting verbs as rhetorical devices in academic papers. *Journal of Writing Research, 2*, 219-244.

Bloch, J., & Chi, L. (1995). Comparison of the use of citations in Chinese and English academic discourse. In D. Belcher, & G. Braine (Eds.), *Academic writing in a second language: Essays on research and pedagogy* (pp. 231-273). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Charles, M. (2006). The construction of stance in reporting clauses: A crossdisciplinary study of theses. *Applied Linguistics*, *27*(3), 492-518.

Coffin, C. (2009). Incorporating and evaluating voices in a film studies thesis. *Writing & Pedagogy*, *1*, 163-193.

Çandarlı, D. (2012). A cross-cultural investigation of English and Turkish research article abstracts in educational sciences. *Studies about Language*, 12-20.

Davidse, K., & Vandelanotte, L. (2011). Tense use in direct and indirect speech in English. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *43*, 236-250.

Davis, M. (2013). The development of source use by international postgraduate students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *12*, 125-135.

Enginarlar, H. (1990). *A contrastive analysis of writing in Turkish and English of Turkish high school students* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Hacettepe University, Turkey.

Fairclough, F. (1992). Intertextuality in critical discourse analysis. *Linguistics and Education*, 4*(3-4), 269-293*.

Flottum, K., Dahl, T., & Kinn, T. (2006). *Academic voices: Across languages and disciplines*. Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Freeman, D. (2001). Second language teacher education. In R. Carter, & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 72-79). Cambridge University Press.

Gebril, A., & Plakans, L. (2009). Investigating source use, discourse features, and process in integrated writing tests. *Spaan Working Papers in Second or Foreign Language Assessment 7*, 47-84.

Girgin, Y. (2003). *The development of the curriculum with general and specific goals for primary and junior high secondary level Turkish lessons from first days of the Republic to today* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Ataturk University, Erzurum, Turkey.

Harwood, N. (2009). An interview-based study of the functions of citation in academic writing across two disciplines. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *41*, 497-518.

Harwood, N., & Petric, B. (2012). Performance in the citing behavior of two student writers. *Written Communication*, *29*, 55-103.

Hawes, T., & Thomas, S. (1997). Tense choices in citations. *Research in the Teaching of English*, *31*, 393-414.

Hewings, A., Lillis, T., & Vladimirou, D. (2010). Who's citing whose writings? A corpus base study of citations as interpersonal resource in English medium national and English medium international journals. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *9*(2), 102-115.

Hinds, J. (1976). *Aspects of Japanese discourse structure*. Tokyo: Kaitakusha.

Hinkel, E. (1997). Indirectness in L_1 and L_2 academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *27*(3), 361-386.

Hinkel, E. (2002). *Second language writers' text. Linguistic and rhetorical features.* Mahwah, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

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.

Howard, R. M. (1995). Plagiarisms, authorships, and the academic death penalty. *College English*, *57*, 788-806.

Hu, G., & Wang, G. (2014). Disciplinary and ethnolinguistic influences on citation in research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *14*, 14-28.

Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: an expanded sourcebook* (2nd ed). London: Sage.

Hyland, K. (1999). Academic attribution: Citation and the construction of disciplinary knowledge. *Applied Linguistics*, *20*(3), 341-367.

Hyland, K. (2000*). Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Harlow: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2002). Activity and evaluation: reporting practices in academic writing. In J. Flowerdew (Ed.), *Academic discourse* (pp. 115-130). London: Longman.

Hyland, K. (2004). Disciplinary interactions: Metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *13*(1), 133-51.

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.

Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education. *Language Learning*, *16*(1), 1-20.

Kaplan, R. B. (2000). Response to "on the future of second language writing". *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *9*(3), 311-320.

Kaplan, R. B., & Grabe, W. (2002). A modern history of written discourse analysis. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *11*(3), 191-223.

Keraf, G. (1992). *Argumen dan Narasi*. Jakarta: Gramedia.

Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Li, Y., & Casanave, C. P. (2012). Two first-year students' strategies for writing from sources: Patchwriting or plagiarism? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, *21*, 165-180.

Mansourizadeh, K., & Ahmad, U. K. (2011). Citation practices among non-native expert and novice scientific writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *10*, 152-161.

Martin, J. R., & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

McCulloch, S. (2012) 'Citations in Search of a Purpose: Source Use and Authorial Voice in L2 Student Writing'. *International Journal for Educational Integrity*, *8*(1), 55-69.

Mur Duenas, P. (2009). Citation in business management research articles: a contrastive (English-Spanish) corpus-based analysis. In E. Suomela-Salmi, & F. Dervin (Eds.), *Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural perspectives on academic discourse* (pp. 49-60). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.

Nisbett, R. E. (2003). *The geography of thought*. New York: The Free Press.

Paul, D. (2000). In citing chaos: a study of the rhetorical use of citations. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, *14*, 185-222.

Pennycook, A. (1996). Borrowing others' words: Text, ownership, memory, and plagiarism. *TESOL Quarterly*, *30*, 201-230.

Petric, B. (2007). Rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-rated master's theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *6*(3), 238-53.

Preacher, K. J. (2001). Calculation for the Chi-square test: An interactive calculation tool for Chi-Square tests of goodness of fit and independence. [Computer software]. Retrieved from http://www.quantpsy.org.

Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. London, Longman.

Rowley-Jolivet, E., & Carter-Thomas, S. (2014). Citation practices of expert French writers of English: issues of attribution and stance. In A. Łyda, & K. Warchał (Eds.), *Occupying niches: Interculturality, cross-culturality and aculturality in academic research* (pp. 17-34). Second Language Learning and Teaching.

Ramoroka, B. T. (2014). Integration of sources in academic writing: A corpus-based study of citation practices in essay writing in two departments at the University of Botswana. *Reading & Writing*, *5*(1), 1-7.

Sa'adeddin, M. A. (1989). Text development and Arabic-English negative interference. *Applied Linguistics*, *10*(1), 36-51.

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*, 299-310.

Salager-Meyer, F. (1999). Referential behavior in scientific writing: a diachronic study (1810-1995). *English for Specific Purposes*, *18*, 279-305.

Small, H. (2010). Referencing through history: how the analysis of landmark scholarly texts can inform citation theory. *Research Evaluation*, *19*, 185-193.

Soler-Monreal, C., & Gil-Salom, L. (2011). A cross-language study on citation practice in PhD theses. *International Journal of English Studies*, *11*(2), 53-75.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research sett*ings. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J. M. (2014). Variation in citational practice in a corpus of student biology papers: From parenthetical plonking to intertextual storytelling. *Written Communication*, *31*(1), 118-141.

Swales, J. M & Leeder, C. (2012): A reception study of the articles published in English for Specific Purposes from 1990–1999. *English for Specific Purposes*, *31*, 137-146.

Taylor, I. (1995). *Writing and literacy in Chinese, Korean, and Japanese*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Taylor, G., & Chen, T. (1991). Linguistic, cultural and subcultural issues in contrastive discourse analysis: Anglo–American and Chinese scientific texts. A*pplied Linguistics*, *12*, 319-336.

Thompson, P. (2005). Points of focus and position: intertextual reference in PhD theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *4*, 307-323.

Thompson, P., & Tribble, C. (2001). Looking at citations: using corpora in English for academic purposes. *Language Learning and Technology*, *5*, 91-105.

Thompson, G., & Ye, Y. (1991). Evaluation in the reporting verbs used in academic papers. *Applied Linguistics*, *12*(4), 365-82.

Tweed, R. G., & Lehman, D. R. (2002). Learning considered within a cultural context: Confucian and Socratic approaches. *American Psychologist*, *57*, 89-99.

Uysal, H. H. (2012). Argumentation across L1 and L2 writing: Exploring cultural influences and transfer issues. *Vigo International Journal of Linguistics*, *9*, 133-159.

Valle, E. (1999). *A collective intelligence: The life sciences in the royal society as a scientific discourse community*, *1665-1965* (Anglicana Turkuensia No. 17). Turku, Finland: University of Turku.

White, H. (2004). Citation analysis and discourse analysis revisited. *Applied Linguistics*, *25*(1), 89-116.

Yağız, O., Ötügen, R., Kaya, F., & Aydın, B. (2014). A literature review analysis of the Turkish scholars' research articles in ELT and Applied Linguistics. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *158*, 389-393.

Zhang, Y., & Hu, J. (2010). A Genre-based study of medical research article introductions: A contrastive analysis between Chinese and English. *Asian ESP Journal*, *6*, 72-94.