Teaching Academic Writing as a Discipline-Specific Skill in Higher Education

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A volume in the Advances in Higher Education and Professional Development (AHEPD) Book Series

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Table of Contents

Foreword xiii

Preface xv

Acknowledgment xxiii

Chapter 1
The Significance of Teaching Academic Writing as a Discipline-Specific Skill ... 1
El-Sadig Y. Ezza, University of Khartoum, Sudan
Altayeb Alballa Ageeb, University of Khartoum, Sudan
Rayan O. Sirry, University of Khartoum, Sudan
Emtithal Mubarak, University of Khartoum, Sudan

Chapter 2
The Use of Engagement Resources in English, Arabic, and EFL Applied Linguistics Research: A Contrastive Study Within an Appraisal Theoretic Perspective 23
May Mahdi Alramadan, King Faisal University, Saudi Arabia

Chapter 3
Less Is More in College Students' Writing: Extremely Short Stories as a Bridge to Academic Writing 55
Celine Kamhieh, American University of Madaba, Jordan

Chapter 4
University Librarians' Role in Supporting Academic Writing 80
Blessing Chiparausha, Bindura University of Science Education, Zimbabwe
Onias Topodzi, Bindura University of Science Education, Zimbabwe

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Chapter 5
Discipline-Focused Revision Practices: A Context-Specific Example of Revising Dissertation Writing.....98
Mindy Crain-Dorough, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA
Adam C. Elder, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA

Chapter 6
The Impact of Knowledge of English Rhetorical Patterns of Organisation on BA Accounting and Finance Students' Writing Academic Genres 128
Malika Kouti, Kasdi Merbah University, Algeria

Chapter 7
The Use of Metadiscourse Markers in Dissertations Produced by MATESOL Students.....150
Lina Mohamed, University of Khartoum, Sudan

Chapter 8
A Genre-Based Study of Algerian EFL Writers' Academic Texts: Move Structure in Research Article Abstracts.....175
Touria Drid, Kasdi Merbah University, Algeria

Chapter 9
Wikipedia Practices, Quick Facts, and Plagiarism in Higher Education.....199
Christophe Emmanuel Premat, Stockholm University, Sweden

Conclusion 222

Compilation of References 224

About the Contributors 248

Index..... 251

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Teaching Academic Writing As a Discipline-Specific Skill in Higher Education, edited by El-Sadig Y. Ezza, and Touria Drid, IGI Global, 2019. ProQuest Ebook Central, http://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/binghamton/detail.action?docID=6040168.
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Detailed Table of Contents

Foreword xiii

Preface xv

Acknowledgment xxiii

Chapter 1
The Significance of Teaching Academic Writing as a Discipline-Specific Skill... 1
El-Sadig Y. Ezza, University of Khartoum, Sudan
Altayeb Alballa Ageeb, University of Khartoum, Sudan
Rayan O. Sirry, University of Khartoum, Sudan
Emtithal Mubarak, University of Khartoum, Sudan

The purpose of the present study was to popularize the conscious initiation of novice scholars and postgraduate students into the writing conventions of their disciplines. In so doing, the study proposes the integration of writing courses into the disciplinary syllabus so that the students study writing developmentally throughout their stay in the faculty. A questionnaire, and an interview, were used to collect data from the study participants, who were lecturers and teaching assistants in different Sudanese higher education institutions. Data analysis revealed that the participants highly value the proposal to teach academic writing as a discipline-specific skill. It also showed significant differences in the participants' perceptions of explicit instruction of academic writing based on their disciplinary affiliation in favour of hard science specialists. However, the participants' research profiles did not show statistically different perceptions.

Chapter 2
The Use of Engagement Resources in English, Arabic, and EFL Applied Linguistics Research: A Contrastive Study Within an Appraisal Theoretic Perspective 23
May Mahdi Alramadan, King Faisal University, Saudi Arabia

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This study investigates how academics from different cultural backgrounds and levels of expertise use engagement resources to align themselves and their readers towards text-external voices. Using the appraisal theory engagement model, the introduction sections of three sets of texts from Applied Linguistics were analyzed: (1) research articles published in English, (2) research articles published in Modern Standard Arabic, and (3) Master's theses of Saudi EFL students. Results revealed that English- and Arabic-speaking writers prefer different resources due to the impact of culture. Also, Arabic-based patterns appeared in EFL writing supporting the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis at the interpersonal dimension of discourse. The patterns identified had different effects on the type of authorial voice and the nature of reader power-status. The study makes implications for novice EFL academics and for tertiary academic institutions. Explicit instruction of engagement strategies can enculturate student writers into their discipline-specific rhetorical conventions.

Chapter 3
Less Is More in College Students' Writing: Extremely Short Stories as a Bridge to Academic Writing 55
Celine Kamhieh, American University of Madaba, Jordan

This chapter reports on a study of the content of extremely short stories (ESS) written by freshman undergraduates in the language and literature department of a university in Jordan. It looks at the origins and benefits of extremely short stories, with particular reference to the extensive work of Peter Hassall who established the first Extremely Short Story Competition (ESSC) for non-native English speakers in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). This study is the first in an Arab country outside the UAE. Students' most popular themes included problems and problem-solving, travel, student life, family, and friends. Stories contained features of academic writing as well as many literary elements, including character, plot, metaphor, simile, and more. The chapter concludes by suggesting that the ESS can successfully serve as a bridge to academic writing and bring writer and reader closer together by generating interesting texts for audiences other than the instructors.

Chapter 4
University Librarians' Role in Supporting Academic Writing 80
Blessing Chiparausha, Bindura University of Science Education, Zimbabwe
Onias Topodzi, Bindura University of Science Education, Zimbabwe

The university library is often referred to as the heart of the university because of the central role it plays in providing information resources to support research, teaching, and learning activities. The study was carried out among reference librarians and subject librarians at selected universities to establish how the librarians have been supporting academic writing endevours by researchers at their respective institutions

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in Zimbabwe. The study also sought to examine the challenges faced by university librarians when offering services to support academic writing by researchers at Zimbabwean universities. The study adopted a qualitative approach. Ten librarians were interviewed. Findings from the study reveal that university librarians are readily available to offer their services in support of academic writing by researchers. There is however a need to increase researchers' awareness of the role of academic librarians in supporting academic writing. A strong partnership between academic librarians and researchers throughout the research cycle is recommended.

Chapter 5
Discipline-Focused Revision Practices: A Context-Specific Example of Revising Dissertation Writing.....98
Mindy Crain-Dorough, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA
Adam C. Elder, Southeastern Louisiana University, USA

In this chapter, the authors present a conceptual framework grounded in a comprehensive review of the literature that discusses disciplinary writing and scholarly identity, specifically focusing on the role that revision has in both the scholarly writing process and the formation of scholarly identity. A review of the revision process is described, followed by the impacts of discipline and context factors on that process. An example of this process in the social sciences for doctoral students is provided to illustrate the application of the ideas described in the chapter. This discussion concentrates on novice writers such as graduate students and early career researchers. Finally, research-based strategies for providing scholarly writing instruction to graduate students are described with regard to improving students' revision processes.

Chapter 6
The Impact of Knowledge of English Rhetorical Patterns of Organisation on BA Accounting and Finance Students' Writing Academic Genres 128
Malika Kouti, Kasdi Merbah University, Algeria

This chapter discusses the impact of knowing the English rhetorical pattern of organisation on BA Accounting and Finance students' academic writing. More specifically, it focuses on the knowledge of how to structure a letter of application for job hunting purposes. This case study involved the analysis of 40 letters of application written by 40 Accounting and Finance students in the Department of Accounting and Finance at the University of Ghardaïa, Algeria after they had been trained to structure this type of letter. The training lasted for two sessions in the Department of Accounting and Finance at Ghardaia University, Algeria. The training was a direct instruction in which students were shown activities that assisted them in mastering the rhetorical pattern of organisation that concerns letters of application. They were also shown the difference between formal and informal letters of application. The

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obtained results demonstrated the efficiency of the direct instruction in teaching Accounting and Finance students how to write a letter of application.

Chapter 7
The Use of Metadiscourse Markers in Dissertations Produced by MATESOL Students 150
Lina Mohamed, University of Khartoum, Sudan

The use of metadiscourse markers is an important writing strategy employed both to structure the text and to engage the reader in the text production. In this connection, the purpose of this study is to assess the use of metadiscourse markers in term papers produced by MATESOL students at university of Khartoum. Forty papers were examined using Hyland's model of metadiscourse markers. Twenty papers were chosen from class 2016-2017, and the other 20 were selected from class 2017-2018. The data were analyzed in percentage terms. The results revealed that trained students use more metadiscourse markers than the untrained students. Additionally, it was found that female students used more metadiscourse markers than male. Also, it was found that all participants used more metadiscourse markers in the background section than in the statement of the problem section.

Chapter 8
A Genre-Based Study of Algerian EFL Writers' Academic Texts: Move Structure in Research Article Abstracts 175
Touria Drid, Kasdi Merbah University, Algeria

To disseminate academic knowledge, scholars publish their research in the form of journal articles, whose content is sketched in an abstract with a conventional rhetorical organization. This chapter reports a study that aims to examine and assess the organization of research article abstracts in terms of move units. The move structure of 42 abstracts of English research papers written by Algerian researchers and published in one of the Algerian language journals was scrutinized. The study follows Hyland's analytic model, comprising five rhetorical moves: introduction, purpose, method, product, and conclusion. The findings of the study indicate that the writers predominantly employ the pattern introduction-purpose, with some inconsistencies in using the other moves. On the basis of identifying the existing deviations from the predictable generic arrangement of abstracts, the importance of raising genre awareness among EFL writers has been highlighted as a means to enhance the quality of published discourse.

Chapter 9
Wikipedia Practices, Quick Facts, and Plagiarism in Higher Education 199
Christophe Emmanuel Premat, Stockholm University, Sweden

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Plagiarism has been a sensitive issue in higher education in Sweden, as many cases were reported during the last years. It depends partly on resources that are devoted to have efficient detection systems, but it is deeply related to how students are prepared for academic exercises. Many freshmen and sophomores are not familiar with academic requirements and can get used to plagiarizing instead of developing critical thinking. The first step in academic writing is to present guidelines to search relevant sources. The chapter is based on an experimentation on sources made at the University of Stockholm with students enrolled in a course in "Culture and Society in France." By inviting students to work with second hand sources such as Wikipedia and evaluate their validity, it is possible to analyze their learning strategies. The result of the study shows a paradox: if students acknowledge that Wikipedia sources are inappropriate in an academic context, they confirm that they use these sources to have access to other references. A reflection on the quick access to sources is then necessary.

Conclusion 222

Compilation of References 224

About the Contributors 248

Index 251

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Foreword

During graduate school, in the mid-1980s, faculty in our ESL program were teaching and conducting research in the then-nascent field of second-language writing. Beginning in 1987, I served as the director of my institution's Writing Across the Curriculum program. By the early 1990s, partly as an outgrowth of WAC, composition scholars had begun debating the merits of the notion of discourse communities in the academy. At the time, WAC and discourse communities were the province of writing instruction for students whose first language was English, and I did not then envision how they might mesh with second-language composition pedagogy. That has changed; writing instruction for first- and second-language speakers of English has crossfertilized and internationalized. One happy result of that interdisciplinary cooperation is the present volume.

The essays in this collection cohere around its global theme of teaching students how to write within the rhetorical context of an academic discipline. This is most evident in the article by Ezza et al., whose title mirrors that of the volume, but is also reflected in connections among individual contributions. Appropriately for a volume about writing, several essays analyze corpora of texts, notably those by Touria Drid, Lina Mohamed, and May Mahdi Alramadan. Generally, these are texts produced by writers for whom English is a second or foreign language. Drid's essay attends, like that of Malika Kouti, particularly to rhetorical structure, with a caveat which points to another commonality among the essays: a flexible definition of genre. Kouti and Alramadan study genre in the more traditional sense; the former examines undergraduate letters of application, the latter journal articles and master's theses. However, Alramadan studies one segment of these genres, their introductions; this aligns her essay with Drid's, who studies abstracts, but as an independent academic genre, an expansion of the traditional concept. Insofar as abstracts and introductions are both metadiscursive, Drid and Alramadan's studies complement Mohamed's, which studies metadiscourse in term papers by MATESOL students.

While the essays in this volume are united in theme and method, they also exhibit rich diversity. Although qualitative research dominates, it has several avatars: questionnaires, interviews, content analysis, and written metacognitive reflections.

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It is a testament to how internationalized writing pedagogy has become that the authors are scholars in universities in Sweden, Zimbabwe, and Arabic-speaking countries: Sudan (two), Algeria (two), Jordan, and Saudi Arabia. Several disciplines are represented: ESL/EFL, of course (Mohamed, Drid, Alramadan), business and finance (Kouti), and the social sciences (Crain-Dorough). Two papers evaluate resources that equip fledgling academic writers; Chiparaushua and Topodzi argue that university librarians are underutilized by researchers, while Kamhieh urges that extremely short stories (ESSs) build a bridge to academic writing. Most importantly, the collection defines second-language writing liberally enough to include writers who are often overlooked. The essays by Kouti and Premat, who studies plagiarism in Swedish universities, examine writing by undergraduates. Crain-Dorough innovatively formulates recommendations for novice researchers including doctoral students and faculty early in their careers; so does Alramadan, while Drid extends this arc to faculty who have published journal articles. Their work invites extrapolation in two directions. On the one hand, their recommendations are likely to apply across fields of study, despite their discipline-specific origin; on the other, they are likely to be useful for first- as well as second-language writers of English.

I commend this volume to teachers and researchers, both veteran and novice, of both first- and second-language writing in English. All of us will profit from careful study of the research reported here.

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Preface

Academic writing has for a long time been receiving huge scholarship. Efforts made to proliferate the academic writing culture involved producing encyclopedic sources (Boice, 1990; Swales, 1990; Silvia, 2007; Bazerman, 2005; Swales, 2004; Rocco & Hatcher, 2011; Hayot, 2014; Hyland, 2003; Hyland, 2004; Hyland, 2005; Hyland & Guinda, 2012; Hyland, 2009; Hyland, 2012; Hyland, 2015, Hyland, 2018) writing textbooks (Swales & Feak, 2011, 2012; Bailey, 2011; Gillet et al, 2009; Coffin et al, 2003; Morley, 2014; Goodson, 2016; a), top-tier journals (e.g., Journal of Second Language Writing, College Composition and Communication, Journal of Writing Research, Assessing Writing, Reading and Writing and Journal of Academic Writing) and international conferences (e.g., Symposium on Second Language Writing, European Association for the Teaching of Academic Writing Conference and International Conference on Writing for STEM). These efforts have primarily been made to enculturate novice scholars and postgraduate students into the academic writing conventions. It is widely believed that the mastery of these conventions is the sine qua non of successful post-graduate training (Hinkel, 2004; Cameroon et al, 2009; Street, 2009; Badenhorst et al, 2015; Harwell, 2015; Burford, 2017). All things considered, writing forms the backbone of what students do in fulfillment of degree requirements that culminate in postgraduate dissertations.

Yet, despite the centrality of writing to the postgraduate programme activities, it is generally conceived to be defined by struggle (Badenhorst et al, 2012, p. 64). This struggle is attributable in part to the fact that academic writing combines a variety of generic and disciplinary conventions that writers should master to function as members of their respective disciplinary communities. On the one hand, generic conventions include a number of considerations that give rise to academic writing and enable researchers to position themselves as members of their respective discourse communities. These include the audience, purpose, organization, style flow and presentation (Swales & Feak, 2012). On the other hand, disciplinary conventions encompass, *inter alia*, "the kind of evidence accepted, the style deemed appropriate, the familiar turns of phrase" (Russell, 2002, p. 17). Such academic writing conventions could challenge even experienced writers in their attempt "to cram complex scientific

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ideas, methodological details and statistical analyses into a tight manuscript" (Silvia, 2007, p. 16). In most cases academic writing conventions are believed to comprise huge hidden agenda that supervisors, assessors for conference papers and journal reviewers use to estimate the quality of submissions (Street, 2009). What is more, because writing is an essential component of disciplinary activities, professors do not see the need to teach it as a separate subject. It is natural, therefore, that only few graduates succeed in professions that require extended composing skills (Russell, 2002; Hunter, & Tse, 2013).

It is reported above that a major scholarship was devoted to instructional procedures to initiate novice scholars and postgraduate students into the writing conventions of their disciplines. For example, John Swales and Christine Feak particularly have been making tremendous contributions to the efforts made to achieve this objective at all drafting stages of dissertations and research articles. Their collective effort covered most stages of research article and dissertation sections including, the *abstract* (Swales et al, 2009), the *introduction* (Swales & Feak, 2011), the *review of the literature* (Feak & Swales, 2009) and a comprehensive source for postgraduate writing (Swales & Feak, 2012). Similar general sources include Barros (2016), Morley (2015), Bailey (2011), Howe & Henriksson (2007), among others. Yet, research still informs that novice writers in academic contexts do not receive sufficient professional training to enculturate them into the discourse of their chosen fields (Russell, 2002; Pololi et, 2004; Cameron et, 2009; Murray, 2009; Street, 2009; Badenhorst, 2012; Badenhorst et, 2015; Coffin et al, 2005).

Thus, the present book project is intended to contribute to the ongoing conversation about the best instructional practices to improve the composing skills of novice scholars and postgraduate students. Entitled *Teaching Academic Writing as a Discipline-Specific Skill in Higher Education,* this book issues from a number of considerations. First, AW is central to the academic and professional development of academics. In other words, members of the academia can have access to the content of their disciplines through writing and move up the career level through publications. Second, within the specialized fields, social practices generate conventional textual configurations, which are sometimes problematic for novice writers. Areas of disciplinary writing difficulty cover issues such as discipline-specific modes of argument, citation practices, authorial voice, rhetorical structure of academic genres, writing for publication, etc. Such challenges are aggravated by the transparency of writing skill (Russell, 2002). That is, writing is so bound up with disciplinary activity that subject specialists hardly see the need to explicitly teach it.

The book falls into nine chapters that are generally subsumed under two broad categories: avenues to enhance AW pedagogical practices (five chapters) and endeavours to initiate postgraduate students into various AW conventions (four chapters). The remaining part of the book introduction will present synopses of the

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chapters. The first category consists of five chapters that investigated the significance of teaching academic writing, the use of engagement resources in English, Arabic and applied linguistics, teaching extremely short stories as a bridge to academic writing, the role of the university librarians in supporting academic writing and discipline-focused revision practices. In the first study, Ezza, Ageeb, Sirri & Mubarak explored the possibility of teaching academic writing as a discipline-specific skill. They used a questionnaire, and an interview to collect data from the study participants, who were Lecturers and Teaching Assistants in different Sudanese higher education institutions. Data analysis revealed that the participants highly valued the proposal to teach academic writing as a discipline-specific skill. It also showed significant differences in the participant's perception of explicit instruction of academic writing based on their disciplinary affiliation in favour of hard science specialists. However, the participants' research profile did not show statistically different perceptions.

Second, Alramadan conducted a contrastive study to assess how academics from different cultural backgrounds and levels of expertise use engagement resources to align themselves and their readers towards text-external voices. She analysed the introduction sections in research articles published in English, research articles published in modern standard Arabic and Master's theses of Saudi EFL students. Results revealed that English- and Arabic-speaking writers prefer different resources due to the impact of culture. Also, Arabic-based patterns appeared in EFL writing support the Contrastive Rhetoric Hypothesis at the interpersonal dimension of discourse. The patterns identified had different effects on the type of authorial voice and the nature of reader power-status. The study makes implications for novice EFL academics and for tertiary academic institutions. Based on these findings, they study advocate the explicit instruction of engagement strategies to enculturate student writers into their discipline-specific rhetorical conventions.

Third, Kamhieh attempted to decide if extremely short stories (ESS) can serve as bridge to academic writing. It was found that the students' most popular themes were problems and problem-solving, travel, student life, family and friends. Also, stories contained features of academic writing as well as many literary elements, including character, plot, metaphor, simile and more. The chapter concluded that ESS could successfully serve as a bridge to academic writing and bring writer and reader closer together by generating interesting texts for audiences other than the instructors.

Fourth, Chiparausha and Topodzi carried out an investigation into the role of university librarians in supporting academic writing. Reference librarians and subject librarians at selected universities in Zimbabwe were interviewed to collect data to assess the extent to which they were supporting academic writing endeavours by researchers at their respective institutions. The findings revealed that university librarians were readily available to offer services in support of academic writing;

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there was, however, a need to increase researchers' awareness of these services. A strong partnership between librarians and researchers throughout the research cycle is recommended.

Fifth, Crain-Dorough and Elder presented a conceptual framework for discipline-focused revision practices which involved a comprehensive review of literature regarding the role that revision plays in the scholarly writing and scholarly identity with special reference to novice writers. Finally, research-based strategies for providing scholarly writing instruction to graduate students were described.

The other category, i.e., endeavours s to initiate postgraduate students into various AW conventions, comprised discipline-specific interventions conducted to enculturate students into the writing conventions of their disciplines. These are the impact of the English rhetorical pattern of organisation on accounting and finance student's writing, the use of metadiscourse markers in MATESOL dissertations, genre-based texts written by Algerian students and plagiarism in the students' writing in higher education. A synopsis of each study will provided below.

To begin with, Kouti discussed the impact of knowing the English rhetorical pattern of organisation on BA Accounting and Finance student's writing academic genres. More specifically, the study focused on the knowledge of how to structure a letter of application for job hunting purposes. This case study involved the analysis of forty letters of application written by forty Accounting and Finance students in the department of Accounting and Finance at the University of Ghardaïa, Algeria after they had been trained to how to structure this type of letters. The results demonstrated the efficiency of the direct instruction in teaching accounting and finance students how to write a letter of application.

Second, Mohammed investigated the use of metadiscourse markers in MATESOL dissertations as a strategy to structure texts and engage the audience in the text production. 40 papers were examined using Hyland's (2004) model of metadiscourse markers. The results revealed that trained students use more metadiscourse markers than the untrained students. Also, it was found that all participants used more metadiscourse markers in the background section than in the statement of the problem section.

Third, Drid examined research abstract organization based on the move system devised by Hyland (2000). The findings of the study indicated that the writers predominantly employ the pattern Introduction-Purpose, with some inconsistencies in using the other moves. On the basis of identifying the existing deviations from the predictable generic arrangement of abstracts, the importance of raising genre awareness among EFL writers was highlighted as a means to enhance the quality of published discourse.

Finally, Premat explored plagiarism in the students' writing in higher education. The study participants were invited to work with second-hand sources such as

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Wikipedia and reflect on their validity so that their learning strategies could be analysed. The result of the study showed a paradox: students acknowledge that Wikipedia sources were inappropriate in an academic context, but they also confirmed that they used these sources to have access to other references.

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Acknowledgment

The major theme of this book, academic writing in disciplinary contexts, is an area which has always attracted our attention as professors of second/foreign language writing in higher education. Our interest has gradually evolved with the pressing need we have felt to contribute to the vastly growing body of research on academic writing challenges. Because we have reached the conviction that disciplinary discourse communities are now shaping the way academics write, we thought that our contribution should be oriented towards the specificities of writing in the disciplines rather than towards the generalized picture of academic writing that previous research and many textbooks have always drawn. To author a whole book on this topic could be unattainable in a short time, given the massiveness of the issues addressed and the complexity of perspectives in this area of research. However, the realization of our interest in this theme was possible through this collection of papers written and reviewed collaboratively by scholars from different countries. Without this joint effort, the production of a book on academic writing as a discipline-specific skill in higher education was not achievable. Therefore, we should be grateful to a number of parties who have led this book to be published. In the first place, we thank all the authors who have trusted our objective intentions and submitted their chapters to be included in this volume. We valorize the original studies they have conducted and appreciate the enormous efforts they have exerted to generate and revise the chapters. Also, we express our deepest appreciation to the publisher, IGI Global, and its development team for the opportunity of publication they offered and the guidance they provided throughout the editing stages. A special word of gratitude goes to Prof. Mark Letourneau from Weber State University (USA), who, besides reviewing some chapters, has critically reflected on the content of the whole volume and produced its preface by highlighting the particularities of each paper and by drawing connections between the works of common perspective. Our appreciation is extended to the panel of reviewers: Dr. Celine Kamhieh, Dr. Howli Ibrahim Howli, Dr. Normala Othman, Dr. May Alramadan, Dr. Latifa Hafsi, Dr. Mouna Fethiza Tidjani, Dr. Fatima Yahia, Ms. Farida Karmi and Ms. Soraya Moulei. Their meticulous and objective feedback assisted the authors to improve the writing quality and the

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content of their chapters. Finally, we have to admit that being committed to reach the final stage of this publication was challenging at family level. Hence, we would like to thank the members of our families for their assistance, patience and sacrifice for several months. The whole work was demanding but academically worthwhile.

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Chapter 1
The Significance of Teaching Academic Writing as a Discipline-Specific Skill

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to popularize the conscious initiation of novice scholars and postgraduate students into the writing conventions of their disciplines. In so doing, the study proposes the integration of writing courses into the disciplinary syllabus so that the students study writing developmentally throughout their stay in the faculty. A questionnaire, and an interview, were used to collect data from the study participants, who were lecturers and teaching assistants in different Sudanese higher education institutions. Data analysis revealed that the participants highly value the proposal to teach academic writing as a discipline-specific skill. It also showed significant differences in the participants' perceptions of explicit instruction of academic writing based on their disciplinary affiliation in favour of hard science specialists. However, the participants' research profiles did not show statistically different perceptions.

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INTRODUCTION

The theme of this paper arose out of a training course on academic writing organized by Khartoum University Advanced Training Centre (KUATC) and the English Language Institute (ELI) in the same University in Sudan. The course was part of a comprehensive training program that aimed at introducing Teaching Assistants and Lecturers (who were in the service of the University) to English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The course did not result from an analysis of students' need for EAP skills as is the standard practice. They were simply conceived to require advanced academic writing skills to improve the quality of the dissertations and proposals they were drafting. Fortunately, the course turned out to be highly relevant to the candidates' needs as evidenced by their enthusiasm for contributing to the extended classroom discussions, insightful solutions to the course tasks, engaging mini-presentations, and request for additional training to be organized in the future. Also, candidates who had been exempted from attending the course sessions as they already had acquired academic writing conventions through their multiple publications still decided to stay the course. What is more, trainees from the English departments were initially reluctant to enroll in the program for fear that it would repeat content that they had already studied in both under- and postgraduate courses. However, in the end they asserted that they had been mistaken in prejudging it.

Historically, most candidates studied English as a required university subject. On average, it consisted of two modules taught in the first and second semesters of the first academic year. The first module was a remedial program offered to facilitate the transition from secondary to tertiary English syllabus. By contrast, the second module was an ESP-based program intended to introduce the students to the English variety specific to their disciplines. However, given the fact that most disciplines were taught through the medium of Arabic at the bachelor level, it was apparent that both modules did serve no specific purpose since as reported in Ezza & Al-Jarrallah (2015, p. 176) the acquisition of ESP skills aims primarily to "overcome academic problems caused by the use of English as a medium of instruction."

In the light of the vital role that writing plays in the academia in the manner reported above, this paper maintains that academic authorities at the University of Khartoum should consider integrating it longitudinally into the disciplinary syllabus as a follow-up or a substitute for the existing English course taught as a required university subject. Many local and universal practices can be invoked in support of the proposal. On the local level, even in the absence of systematic training in the conventions of academic writing, online research forums, e.g., researchgate.net, academia.edu, etc., indicate that young Sudanese scholars are actively contributing to the advancement of knowledge through their highly cited scientific research. This research mentality is equally true of the EAP trainees at KUATC and ELI

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who showed a vested interest in attending additional training in academic writing to acquire advanced skills they would need for current and future research endeavor.

On the global level, researchers maintain that writing is, in fact, a subject-specific skill that "helps to create the disciplines" by establishing disciplinary communities, and determining what will count as disciplinary knowledge (Hyland, 2004, p.5). Hyland goes so far as to argue that disciplinary communities are defined by their writing and that "it is how they write rather than what they write that makes the crucial differences between them" (p.3). Similarly, Carter (2007, p. 3888) theorizes that in hard sciences students are enculturated into the knowledge of the physical world through "disciplinary ways of doing" including laboratory experiments; but essentially, Carter contends, it is the lab report writing that converts "doing into knowing." Thus, it is legitimate to maintain that introducing the students to the writing conventions of their disciplines would generate research-oriented academics. Also, Sudanese young scholars will approach academic writing as a subject-specific skill, unlike their predecessors who learned to write "by a process of slow acculturation." (ibid, p. 385), i.e., through an apprenticeship that involved no direct instruction.

To conclude, the study attempts to answer three questions to assess Sudanese novice scholars' perception of the need to integrate academic writing into disciplinary syllabus, and to decide if there are perception differences based on their disciplinary background and research profile. Also, the study intends to achieve four objectives: to give insight into the major characteristics of disciplinary writing conventions; to highlight the significance of systematic training in disciplinary writing skills; to socialize novice scholars and graduate students into the academic discourse of their disciplines; and to popularize academic writing among graduate students in the Sudanese academia.

CONCEPTUAL BACKGROUND

Academics across disciplines attach heightened significance to writing owing to the vital role that it plays in their professional and academic development. They need writing not only to move up the career ladder but also to produce, share and affect knowledge production among their peers. Boice (1990, p. 7) ensures that "writing for publication weighs heavily in decisions about hiring, promotion and tenure." This reasoning is particularly true if the faculty members publish quality articles in high impact journals (Rocco & Hatcher, 2011, p. 3). Also, the faculty members are conceived to write for personal reasons in such a way that they "construct themselves as academics, build professional visibility and establish reputation…" (Hyland, 2011, p. 60) and, thus, "enjoy the power they derive from writing and the power derived from subsequent publication" (Rocco, 2011, p. 3).

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It is clear, then, that writing constitutes the bulk of what academics do in their institutions; that is, they write reviews, articles, book chapters and conference presentations (Hyland, 2004; Carter, 2007). Even laboratories in hard science departments are conceived to devote "more energy to producing papers than to making discoveries," and that scientists spend more time "in discussing and preparing articles for publication." (Latour &Woolgar, 1979; as cited in Hyland, 2004, p. 3). Writing is also a major indicator of the effectiveness of teaching and learning in hard and soft sciences. For instance, after careful examination of learning outcomes of zoology and psychology, Carter (2007) concluded that the evidence of learning in both programs involved ability to write lab reports, scientific papers, literature review, critical analyses, and summaries, among others.

As to postgraduate graduate students, mastery of academic writing is the sine qua non of successful training. Even purely taught programs require writing activities in fulfillment of various course-related assignments, e.g., lab reports, field reports, review of related literature, book review, a synopsis of an extended academic document, and most importantly, assessment of candidates' performance. Owing to the technical nature of these writing activities, it becomes urgent to provide postgraduate candidates with special training so that they can write to the satisfaction of program tutors and administrators. The urgency for acculturating postgraduate students into the academic writing conventions of their disciplines stems from many factors. First, writing is a complex process "in which many cognitive demands impinge on the writer at the same time", including the objective of the written product, the audience, the structure of the arguments, and the genre of the compositions (Pea & Kurland, 1987, p. 288). Also, academic writing combines a variety of disciplinary and generic conventions that writers should master to be able to persuade the discourse communities of their argument. Second, academic writing is believed to comprise a huge hidden agenda that supervisors, assessors for conference papers and journal reviewers use to estimate the quality of submissions (Street, 2009). Third, because writing is an essential component of disciplinary activities, professors do not see the need to teach it as a separate subject. It is natural, therefore, that only a few graduates succeed in professions that require composing skills (Russell, 2002). These challenges could best be handled through systematic training not only to enhance candidates' composing competence but also, as Cameron et al (2009, p.270) maintain, to raise their awareness of their academic identity as writers and academics "with a legitimate voice and contribution."

Because writing is widely conceived to reflect the nature of disciplinary values, customs, practices, rules, and conventions (Hyland, 2010; Carter, 2007; Nesi& Gardner, 2006, 2012; Swales, 2004; Russell, 2002; Becher &Trowler, 2001; Parry, 1998), it is important to understand how disciplines work to know how they write. In this connection, the available literature makes frequent reference to Becher

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Table 1. Science grouping

Groups	Subgroups	Examples	characteristics
Hard	Pure	Physics, Biology, Mathematics	cumulative, atomistic, impersonal, value-free, clear criteria for knowledge verification, etc.
	Applied	Engineering, Medicine, Technology	purposive, pragmatic, concerned with mastery of the physical environment, etc.
Soft	Pure	History, anthropology, Politics	the reiterative, holistic, personal, value-laden, dispute over criteria for knowledge verification, etc.
	Applied	Education, Management, Law	Functional, utilitarian, concerned with the enhancement of professional practice, etc.

Adapted from Becher &Trowler(2001)

&Trowler's(2001) grouping of sciences into hard and soft with each being also both pure and applied as summarized in table (1) below. In addition to the characteristics listed in the table, Braxton (1995), as cited in Nesi& Gardner (2006, p. 99), explains that hard disciplines are more concerned with the development of career and cognitive goals. By contrast, soft disciplines tend to develop education, character, "critical thinking and scholarly activities." Also, Coffin et al (2003) draw a methodological distinction between hard and soft sciences. In other words, while knowledge production in hard sciences involves quantification and experimentation procedures, acceptance of new knowledge in soft sciences depends on how well it is argued.

Parry (1998, p. 275) illustrates the difference between hard and soft sciences by comparing physics, and history and sociology. Based on the process of knowledge accumulation, physics could be said to be atomistic in the sense that "each new piece of the jigsaw has to be identified and fitted in what is already there." By contrast, knowledge production in history and sociology is "based on criticism, reiteration and interpretation", which renders it "holistic and organic, growing in a complex and comparatively unpredictable way." Thus, the jigsaw metaphor of physics does not applyto it. However, the disciplines are not always sharply dichotomized as Becher's model would indicate. There are instances of crossover between hard/soft and pure/applied divides (Neumann et al (2002), as cited in Nesi and Gardner (2006). This is evidenced by such modular courses as clinical psychology, physical geography, speech pathology, econometrics, and computational linguistics, to mention but a few.

Subsequent empirical research findings reinforced the view that disciplines vary in their approach to knowledge in conformity with science grouping summarized in table (1) above. For instance, Ethington (1995), as cited in Nesi& Gardner (2006, p. 100), investigated opinions on the goals of undergraduate education as perceived by faculty members. Participants'responses particularly centered upon three factors:

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knowledge acquisition and knowledge application and knowledge integration. It was revealed that faculty members in the soft fields emphasized knowledge acquisition while faculty members in the hard sciences were found to be more concerned with knowledge application. Both knowledge integration and knowledge application were "perceived to be more important in applied disciplines than in pure disciplines."

Hyland (2009) observes that the differences in the disciplinary perception of the world are reflected in the way the disciplines write about it. This observation is true even when the disciplines discuss the same issue. For instance, Bazerman (2010, p. 226) proposes that disciplines conceive of and thus write about "murder" in different ways. In other words, biochemistry attempts to find out if murder relates to the chemical structure of the perpetrator; law decides if there is evidence to condemn or acquit the accused; psychology looks into "what thinking, feeling or childhood events" could cause criminal behavior; sociology decides if certain social classes are conducive to murder; and penology writes about the ways to treat murderers in prison.

The available literature draws extensive comparisons between the writing conventions of hard and soft sciences basedon their scientific characteristics as reported in table (1) above. On the one hand, the concrete, impersonal, and value-free nature of hard sciences requires a language that describes material objects (Parry, 1998). Also, since hard sciences require experimental proof as the only basis to accept new knowledge (Hyland, 2010, 2009; Coffin, 2003; Bazerman, 2010; Bazerman et al, 2005; Parry, 1998), they use arigid writing format that starts by establishing a gap in the existing literature and then providing experimental data to bridge it, following the standard move system of Introduction-Methods-Results-Conclusion (IMRD) devised by Hyland (2004).

By contrast, the individualistic and interpretive nature of soft sciences draws on the strength of their arguments to persuade their respective disciplinary communities of the new knowledge claims. This renders their writing style "highly rhetorical … with emphasis upon the interpretation of phenomena and asserting a particular perspective" (Parry, 1998, p. 277). However, certain soft sciences (e.g., sociology, psychology, economics, etc.) apply the IMRD system to their writing, but they still "have to give far more attention to explicit interpretation (Hyland, 2009, p. 9). What is more, the adoption of the IMRD writing system by some soft sciences produces texts that are numerically different from their hard science counterparts as evidenced by Hyland's (2011b).

Writing in both hard and soft disciplines also differs with respect to their approach to the audience. According to Hyland (ibid, p. 204), readers of research articles in hard sciences are "often familiar with prior research". Thus, researchers do not need to use linguistic resources such as hedges (i.e., might, appear, seem) and boosters (i.e., surely, definitely, certainly) to persuade their readers of their research findings. By

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contrast, the interpretive nature of soft sciences requires researchers to "work harder to establish their credibility" using hedges and boosters since they cannot otherwise "report their research with the same confidence of shared assumptions" as their hard science counterparts. Nesi& Gardner (2006, p. 180) report that "expert science writers … assumed that readers shared the same body of knowledge as themselves" while social science writers "needed to persuade readers to accept findings based on methodologies and theoretical frameworks not universally accepted in the discipline"

Novice scholars and postgraduate students should acquire considerable generic and discipline-specific writing skills to function as members of their disciplinary communities. Although these skills are not systematically taught and are thus considered to be part ofthe disciplines' hidden agenda (Street, 2009), scholars are able to identify a myriad of literacies that could be readily integrated into a sustainable training program to initiate novice scholars and postgraduate students into the writing conventions of their disciplines. These include the language of evaluation (Hood, 2010, 2012; Martin & White, 2005), stance and voice in written academic genres (Hyland, 2012), evidential strategies (Nuckolls &Michael (2012), research genres (Swales, 2004), Swales and Feak's (2012) volume on academic writing for graduate students, stance-taking skills (Hyland, 2005), and meta-discourse in academic writing (Hyland, 2004, 2005), among others.

The most cited approaches to teaching academic writing are Writing across the Curriculum (WAC) and Writing in the Disciplines (WID); they will be discussed in turn in the next few lines. As to WAC, it originated in Great Britain in the 1970s, but has been widely developed and exercised in North America. Known technically as writing to learn, WAC centres upon "learning correct usage of English, learning of modes and formats characteristic of a discipline, consistency of documentation and consistency of application of disciplinary research methodology" (Thaiss, 2002, p. 301). WAC is based on the belief that the responsibility for teaching academic writing should be shared between the English departments and all the other academic fields (Brand, 1998; Russell, 2002). The need to involve the academic disciplines in teaching academic writing is given impetus by the fact that writing conventions vary from discipline to discipline to the extent that "what is counted as good writing for literature" could not be so conceived for a physics lab report (Bazerman et al, 2005, p. 126). In fact, such writing conventions are conceived to be "so bound up with the activity of the discipline" (Russell, 2002, p. 7) that they could best be identified and communicated to novice scholars by the subject specialists. Also, unlike remedial writing classes that focuson grammar and writing mechanics (ibid), WAC-based writing classes are developmental in nature, i.e., systematically incorporated and taught to the students throughout their academic life.

Evidence from empirical research informs that WAC-based writing considerably enhances the writing quality produced the by students. For example, Langer (1984),

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as cited in Walvoord & McCarthy (1990, p. 64), investigated the effect of topic-specific knowledge on the writing of high school students. The study participants "were asked to generate information about a topic by free association in response to key words". This information was then compared to the writing quality of texts produced by the participants. A strong and consistent relationship between topic-specific knowledge and the participants' writing quality was detected. By contrast, Langer concludes, the use of fragmentary information produces poorer writing quality because it rests on "less structural knowledge."

On the other hand, known as learning to write, WID focuses on the acquisition of the "socially-mediated communication skills and genre knowledge appropriate to a specific discipline" (Broadhead, 1999; as cited in Cater et al, 2001, p. 279). Thus, differences in disciplinary activities require different modes of written communication such as technical writing in the scienecs, persuasive writing in business, and argumentative writing in literature, to mention but a few (Riedner et al, 2015, p. 11). More specifically, Hyland (2017) introduces a series of English in the discipline (ED) courses offered at Hong Kong University to be selected by faculties to serve their discipline-epecific purposes. The courses are planned to serve such disciplines as Exercise Health, Real Estate & Built Environment, Journalsim, Industrial and manufacturing System Engineering, Clincal Clerkship and Applied Child development. The need to offer such discipline-oriented writing courses stems from the conviction that "each discipline draws on different lexical, grammatical and rhetorical resources to create speialised Knowledge" (p. 9).

According to Russell (2002, p. 310) WAC and WID were once exercised as integral to each other in the 1970s and 1980s but were dichotomized in 1990s. Part of the reason for separating the two approaches was that WAC was conceived to be writing to learn while WID was considered to be learning to write the discourse of the discipline. Also, the prepositions "across" and "in" were argued to render WAC interdisciplinary and WID disciplinary (p. 311). In a related argument, Thaiss (2001, p. 301) contends that unlike the "in" which implies depth, "across" implies coverage but not depth. Similarly, Gustafsson & Ganobcsik-Williams (2016, p. 517) maintain that WAC and WID differ as to the degree of depth and specificity of involvement in the disciplinary activities. That is, whereas WAC emphasizes the development of general writing strategies "WID deals with the development and the teaching of discipline-specific genres and tends to focus on upper level discipline-specific writing intensive courses."

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METHOD

Instruments

A questionnaire, and an interview were used to collect data for the study. As for the questionnaire, it was developed as the main instrument to collect quantitative data to answer the three research questions. It consisted of 10 statements with five-pointLikert options ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". The questionnaire focused on the significance of writing in the academic life of the participants, the need for systematic training in academic writing and the amount of writing required by all courses offered by their departments. The questionnaire was emailed to six TESOL experts to judge its face validity. They proposed addition, deletion, (thematic) ordering and the merger between related statements. This process reduced the initial 16 statements to 10 statements. Second, an interview was conducted to give a detailed account of, for instance, for choosing "strongly agree" in some statements and "neutral" in others. Most statements produced extended discussion. For instance, the participants emphasized that writing was essential for their own postgraduate training and the courses that they were teaching in their faculties. Also, they lamented the lack of systematic training in academic writing to the extent they had to organize special sessions with their colleages to discuss their personal writing challenges and sought possible ways to overcome them.

Participants

The study participants were 84 Sudanese Lecturers and Teaching Assistants who were in the service of many Sudanese higher education institutions, but most of them were from the University of Khartoum. They were of different disciplinary backgrounds as detailed in table (2) below. They enrolled in 6 academic writing training sessions equally divided between KUATC and ELI. Most of the participants either completed their MA/MSc progarmmes or started their PhD dissertations. Several participants published research articles in local and international journals and gave presentations

Table 2. Study participants

General Fields	Disciplines	Number
Soft Sciences	English, Linguistics, psychology, German Language, Chinese Language, Education, Economics, Administration, and law.	40
Hard Fields	Engineering, Agriculture, Medical Sciences, Physics, Biology	44
Total		84

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at local and international conferences. Thus, they were particially enculturated into their respective academic discourses as evidenced by their rich contributions to the training discussions. A participant with 12 published articles was exempted from attending the training programme but he chose to attend all the sessions.

Procedure

Most participants returned the questionnaire in the same training session it was distributed to them. The training module familiarized the participants with the academic writing discourse, which remarkably facilitated their understanding of statements. However, few enquired about the meaning of key phrases such as "disciplinary syllabus", "learning outcome", "support/refute a position", "synthesize information", etc. Some interview sessions were delayed because selected participants were not available immediately after the completion of the training program.

Results

This section reports the study results. It will be organized on the basis of the questions posed in the introduction section. In other words, each part will present the statistical analysis used to provide an answer to the specific research questions.

Question 1: How do the study participants perceive of the proposal to teach writing as a discipline-specific skill? In an attempt to answer this question, a T-test was used to analyze the related data. That is, the Test value (the normal mean =30), which results from the number of statements (i.e.10) multiplied by the numerical value of the middle Likert option (i.e. neutral) was compared to the mean of the participants' responses, which is reported table 3 along with their number.

Table 4 details the independent sample test to compare the mean of the participants' responses and the test value using t-test.

As can be seen, the actual mean in table 3 (i.e., 40.50) is greater than the test value in table 4 (i.e., 30), resulting in a significant difference between them in favour

Table 3. Comparison between the mean of participants' response and Test-value

One-Sample Statistics				
	N	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**
writing	84	40.50	6.206	.677

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Table 4. Independent sample test

	Test Value = 30					
	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
writing	15.506	83	.000	10.500	9.15	11.85

α = 0.005; t= size of diference; df=degree of freedom; sig. =significance

Table 5. Group statistic based on disciplinary affiliation

Disciplines	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Soft Fields	40	38.55	6.809	1.077
Hard Fields	44	42.27	5.055	.762

of the former (i.e., 0.00). This finding indicates that the participants (regardless of their disciplinary affiliation, academic rank and research profile) agree with the proposal to teach academic writing as a discipline-specific skill. A detailed account of this result will be attempted in the discussion section below.

Question 2: To what extent does academic affiliation of the participants affect their perception of the need to integrate academic writing courses into their disciplinary syllabus? Table 5 shows the group statistic based on disciplinary affiliation of the participants.

Table 6 reports the independent samples test using T-test to measure the study participants' perception of the importance of teaching academic writing based on their academic affiliation.

Table 6. Independent Samples Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
Equal variances assumed	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
	1.534	.219	-2.862	82	.005	-3.723	1.301	-6.310	-1.135

α = 0.005; F=variation between sample means; t=test;df=degree of freedom; Sig.=Significance

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Tables 6 shows that the significance level is 0.005, indicating a statistically significant difference between the means of participants' responses in favor of those in the hard fields.

Question 3: Does the participants' research profile affect their perception of the importance of teaching writing as a discipline-specific skill? Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze the study data to provide an answer to this question. Table 7 summarizes the result:

As can be seen in table 7, ANOVA results in a significance level of 0.570, which is greater than alpha £ 0.005. This result shows that participants perceive of explicit instruction of academic writing as an important activity regardless of the frequency of their publication. Initially, it was assumed that more frequently published novice scholars might have more positive perceptions of the need to integrate writing courses in the disciplinary syllabus. However, table 5 shows that even non-published novice scholars hold similar perceptions. The discussion section provides a more detailed interpretation of this finding.

DISCUSSION

As can be deduced from the statistically significant difference between the mean of the participant' responses and the test value in tables 3 & 4, participants attached heightened importance to the role that academic writing plays in their academic and career development, and thus the need to teach it as a discipline-specific skill. This conclusion is reinforced by the fact that about two-thirds of the participants, including both moderately and rarely published scholars, optionally attended the academic writing training sessions and sought to acquire more advanced skills to be able to produce texts that are not only "linguistically accurate" but also "socially appropriate"(Bruce, 2007, p. 1) despite their relative familiarity with the writing conventions of their disciplines. Also, many participants voiced their interest to

Table 7. Analysis of variance of the responses based on participants' research profile

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	44.107	2	22.054	.567	.570
Within Groups	3152.893	81	38.925		
Total	3197.000	83			

Df=degree of freedom; F=variation within sample means; Sig.= Significance

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conduct seminars on the study units from Swales and Feak (2012) that were not covered by the training program. They extended open invitations to the trainer and other stakeholders to contribute to the seminars. Participants from the faculty of Medicine of the University of Khartoum requested a copy of the Swales and Feak's (2012) Commentary to be able to oraganise academic writing training session for their colleagues. The authors were requested to share a soft copy of the text, but they informed that copyright restrictions would not allow it. One of the participants form the Faculty of Medicine is now replacing the trainer and is taking full responsibility in teaching the whole writing module on her own.

For several participants, the academic writing training module was a timely activity that best addressed their writing challenges and worries. Before being explicitly trained in academic writing, the only initiation venue available to them was assistance provided by their dissertation supervisors. However, it is well understood that many supervisors "are struggling writers who themselves complain about not finding time to write" (Silvia, 2007, p. 6). In fact, even well-published scholars in different disciplines were not aware that academic writing could be explicitly taught and researched. When invited to contribute to a national conference on "disciplinary writing conventions" to be organized by the University of Khartoum, most of them maintained that the theme of the conference was beyond their expertise. However, they were persuaded that the conference was about nothing more than sharing their extended writing experiences with novice scholars in the field. For example, they could investigate citation practices, use of meta-discourse, knowledge claims in soft and hard sciences, writing challenges, revision strategies, reasons to write in the academia, etc. Indeed, disciplines are not consciously aware of their own writing conventions because the latter are "so bound with the activity of the discipline" to the degree that they are acquired "in the learning of the discipline itself that they were rarely thought of as writing" (Russell, 2002, p. 170).

As to the discipline factor, the statistical analysis of the participants' responses confirmed the underlying assumption that those in the hard sciences would have more positive perceptions of the significance of teaching academic writing as a discipline-specific skill for two reasons. First, most under- and post-graduate courses in these fields were taught through the medium of English. These courses had already introduced the participants to the report and project writing skills, which helped them to dominate all the training discussions and to provide the most correct answers to Swales and Feak's (2012) tasks. What is more, some participants from medical fields submitted proposals to participate in the disciplinary writing conventions conference referred to above. Second, it was noticed that participants from hard fields were frequently & moderately published researchers. Some of their publications appeared in Scopus-indexed journals. Also, they already posted their articles on online research forums, including researchgate.net, academia.edu,

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and Google Scholar; they have been regularly receiving updates about the citation of their work.

In fact, attempts to acculturate novice scholars into the academic writing conventions were already promulgating in the University of Khartoum. Several hard science specialists were reported to teach "scientific writing", particularly to their post-graduate candidates. They were observed to use resources that did not reflect new developments in academic writing. For instance, the lack of awareness of WAC principles deprived their students of the collaborative effort of the English departments. However, these training attempts still reflect the need to equip novice researchers with advanced writing skills so that they could write to the satisfaction of their disciplinary communities. It was natural therefore to predict that they would hold more positive views about the need to integrate academic writing courses into their disciplinary syllabus.

It was reported in the conceptual background section above that academics use writing to achieve a number of academic and professional goals. For example, novice scholars write dissertations to obtain postgraduate degrees while senior scholars write and publish research articles to move up the academic career ladder. Such writing-related functions reasonably explain the study result reported in table (7) above; i.e., moderately, rarely and non-published researchers held similar (positive) perceptions of the importance of teaching academic writing as a discipline-specific subject despite the differences in their publication frequency. Fortunately,several participants informed that they were actively involved in a series of research projects although they were not required to publish to move up the academic career ladder. As lecturers and teaching assistants, it would suffice to complete dissertations to achieve this goal. Indeed, while still attending the academic writing training sessions, many participants submitted absence requests to travel abroad to give presentations at international conferences.

Recently the University of Khartoum has organized a contest for research excellence among its researchers. Part of the aim of the event was to inculcate research mentality in its novice scholars (regardless of their publication frequency); thus, their research articles were publicly commended along with special financial rewards. Such an initiative would equally provide a strong motivation for moderately, rarely and non-published scholars to reconsider the general view that writing is a linguistic business that should be handled by language instructors. Rather, it should be a shared responsibility between the English departments and the other disciplines.

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CONCLUSION

Writing is paradoxically described as "a challenge that produces growth and satisfaction – all at the same time" (Rocco, 2011, p. 3). It was shown in different sections of this paper that writing challenges in the Sudanese context emanate from the misconceptions of the nature of disciplinary writing and the best ways to teach it. Although the online research forums such as researchgate.net, academia.edu, and Google Scholar attest to the rich presence of the Sudanese researchers, most of them still do not believe that they could systematically enculturate postgraduate students into disciplinary writing conventions. Instead, two approaches have to date been adopted to serve this purpose. First, Subject professors have been allegedly integrating advanced academic writing skills into the research methodologies of their disciplines. Needless to say, these professors have not been trained to teach disciplinary writing conventions, and thus it is doubtful if they could professionally handle WAC principles. As a result, they likely end up training their students in sentence-level grammar and writing mechanics. Second, it is widely believed that supervisors could practically help postgraduate students to write to the satisfaction of their academic community. The problem with this approach is that most supervisors are struggling writers themselves (Silvia, 2007). It is unfortunate that many (senior) struggling writers could be promoted to higher ranks based on their extended teaching experience in all Sudanese higher education institutions. This situation jeopardizes knowledge production, lessens the online visibility of the Sudanese higher education institutions and legitimizes Boice's (1991) estimate that 15% of faculty members produce 85% ofthe publications.

The academic writing training module that formed the basis of this study was argued to be a timely activity that attempted to address the academic writing needs of the study participants. The textbook used for academic writing training module (Swales & Feak, 2012) introduced them to advanced writing skills that they needed to professionally complete research articles and postgraduate dissertations. All the tasks selected to serve these purposes provided solid grounds for heated debates between the participants, which were highly fueled by their different disciplinary backgrounds. Thus, responses to the post-course questionnaire revealed that participants, regardless of all their different demographic information, held positive perceptions of the need to teach academic writing developmentally as a discipline-specific skill to be collaboratively taught by subject specialists and English language instructors.

It was reported in the discussion section that many participants would conduct seminars on academic writing at their colleges. This initiative would achieve a significant breakthrough in the academic writing project at the University of Khartoum given the fact that academic staff in various inter-faculty committees

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strongly voiced the (misconceived) view that English departments should provide urgent plans to assist postgraduate students to overcome various writing challenges.

Generally speaking, the result of the study provides strong support for the Khartoum University academic writing project, which has three key components. First, it was reported frequently that KUTC and ELI have been regularly offering an EAP training package, including an academic writing module. To date, this training module has resulted in three options that would collectively achieve the study objectives: organization of regular seminars on academic writing, participation in a national conference on academic writing and sharing literacies acquired from the training programs with other colleagues. Second, the Faculty of Arts at the University of Khartoum called for contributions to a conference on academic writing to be organized in the last quarter of 2019. Researchers from all disciplines were urged to submit proposals so that they could share their extended writing experiences with postgraduate students and novice scholars. Third, a proposal is now being drafted for the establishment of an academic writing center. Being the first of its kind in the country, the center is expected to address various writing challenges faced by students enrolled in all degree programs.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Academic Discipline: A branch of knowledge that is taughtin higher education.

Discourse Community: A social network, built from participants who share some set of communicative purposes. They share an interest in certain topics and share knowledge about the topic.

Enculturation/Acculturation/Initiation: A process by which students learn the dynamics of their culture. The term is used in the writing literature to refer to the acquisition of disciplinary writing conventions either through systematic trainingor long-term socialization.

English for Academic Purposes (EAP): EAP provides training in English language skills needed for academic study; they include listening comprehension, fluency development, reading, grammar, writing, and vocabulary.

Genre: A specific arrangement of discourse elements that is mean to achieve a particular communicative purpose.

Hard Science: Any natural science (e.g., engineering, biology, chemistry, and medicine) that uses experiments to test theories.

Soft Science: Any field (e.g., sociology, linguistics, politics, and history) that investigate and interpret human and social phenomena.

Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC): An instructional programmedeveloped to train the students to write in their disciplines, where teaching is collaboratively conducted by language teachers and subject specialists.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire
The Significance of Teaching Academic Writing as a Subject-Specific Skill

1. Demographic information: please put a check (Ö) next to the information that describes you:
   i. Discipline
      a. Hard Science ( )
      b. Soft Science ( )
   ii. Academic rank
      a. Assistant Professor ( )
      b. Lecturer ( )
      c. Teaching Assistant ( )
   iii. Research Profile
      a. Frequently published scholar ( )
      b. Moderately published scholar ( )
      c. Rarely published scholar ( )
      d. Non-published scholar ( )
2. In the following table, put a check mark(Ö)in the box that best describes your view; where: 5=strongly agree; 4=agree; 3=Neutral; 2=disagree; 1=strongly disagree.

3. Additional remarks

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

4. We very much appreciate your consent to share your mobile number so that we can communicate with you for further information regarding your answers to the questionnaire: _____

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Table 8.

No	Statement	5	4	3	2	1
1	My academic programme requires considerable amount of written assignments in English.					
2	Assignments in courses I teach require special training in advanced writing skills.					
3	Writing is an important component of all the courses I teach.					
4	Writing should be integrated into disciplinary syllabus to produce successful researchers.					
5	Staff members in my faculty are willing to integrate academic writing into the syllabus.					
6	Staff members in my faculty are willing to receive training in advanced academic writing skills.					
7	The ability to write effectively should be an expected learning outcome for all students in my faculty.					
8	Explicit instruction in disciplinary writing conventions enables the students to construct well-reasoned arguments to support/refute a position.					
9	Explicit instruction in disciplinary writing conventions enables the students to synthesize information from multiple sources.					
10	Explicit instruction in disciplinary writing conventions enables the students to revise to improve the quality of drafts.					

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Chapter 2
The Use of Engagement Resources in English, Arabic, and EFL Applied Linguistics Research:
A Contrastive Study Within an Appraisal Theoretic Perspective

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates how academics from different cultural backgrounds and levels of expertise use engagement resources to align themselves and their readers towards text-external voices. Using the appraisal theory engagement model, the introduction sections of three sets of texts from Applied Linguistics were analyzed: (1) research articles published in English, (2) research articles published in Modern Standard Arabic, and (3) Master's theses of Saudi EFL students. Results revealed that English- and Arabic-speaking writers prefer different resources due to the impact of culture. Also, Arabic-based patterns appeared in EFL writing supporting the contrastive rhetoric hypothesis at the interpersonal dimension of discourse. The patterns identified had different effects on the type of authorial voice and the nature of reader power-status. The study makes implications for novice EFL academics and for tertiary academic institutions. Explicit instruction of engagement strategies can enculturate student writers into their discipline-specific rhetorical conventions.

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INTRODUCTION

The need to understand engagement in written academic discourse – that is how writers use interpersonal resources to align themselves and their readers in relation to different points of view– has been gaining increasing interest (e.g., Thompson, 2001; Mei & Allison, 2003; Hood, 2012; Lee, 2017; Xu & Nesi, 2019). This importance stems partly from recognizing that knowledge is a social consensus reached as a result of writer-reader interaction, disciplinary argument and agreement-making (Kuhn, 1962). In academic discourse, writers make new claims and challenge established knowledge. In order to demonstrate the significance of these contributions, writers do not only depend on the validity of the ideational content that they provide, but they also draw on rhetorical tactics to achieve persuasive ends. By engaging readers, writers are able to construct different types of authorial positioning including tentative, cautious, or assertive stances. These reader-engagement strategies are conventional and community-recognized and are also discipline- and genre-specific. Thus, divergence from the normal use of these strategies in their correct context would violate the expectations of the target discourse community and would eventually result in the failure to achieve the persuasive function of the text.

Among the academic genres that involve the use of rhetorical and reader-engagement devices is the introduction to research papers. Introductions are said to be "probably the best locus for investigating rhetorical strategies" (Fakhri, 2009, p. 23). That is because they shape readers' initial impression of the work (ibid.), while convincing readers of the need for the proposed research via the use of evaluative resources (Hood, 2004; Lee, 2006).

A number of scholars have suggested that such rhetorical strategies are culture-specific (e.g., Miller, 1994; Duszack, 1997; Koutsantoni, 2005) and are also transferable through negative interference from the first language to the second language (Contrastive Rhetoric Hypothesis by Kaplan, 1966). In contrast, other researchers maintain that there is a universal rhetoric of academic writing that "imposes a conformity on members of the scientific community no matter what language they happen to use" (Widdowson, 1979, p. 61). Some researchers argue that the discipline exerts a more powerful effect than culture on the shaping of academic rhetorical practices. Flottum, et al., (2007, p. 15), for example, write, "We may say that authors of research articles tend to write more like their disciplinary colleagues writing in other languages than like their language-community co-members writing in other disciplines." Yakhontova (2006) explains this uniformity by suggesting that globalization and the development of electronic media and other forms of cross-cultural exchange have led to the rapid importation of English academic writing patterns and their implantation in other cultures.

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Although considerable research has analyzed the rhetorical nature of western academic discourse (e.g., Hyland, 2003; 2005; 2009; Thompson, 2001; Mauranen, 1993; Duszack, 1997, Koutsantoni, 2005), less attention has been paid to the analysis of the interactional dimension of the discourse written by Arab academics, both expert and novice. The few studies that examined Arabic academic discourse were limited to the description of the generic structure of texts (Najjar; 1990; Al-Qahtani, 2006; Fakhri, 2009; Al-Ali and Sahawneh, 2011; Al-Huqbani, 2013). Furthermore, the overwhelming majority of the studies describing EFL academic discourse written by Arab learners focused on organizational and textual features of the texts (e.g., Mohamed-Sayidina, 2010; Modhish, 2012; Hamed, 2014; Al-Otaibi, 2014; Deraney, 2015). Thus, little attention has been given to the description of engagement in the discourse that is written by Arab/Saudi EFL student writers. Because of the lack of relevant evidence, therefore, it is not possible to validate the uniformity hypothesis and to determine whether the academic discourse of Arab writers, expert and EFL, exhibits similar persuasive and interactional properties as those typically characterizing English discourse.

The present study devises a discipline-specific, genre-specific, contrastive approach in order to examine the use of engagement strategies in academic discourse. The chosen discipline is Applied Linguistics, and the genre considered is the introduction section to published research articles and the introduction sections to EFL Master's theses. Rhetoricity and reader-engagement techniques are operationalized in terms of the use of the resources of the Engagement system within Appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005). The study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. Is culture important in academic discourse persuasion by differentiating the use of Engagement resources or, alternatively, does disciplinary similarity neutralize the effect of culture in this regard?
2. Do the engagement tendencies that are detected as preferential in the Arabic expert discourse transfer to Arab novice writers' EFL writing?

BACKGROUND

The Engagement System

A number of pragmatic models have been proposed in the literature for the analysis of reader engagement in written discourse. Two of the most commonly used are Biber and Finegan (1989) and Hyland (2005). In these models, a number of discrete linguistic exponents (such as first-person pronouns, modals, attitudinal adjectives, etc.) are selected and described prior to the analysis as leading to the creation

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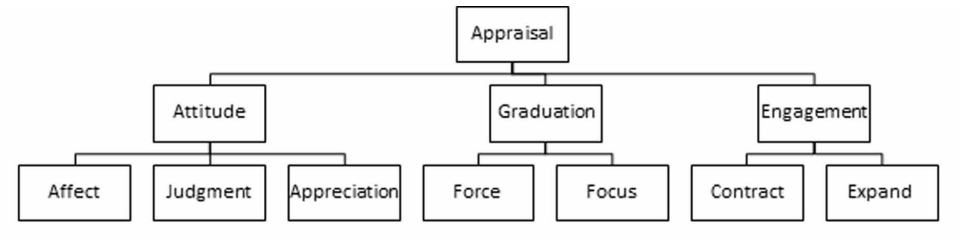
Figure 1. The Appraisal Theory



of certain effects on the process of stance and engagement construction. These models, however, have been found to be less comprehensive than the more recent engagement model within Appraisal theory because they offer little justification for why a particular linguistic feature is selected from among a multiplicity of other equally important features. The selection process seems to be intuitively, rather than theoretically, motivated (Hood, 2004a). Also, these models represent only one dimension of dialogic interaction: the anticipation of future responses from readers. They do not simultaneously analyze how writers achieve intertextual positioning through the rhetorical engagement with previous viewpoints from the literature. Engagement within Appraisal Theory, in contrast, takes as its point of departure, not discrete lexicogrammatical features but certain sematic systems (e.g., Endorse, Counter, Entertain, etc.), then tracks the realization of these rhetorical meanings across all the relevant linguistic features in the text. Additionally, this model attends equally to the two directions of dialogic interaction: reader-related and literature-related. These features make Appraisal theory a more comprehensive analytical model (Pascual and Unger, 2010).

Martin and White (2005) proposed the engagement system as part of the Appraisal Theory that they formulated within the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday and Matheissen, 2004). Appraisal aims to describe the linguistic realization of interpersonal meanings in texts. It is composed of three systems: Attitude, Graduation and Engagement. Each of these systems opens up more delicate networks of choices. Figure 1 illustrates the overall framework.

Attitude is concerned with the kinds of values that can be expressed in texts. It is composed of three subsystems: Affect, Judgment and Appreciation. Affect deals with the writer's inscription of emotional responses, such as *happy*, *interested*, *satisfied*. Judgment involves moral evaluation of human beings and their behaviors as in *courageous*, *honest*. Appreciation refers to the aesthetic evaluation of entities, such as *important*, *complex*. Attitudinal values of these three types can be either positive or negative, and can be explicit or implicit/invoked.

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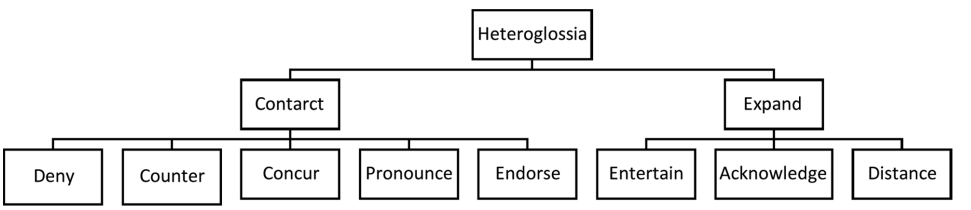
The adjustment of evaluative meaning by degree is known as Graduation (Martin and White, 2005). Attitudinal meanings may be scaled as degrees of Force or Focus. Scaling by degree of Force can be done through the amplification or the downgrading of an attitudinal value. Qualities and entities can be graded by force (e.g., *very/less important*, *more/little importance,* respectively). Non-attitudinal (ideational) meanings can also be scaled through being made relative (Hood, 2004a). In the case of academic writing, this involves the description of the experiential aspects of research in a way that graduates, for example, a study size (*a small number of participants/large-scale study*), number of supporting studies (*few researchers*, *well documented*), scope of usage (*not/widely applied*), and so on (Hood, 2004a). The second dimension of Graduation, that of Focus, involves the Sharpening or Softening of meanings (e.g., *real research, vaguely relevant study,* respectively).

The third subsystem in the Appraisal theory, which represents the focus of the present study, is Engagement. Martin and White (2005, p. 92) defined engagement as involving those resources "by which speakers/writers adopt a stance towards the value positions being referenced by the text and with respect to those they address." The Engagement system within Appraisal theory, draws on Bakhtin's (1986) notions of dialogism and heteroglossia in distinguishing between two types of dialogic space between writers and readers: Monogloss and Heterogloss. Monoglossic statements (like *comprehension is central to acquiring a new linguistic system*) are bare assertions that are presented as facts and that disregard alternative viewpoints and positions. On the other hand, Heteroglossic statements (like *students sometimes show limited proficiency*) acknowledge the dialogic diversity of the claim and the possibility that readers might proffer contrary responses.

Within Heteroglossia itself, a further distinction is drawn between two types of statements: Contractive and Expansive. The former, although they acknowledge the existence of alternative views, exclude these voices from subsequent interaction or at least constrain the scope of their validity and influence. The latter, on the other hand, allow for other voices to play a role in the communicative interaction by indicating that the writer's position is only one possible option. Figure 2 presents a simplified

Figure 2. The Engagement system within Appraisal Theory



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version of the classification of the different Contractive and Expansive resources, followed by definitions and examples from the present data. The definitions are based on Martin and White (2005). The English examples are taken from both the expert and the EFL corpora. The Arabic examples are transliterated and accompanied by English translations.

Dialogic Contraction comprises five categories: Deny, Counter, Concur, Pronounce and Endorse. With Deny and Counter expressions, the textual voice positions itself as disagreeing with or as rejecting alternative positions. These categories are realized with markers such as the ones in Table 1:

The use of Deny and Counter markers is exemplified in the following sentences.

1. The comprehensible input provided to immersion learners might not be sufficient.
2. Such learners may be able to read silently with a certain degree of fluency and comprehend the text but still be unable to perform well on oral reading fluency measures.

In example 1, the writer simultaneously recognizes the existence and rejects the validity of the belief that comprehensible input is indeed sufficient. In example 2, the Counter expressions *but* and *still* fend off the idea from the literature that learners who are able to read silently with fluency and text comprehension can also perform well on oral reading fluency measure.

Concur is realized through formulations like *of course, naturally, logically*; and in Arabic through words like *min-aṭṭabi'i* (naturally). These formulations construe the writer as agreeing with or having the same knowledge as potential readers. In example 3, the proposition is presented as being logical and commonsensical. Thus, any dialogistically alternative position would risk contravening the general consensus.

Table 1. Deny and Counter expressions in the data

	English	**Arabic**
Deny	*not, no, without*	*'adam* (non-), *laysa* (not), *lam* (not), *laa* (no)
Counter (concessive devices)	*however, although, whereas*	*bayda 'anna* (however), *?atta* (even), *bal* (but), *laakin* (but)

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Table 2. Pronounce expressions in the data

English	Arabic
indeed, the fact is, undoubtedly, undeniable, the truth is	*walā šak* (undoubtedly), *bilfi'l* (in fact), *'inna* (indeed), *la-qad* (indeed)

3. **Logically**, L2 learners need to master such aspects of the lexicon to reach advanced and near-native-speakers' language abilities.

Pronounce involves authorial emphasis or explicit authorial interventions and interpolations used to emphasize the validity of the proposition. Markers of Pronounce include the ones in Table 2:

Here is an example of the use of Pronounce:

4. **Indeed**, the 20th century has been marked dramatically by the rise of the science of psychometrics

Endorse involves use of reporting verbs such as *show, demonstrate, prove* and in Arabic, *kašafat* (revealed) and *'aẓharat* (showed) to present the external source as being maximally valid and to present the authorial voice as being in complete alignment (as in example 5). Endorse is also realized by using the non-integral citation format (as in example 6). In non-integral citation, the referenced source is provided in parentheses at the end of the proposition without the need to add a reporting verb (Swales, 1990). The use of Endorse is exemplified below.

5. Empirical studies **have demonstrated** the positive effect of interaction on L2 development
6. Research conducted on writing is less than research on other language skills (Klasses, 2001).

Dialogic Expansion, on the other hand, encompasses three categories: Entertain, Acknowledge and Distance. Entertain refers to "those wordings by which the authorial voice indicates that its position is but one of a number of possible positions and thereby, to greater or lesser degrees, makes dialogic space for those possibilities" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 104). Entertain is realized through modal attributes, epistemic and deontic modals, frequency adverbs, modal adjuncts and evidentials. Examples from the data are given in Table 3.

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Table 3. Entertain expressions in the data

English	Arabic
it is possible, may, might, could, should, often, sometimes, probably, possibly, it seems	*galiban* (often), *la'ala* (perhaps) and *qad* (perhaps)

In example 7, the Entertain marker *often* indicates the writer's recognition that there might be some readers who will not completely share his/her views and who would alternatively contend that recasts do not *always* signal to learners that their utterances were non-targetlike.

7. Recasts **often** signal to learners that their utterance was non-targetlike.

Regarding the category of Entertain, it is worth noting that the analysis in the present paper made a coding distinction between two types of markers: epistemic expressions and deontic expressions. Epistemic expressions (such as *may, might, would*) are used to hedge the level of certainty with which the writer conveys his/her proposition and, by extension, widens the dialogic space for alternative positions to be as true. In contrast, deontic expressions (like *must, should, have to*) signal the writer's intrusion to impose directions and obligations. The distinction is necessary because the two types of modals lead to different rhetorical effects on the textual voice with the latter type resulting in a more assertive, authoritative tone.

Acknowledge includes attitudinally-neutral reporting verbs such as *argue, suggest, state*, etc., and in Arabic *yara* (sees), *yuši:r* (indicates) and *yanuṣ* (states). These verbs are attitudinally-neutral because they do not overtly indicate the writer's stance towards the referenced opinion. In example 8, the writer ascribes the proposition to an external voice via the marker *proposed* but does not indicate whether he/she agrees or disagrees with it.

8. Day and Bamford (1998) **proposed** that students' initial successful experiences in extensive reading result in the discovery that they can read in the second language

Finally, Distance resources include reporting formulations (such as *claim*) that indicate the authorial non-alignment with the external voice whose proposition is being cited.

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All the above resources make the sentences in which they occur Heteroglossic and interactive. The sentences that do not include any of these resources are Monoglossic bare assertions.

Engagement Resources in Arabic Academic Discourse

A common finding that recurred in the genre-based research was that Arab scholars engage with the literature less often than their English-speaking counterparts. Al-Qahtani (2006) investigated research article introductions published in English and Arabic and found that Arab writers did not practically use the generic move in which writers usually indicate a gap or a weakness in the literature. Al-Ali and Sahawneh (2011) found the same difference between English and Arabic PhD dissertation abstracts: only the English abstracts indicated a gap in the literature. Similarly, Fakhri (2009) found that none of the Arabic research article introductions in the fields of Humanities and Law utilized the strategy of establishing a niche by reviewing previous scholarships and indicating a gap in the literature. Nevertheless, although the genre-based studies are generally indicative of the nature of Arabic-based engagement patterns, they still do not detect the evaluative stance of writers concerning the literature (when they do connect with it) or how writers position their readers towards this literature. Also, the genre-based research describes only one directionality of engagement in discourse: that which connects the text with the literature. These studies, however, provide little insight on how engagement is used to anticipate responses from potential readers.

One study that investigated interactional, rather than genre-based, features in Arabic academic discourse was Sultan (2011). The researcher used Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model to analyze the use of evidentials, hedges, boosters, attitude markers, reader-engagement markers and self-mentions in English and Arabic research articles. He found that Arabs tended to use boosters more often to express conviction and decisiveness. He also found that evidentials (e.g., *X states that, according to X*) were approximately two times more frequent in English articles. According to the researcher, this indicated that English writers include stronger documentation for provided information. Sultan's study suggests the prevalence of cross-cultural contrasts in the interpersonal features in academic discourse. However, its treatment of reader engagement remains relatively limited compared to studies exclusively devoted to the investigation of the interpersonal dimension, and its thorough realization across different lexicogrammatical resources as modeled by the Appraisal Theory.

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Engagement Resources in Arab EFL Discourse

The research investigating Arab and Saudi students' EFL academic discourse from a contrastive rhetoric perspective (Kaplan, 1966) has predominantly focused on organizational and textual issues such as cohesion, coherence, repetition, thesis statement, transitional devices, etc. (e.g., Mohamed-Sayidina, 2010; Modhish, 2012; Hamed, 2014; Al-Otaibi, 2014; Deraney, 2015).

Three studies that significantly depart from this research orientation are Abu Rass (2011), El-Seidi (2000) and Alotaibi (2018). In the first two studies, the focus was on how the choice of lexis contributes to the formation of particular culture-specific meanings that help in achieving persuasive purposes. Abu Rass (2011) noted the high frequency use of superlatives (e.g., *the best, the most*, etc.) which tilted towards exaggeration and assertion rather than simplicity. Similarly, El-Seidi (2000) found that students tended to predominantly use more emphatics than hedges in their discourse. She attributed this to transfer factors from Arabic as a native language. However, although insightful, these two studies were non-genre-specific and non-discipline-specific, as they analyzed generic argumentative texts that students produced in response to the researchers' writing prompts.

Finally, using Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model, Alotaibi (2018) studied Saudi EFL male and female students' use of interactional markers in the acknowledgements section of their PhD dissertations. The findings revealed the total absence of both hedging devices and engagement markers from all texts. However, these findings are not readily generalizable because the genre of research acknowledgements is a "minor feature of research reporting" and is "unrelated to the substantive issues of establishing claims and reputations" (Hyland, 2003, p. 244). Therefore, this genre naturally does not require a significant use of engagement resources for the achievement of persuasive purposes.

METHODOLOGY

Corpora

The data of the study consists of 60 texts written by three groups of writers: English-speaking academics writing in English as a first language; Saudi Arabian academics writing in Modern Standard Arabic; and Saudi Arabian Master's degree students writing in English as a foreign language. Following Gotti (2012), native-speaker status is determined based on the author's name and affiliation, so the English texts are written by scholars working in American universities, and the Arabic texts are

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Table 4. Number of texts and word count of the data

Sub-Corpus	No. of Texts	Word Count
English	20	14229
EFL	20	9096
Arabic	20	10401
Total	**60**	**33,726**

written by scholars in Saudi universities. The student writers came from different Saudi universities.

All the selected texts belong to the field of Applied Linguistics. The genre selected is the introductory section to research articles and Master's theses. In this study, published and EFL introductions are treated as comparable in spite of differences in terms of overall length (article introductions are relatively longer) and the nature of the intended audience (university examiners vs. peer academics). Comparability exists because both types of texts achieve the same communicative function: provide the writers with the opportunity to contextualize their own research by positioning it within a topic and in relation to a body of theory or research (Hood, 2004b, p. 64).

The English texts were selected from the following international peer-reviewed journals: *Language Learning, Applied Linguistics, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, Language Teaching Research, Reading in a Foreign Language, Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching* and *Reading Research Quarterly*. The Arabic texts were taken from academic periodicals published by Saudi universities. The Arabic and the EFL texts were retrieved from the online database provided by the Saudi Digital Library.

No specific measure was taken to control the topic treated in the selected texts. The rationale is that the "conventions of the register as some interpersonal aspects of the discourse are not directly influenced by the topics of the texts" (Taki & Jafarpour, 2012, p. 160). The number of texts and word counts in the data are provided in Table 4:

Data Analysis Procedure

The research design is qualitative and relies on the analytical model provided by the Appraisal Theory (Martin & White, 2005). The orientation is an intensive, in-depth analysis of the Engagement resources used in the texts. This approach to data analysis is top-down in nature. That is, the analysis starts from knowledge of what

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Table 5. Frequency of Heteroglossic and Monoglossic propositions

	Heteroglossic		Monoglossic	
	No.	%	No.	%
English	325	72%	125	27.7%
EFL	226	53.9%	193	46.0%
Arabic	229	53.1%	202	46.8%

rhetorical functions are of interest, then searches for the linguistic indices that realize these functions. Each text was read and coded manually. Classification of different Engagement markers required careful examination of the markers in their context as the co-text can sometimes significantly influence the meaning. In fact, the intricacy involved in context-sensitive manual annotation together with the complexity of the Appraisal classification of Engagement resources (total in this study was 1554) led to the relative limitation of the overall number of texts examined. Statistical frequencies of the markers were counted. To compare the corpora which were of different sizes, the frequency of engagement markers was normalized to 1000 words. However, because the sample size in each corpus was not large enough (20 texts), no statistical tests were used to measure the significance of difference. Dörnyei (2007, p. 38) points out the benefit of numerical representation of qualitative linguistic categories, maintaining that quantification of certain aspects of qualitative data can be utilized even if no direct objective measurement or statistical test is used. Finally, as a means of ascertaining consistency of the coding process, two analyses of the data were carried out with a two-month period separation between one analysis and the other. The percentage of agreement between the two analyses was over 95%. This method for establishing intra-rater reliability of analysis was taken from the literature (e.g., Cresswell, 2007; Mei, 2007; Sultan, 2011).

RESULTS

The analysis revealed some variations in the use of Engagement by English-speaking writers on the one hand and by the two groups of Arab writers on the other hand. In the following sections, the results pertaining to the use of each category within Engagement is discussed. Throughout the discussion, examples of the kinds of meanings construed by the writers are provided; however, due to space limitations, examples are not intended to be exhaustive, but only illustrative.

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Table 6. Frequency of Heteroglossic resources

	Mean	Frequency
English	42.7	60.09
EFL	17.3	38.4
Arabic	17.6	33.49

Monoglossia vs. Heteroglossia

The starting point of the Engagement system is the distinction holding between Monoglossic and Heteroglossic propositions. As Table 5 indicates, the English texts are overwhelmingly more Heteroglossic (72%) than Monoglossic (27.7%), and are also the most Heteroglossic among the groups of writers. The EFL and Arabic texts, by contrast, are similar with almost identical frequencies. They both encode a relative balance between Monoglossia (46%) and Heteroglossia (53%) with the percentage of their Monoglossic propositions (46%) being remarkably higher than that achieved in the English texts (27.7%).

Frequency of Heteroglossic Resources

As indicated previously, Heteroglossic statements differ from Monoglossic ones in that they include one or more interpersonal markers. Table 6 provides data indicating the frequency of the Heteroglossic markers used in the three corpora.

The English texts included a larger number of Heteroglossic markers (N = 60.09), with a mean score of 42.7. This larger number is because the English-speaking writers tend not only to write more Heteroglossic sentences, but they also infuse their Heteroglossic sentences with more engagement markers (N = 60.09) than the EFL (N = 38.4) and the Arab writers (N = 33.49). This higher number of engagement resources that are co-articulated in the same textual segment indicates the higher importance given to intersubjective positioning and writer-reader interaction in English discourse in particular. The following is an example taken from the English corpus that shows how multiple Heteroglossic features are usually employed within the same sentence:

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Table 7. The Frequency of Contractive vs. Expansive Resources

	Contractive		Expansive		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	
English	28.7	47.8%	31.3	52.1%	855
EFL	21.55	56.6%	16.4	43%	346
Arabic	21.82	64.5%	12	35%	353

9. Unfortunately **[counter]**, when L2 researchers use L1 literature to discuss **[acknowledge]** the benefits of reading as a route for L2 vocabulary development, the probable **[entertain]** difference between L1 and L2 research is often **[entertain]** overlooked (Reynolds, 2012) **[endorse]**.

Heteroglossia: Contraction vs. Expansion

Heteroglossic resources are classified into two major types according to their degree of acknowledgement of dialogic diversity: Contractive and Expansive resources. Frequency counts of each are provided in Table 7.

As evident in Table 7, the English texts tend to effectuate alternative voices by making their propositions more Expansive (52.1%) than Contractive (47.8%). The dominant use of Expansion in English academic discourse has been attested in the literature (e.g., Xu & Nesi, 2019). On the other hand, although the EFL texts construe Heteroglossic propositions and, thus, acknowledge some dialogistic diversity, they formulate more than half of these propositions (56.6%) in a Contractive way and, therefore, exclude most of the recognized voices from subsequent communicative interaction and constrain the scope of their validity and influence. The Arabic texts are even more restrictive of alternative voices as their percentage of use of Contraction is the highest among the three groups, (64.5%). The following sections discuss which exact Contractive and Expansive resources have been preferred by each group of writers.

Table 8. Frequency of Contractive resources

	Deny		Counter		Concur		Pronounce		Endorse	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
English	5.27	8.7%	7.3	11.6	0.2	0.3	0.9	1.5	15.3	25.4
EFL	3.19	8.3	3.96	10.4	0.2	0.5	1.76	4.6	12.42	32.6
Arabic	3.65	10.2%	3.46	9.7	0.1	0.2	8.65	24.3	5.96	16.8

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Dialogic Contraction

As can be seen in Table 8, Deny was encoded more frequently in the English discourse (5.27) than the EFL (3.19) and the Arabic discourse (3.65). Similarly, the English data included almost double the amount of Counter (7.3) as that in the EFL (3.96) and the Arabic texts (3.46). The importance of the frequency of Counter is manifested in the inclusion of contradictory data to develop one's argument (Mei & Allison, 2003). Writers use this Engagement option to correct what they portray as invalid assumptions held by the readers or to provide unexpected information that readers are construed as not possessing prior to their text reading. The following example can be considered.

10. Reading instruction methods that emphasize fluency, such as extensive reading, are **still** largely viewed as new, untested approaches

In example 10, the writer corrects the specious idea that might be held by some readers that reading instruction methods that emphasize fluency, such as extensive reading, are no longer viewed as new, untested approaches. In such cases, Counter assists the writer to construct an authoritative stance that displays him/her as a knowledgeable insider who has access to the correct knowledge of the issue under consideration. Owing to the confidence of this acclaimed knowledge, dialogic space is narrowed for alternative viewpoints and perspectives. Furthermore, the English-speaking writers frequently used Deny and Counter as part of their attempts to identify limitations in previous research, as in example 11.

11. A few studies have suggested that certain types of interactional feedback are more effective than others at promoting modified output by learners (e.g., Pica *et al.*1989; Lyster and Ranta 1997…), **although [counter]** it should be noted that most of these studies have explored **only [counter]** the immediate effects of interactional feedback, and have **not [deny]** focused on longer-term learning.

Example 11 offers a typical case of what Fryer (2013, p. 199) described as the use of Counter to initiate "establishment of a niche," or what Hood (2010, p. 184) regarded as the employment of Counter to signal a shift from alignment with the reader to disalignment, as the author creates space for his/her own study. Yet, this kind of use of Counter did not figure to the same prominent degree in the texts produced by the Arab writers.

In addition to Deny and Counter, Contraction involves the resources of Concur, which comprise formulations that indicate writer-reader agreement such as *naturally, obviously*. The use of these markers was uncommon in all three kinds of texts, as

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Table 8 indicates. Therefore, the following sections discuss the remaining Contractive categories which are Pronounce and Endorse.

Compared to all other Heteroglossic resources, Pronounce was the most frequently used Engagement resource in the Arabic corpus (24.3%). The Arab writers also relied on this resource much more frequently (N = 8.65) than the EFL (N = 1.76) and the English-speaking writers (N = 0.9). In Pronounce, the writer uses certain emphatic devices (such as *undoubtful, the truth is that, in fact, undeniable*) to prove his/her textual presence and to explicitly stress the truthfulness of the advanced propositions. Therefore, the existence of Pronounce expressions in the text renders the authorial voice assertive.

Likewise, the Arab writers used some Pronounce formulations like *wala šak* (undoubtedly) and *alwāqi' anna* (the reality is). However, the predominance of Pronounce in the Arabic discourse is attributable to the use of two of the most important emphatic expressions in Arabic literary discourse: the clause-initial particle *'inna* and the particle *qad*, both translated as *indeed* following Ryding (2005). *'Inna* and *qad* are regarded in Arabic as emphatic devices. According to Hasan (1995, p. 112), the emphatic meaning of *'inna* consists in "emphasizing the ascription, that is, the ascription of the predicate [*khabar*] to the subject [*mubtada'*], and eliminating doubt or denial of it." The rhetorical use of this particle is appropriate only when "the predicate is subject to doubt or denial" and is, therefore, in need for authorial voice to interpolate to indicate that the predicate is "certain and unquestionable" (*ibid.*). It also functions to "emphasize the speaker's certainty that what is said in a sentence is a fact, is true, will indeed take place, etc." (Bloch,1986, p. 102). Similarly, *qad* performs an emphatic function because its use "serves to confirm the meaning … by emphasizing that the action did indeed happen" (Ryding, 2005, p. 450).

In the present data, the Arab writers frequently used *'inna* and *qad* at the beginning of their evaluative sentences as example 12 illustrates:

12. *'inna haḏa-l 'amr bāliġ al ahamiya*
    (**Indeed [pronounce]**, this is very important.)
la-qad 'izdādat ahamiyatu-l 'istiqlālia fi 'altarbiya biškalin 'ām
    (**Indeed [pronounce]**, the importance of autonomy has increased in education in general.)

Endorsement refers to the semantic category in which the writer narrows the dialogic space for alternative positions by citing external voices that are depicted as being maximally warrantable. Non-integral citation and specific reporting verbs, including *show, find,* and *prove,* and their nominalizations are used to achieve this function. These formulations construe the writer as being in maximal alignment with the referenced position, which, in the first place, supports the writer's own point of view.

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Endorsement has been common in both EFL (32.6%) and English (25.4%) texts (see Table 8). This indicates the importance attached in academic discourse to providing evidence from the literature for the advanced claims. However, although encoded in both groups, Endorsement is much higher in the EFL discourse (32.6%) than in the English discourse (25.4%). When English-speaking writers engage with the literature, they do not always align with the referenced positions through Endorsement. Rather, they also attempt to appear detached from others' opinions in order to problematize these opinions, to construe the field as being contested as a result of a lack of consensus and, thus, to create a space for their own research. Remaining aloof from referenced positions is achieved through Acknowledge and Distance resources. Acknowledge/Distance have been used to a larger extent than Endorsement in the English corpus (32.1% and 25.4%, respectively). EFL writers, on the other hand, feel that proper review of and engagement with the literature means the reporting of assertions by others, overwhelmingly in the integral citation format. They also seem to believe that the more maximally aligned one becomes with the literature, the more valued the domain of investigation, and consequently, the writer's research, would appear to the readers.

Pertaining to the Arab writers, however, Endorsement is less frequently encoded 16.8%. Furthermore, the frequency of Endorsement in Arabic texts is much lower than that of Pronouncement, 16.8% vs. 24.3%, respectively. This seems to implicate that in the Arabic Applied Linguistics discourse community the writer's own assertions can serve as sufficient evidence if they are made emphatic through Pronouncement formulations. (see example 13).

13. *falwāqi' 'alaḏi lā šaka fi:h 'anna mustawa 'alṭulāb fi alnaḥwi al'rabi yanḥadru inḥidāran muz'iğan*

(The reality **[pronounce]** in which there is no doubt **[pronounce]** is that the level of the students in Arabic grammar is declining to an alarming degree.)

Conventionally in research writing, claims about the decline (or increase) of performance levels of a particular group of learners would be supported with research-validated statistical findings cited from the literature. Instead of doing so, however, the writer of example 13 chose to amplify the truth of his claim with two Pronounce markers: *falwaqi'* (the reality is) and *lā šaka fi:h* (in which there is not doubt). The strategy here ostensibly is to make the statement too compelling to the degree of being hard to challenge by possible opposing views from the readers.

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Table 9. Frequency of Entertain resources

	Epistemic Expressions		Deontic Expressions		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	
English	10.33	17.1	1.69	2.8	12.02
EFL	5.06	13.7	3.41	8.9	8.47
Arabic	2.21	6.2	1.8	5.1	4.01

Dialogic Expansion in the Data

In addition to the Contractive resources, Heteroglossia includes resources for dialogic Expansion as well. Dialogic Expansion consists of: Entertain, Acknowledge and Distance.

Overall, as is clear in Table 9, the category of Entertain has been most dominant in the English discourse (12.02), while least frequently used by the Arab writers (4.01). Within the Entertain domain, the English-speaking writers used more epistemic expressions (10.33) than the EFL (5.06) and the Arab writers (6.2). Furthermore, while all 20 English texts used epistemic expressions to hedge the views advanced, 7 out of 20 EFL writers and, similarly, 7 out of 20 Arab writers did not use any epistemic markers in their texts. This implies that while epistemic expressions constitute an indispensable part of English academic discourse, it is not a required necessity in the discourse written by Arab writers. Table 10 compares pairs of propositions produced in the English and EFL texts:

Table 10 gives comparable propositions that were produced by the English-speaking and EFL student writers. In these propositions both groups fulfill similar rhetorical functions in terms of either praising or criticizing certain phenomena. The English-speaking writers use Entertain expressions to hedge their claims and

Table 10. The use of Entertain resources in the data

English	EFL
Reading is **perhaps** the most important skill	Reading is the most important skill for most students
Comprehensible input…**might** not be sufficient	The teacher-centered approach…has led to the passivity of the learners
Interaction **may** facilitate L2 development	The writing workshop… helps students to develop their pragmatic competence
It is likely that L2 learners benefit… from the exposure to vocabulary	Positive attitudes…have beneficial effects on learners' achievements

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Table 11. Functions of deontic expressions in the English corpus

A Description of necessity/necessary conditions	B Imposition of obligation in passivized constructions
the reader **must** recognize the relationship between the lexical form and its meaning	this **must** be investigated empirically
	reading comprehension, fluency development, and enjoyment and confidence in reading go hand in hand and **must** be built up together through practice over time

to open up the dialogistic space for alternative points of view. The student writers, however, produce their propositions in a Monoglossic fashion and, accordingly, present them as definitely valid and unproblematic to all readers.

Finally, epistemic expressions are even more infrequent in the Arabic published discourse. Although Modern Standard Arabic makes available formulations that can express the epistemic status of propositions (El-Seidi, 2000), Arab writers were substantially less inclined than their English-speaking counterparts to open up dialogic space through epistemic expressions. There have been only 2.21 instances of epistemic expressions in the Arabic data as exemplified by example 14.

14. *wa l'ala 'istiẖdām almu'ǧām yābruzu ka'aḥadi hāḏihi-l wasā'il*
(**Perhaps [entertain]** the use of the dictionary emerges as one of these methods.)

In contrast to the pattern of use of epistemic expressions, Arab writers (5.1%) and EFL writers (8.9%) relied on the use of deontic modality to a higher degree than the English-speaking writers (2.8%). The English-speaking writers' use of this resource was limited, and when it occurred, it was used to serve one of two functions as exemplified in Table 11.

On the one hand, English-speaking writers used deontic expressions to express meanings of necessity or to describe the requisite conditions for some phenomenon (e.g., reading comprehension) to take place properly, as example A in Table 11 shows. However, when these writers become concerned with actual optimal behaviors and wish to express meanings of obligation, as in example B in Table 11, they tend to include these meanings in passivized constructions and avoid the explicit reference of specific human agents. Alternatively, they attribute the imposition of obligation to external voices by using markers of Acknowledgement as in example 15.

15. Lyster (1998…) asserts **[acknowledge]** that teachers **should [deontic]** use the negotiation of form.

Simply put, there was no single instance in the English corpus in which the authorial voice imposed obligation to explicitly mentioned human agents. This

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Table 12. The use of deontic expressions in the Arabs' texts

	Student Agents	Teacher Agents
EFL	Hence, they **should [deontic]** develop control over language	Reading teachers **should [deontic]** raise students' awareness
Arabic	*'ala aṭ ṯ alib 'an yuwassi'a ṯ aqāfatuh* ("The student **should [deontic]** expand his education")	*'ala mudarrisi alluġa ān yuzawidu talāmiḏatahum biṯ aqāfitin mu'ǧamiya* ("teachers **should [deontic]** provide their students with dictionary education")

contrasts sharply with the tendency shown by the two groups of Arab writers who tended to mention explicit agents for their directions in active-voice type of sentences. These agents were mostly language teachers and students, as the examples in Table 12 demonstrate.

The last semantic category in Heteroglossia is the one in which interaction is realized through the grammar of direct and indirect reported speech. This comprises the subcategories of Acknowledge and Distance. Acknowledge is attitudinally-neutral in that it does not directly indicate where the authorial voice stands in relation to the referenced proposition. In this respect, Acknowledge contrasts with Endorse which involves maximal authorial alignment with the external voice being referenced. Acknowledge also contrasts with Distance which separates and disaligns the authorial voice from the external voice via reporting verbs such as *claim*. Table 13 shows the frequency of Acknowledge and Distance in the data.

Table 13 reveals that overall the English corpus included the highest number of reporting verbs, 19.2. In fact, Acknowledge has generally been the most frequently used Heteroglossic resource in the English corpus (30.5%) compared to all other resources. On the other hand, the students' use of Expansive reporting verbs was much lower, 8.03. However, the lack of literature referencing in the case of the EFL

Table 13. Frequency of Acknowledge and Distance markers

	Acknowledge		Distance		Total
	No.	%	No.	%	
English	18.3	30.5	0.9	1.6	19.2
EFL	7.59	19.9	0.44	1.1	8.03
Arabic	8	23.7	0	0	8

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Table 14. Examples of Acknowledge markers in the data

English	EFL	Arabic	
suggest (11)	state (9)	*yuši:r* (12)	("indicate")
argue (10)	according to (6)	*yara* (8)	("see")
report (6)	point out (4)	*yu'akid* (5)	("confirm")
state (5)	report (2)	*yu'arif* (5)	("define")
indicate (3)	view (2)	*qāla* (4)	("say")

writers is expected, given their lack of sufficient expertise in their fields of specialty as students and their comparatively limited familiarity with the existing literature.

More interesting, however, is that the Arabic discourse had the least frequent use of Acknowledge (N = 8), with total absence of Distance. This implies that the Arab expert writers are not as inclined to engage with the literature and to discuss previous views and claims. Table 14 provides some of the most common Acknowledge markers used by the three groups of writers.

As seen in Table 14, the most commonly used Acknowledge expressions in the English corpus are the reporting verbs *suggest* and *argue*. These verbs reflect writers' lack of commitment to the truth of the proposition, and they imply that writers consider the opinions reported as *arguments* and *suggestions* rather than as facts. Xu and Nesi (2019) note that the verb *suggest* is inherently more argumentative, evoking a more debatable situation than other Acknowledge markers such as *according to*. Similar to Xu and Nesi (2019) who found that non-native Chinese academics used *suggest* less often than English-speaking academics, the present analysis shows that the two verbs *suggest* and *argue* were not among the most frequently used Acknowledge markers by the EFL and Arab writers. Instead, the two groups of Arab writers frequently used factive reporting markers (e.g., *state, indicate*, *according to*, etc.) that serve to convey material from the literature without simultaneously indicating the controversial nature of the issue under consideration.

Table 15. Examples of generalized Acknowledgment in the data

	English	EFL	Arabic	
	is considered	is considered	*yu'ad*	("is considered")
	are viewed	are/is believed	*yu'arraf*	("is defined as")
	is generally assumed	is regarded as	*yu'tabar*	("is considered")
	is known as	it is acknowledged	*tud'ā*	("is known as")
	…	…	…	
Total	**7**	**17**		**17**

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Additionally, the two groups of Arab writers used generalized/passivized reporting verbs more often than the English-speaking writers, as illustrated by the raw frequencies in Table 15.

One reason why passivized reporting verbs might be used is that the writer will not need to specify a particular source for the material that is being reported since this material is said to be generally believed, known or accepted. The following sentence was produced by a student writer in which the idea is generalized with a passive reporting verb without being concomitantly supported with a specific external reference:

16. **It is known that [acknowledge]** what students need in order to pronounce a new language in a way that is easily intelligible to its native speakers is to stop thinking about speech in terms of the categories of their first language and start thinking about it in terms of its appropriateness to the new language.

This contrasts with example 17 taken from the English corpus, in which the generalized acknowledgement is supported with a sentence-final integral citation.

17. Accordingly, **it is well accepted that [acknowledge]** comprehension and learning are not the same phenomenon (e.g., Lee & VanPatten, 1995; Sharwood Smith, 1986).

This method of Acknowledgement is especially convenient for student writers given their limited awareness of the relevant literature and, therefore, the difficulty in corroborating each claim with external support. Surprisingly, however, this method was also opted for by the expert Arab writers as example 18 shows.

18. *wa ʻiḏa kāna ḍuʼf mutaḥadiṯi ʻalluġa alʼarabiya yuʼad ẓāhira ḫaṭira qabla ʻaqdayn mina-zzaman fa inna ma waṣala ʻileihi-l ḥāl fi ʻalwaqt alḥāḍir yuʼad ašad ḫaṭaran*

    (If the weakness of the speakers of Arabic **has been considered [acknowledge]** a serious phenomenon since a decade ago, the current situation **is considered to be [acknowledge]** more dangerous.)

Although not formally identified as such in the Appraisal model, it appears that generalized Acknowledgment is strategically employed in the Arabic discourse to perform the same function of dialogic Contraction: narrowing the dialogic space for contrary opinions. That is because when writers claim that something is widely accepted or generally known to be true by the majority, they are in effect creating a kind of putative audience that comports with their arguments. This, in turn, increases the rhetorical burden for those who want to oppose the stated opinion.

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Consistent with the tendency of the use of generalized Acknowledgment, the Arab writers avoided the utilization of previous research in another way. This included amplifying the number of scholars to whom the opinion is said to belong, but without substantiating the amplification with actual reference information, i.e., name of specific authors. This is exemplified in example 19.

19. *tushi:r mu'ẓam addirasa:t alajnabiya ila wuju:d 'ilaqa 'i:jabiya*
(Most foreign studies indicate a positive relationship.)
mu'ẓam addirasat tu'akkid 'ala ḍaru:rat attaqli:l min dawr-al mu'alim
(Most studies emphasize the need to reduce the role of the teacher.)

DISCUSSION

The analysis revealed some important differences in how writers used engagement resources to advance claims and engage with the applied linguistics discourse community. The English-speaking writers used the highest number of Engagement resources, indicating that these writers persuade the audience through rational argumentation than via exclusive reporting of facts and realities. In comparison to the other two groups, the voice in the English texts was overwhelmingly Heteroglossic given that most of the propositions were either hedged, attributed or simultaneously hedged and attributed through the use of co-articulated combinations of Heteroglossic markers. This entails that language in the English discourse played a powerful role in the creation of an underlying dialogue with the readers (Thompson, 2001) and in the achievement of the collaborative "social enterprise of knowledge and reality construction" (Hyland, 2009, p. 213). In contrast, the two groups of Arab writers showed a more frequent use of Monoglossia and overall a smaller frequency of co-articulation of Heteroglossic markers in their Heteroglossic propositions. By definition, Monoglossia denies or ignores the intertextual heterogeneity in which it operates (White, 2012), and provides the writer's proposition as being the only possible valid position to be adopted. This, in turn, contributes to the ultimate construal of the field of research as uncontested and consensual. Monoglossia also renders the authorial voice more assertive and less interactive.

From within the repertoire of Heteroglossic resources, there have been specific preferences for the use of distinct types of expressions. The language writers used more Deny and Counter expressions especially in the ideational fields of discourse where they criticized deficiencies in the literature. This indicates that, in some segments of the text, writers constructed an authoritative voice that actively argued with the audience, while correcting faulty assumptions of the readers.

Nevertheless, the authoritative voice that was achieved in the English discourse through Deny and Counter was balanced by the high frequency of use of Entertain

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resources, which are widely acknowledged as markers of tentativeness, and as being a defining characteristic of the English-speaking academic discourse in particular (Myers, 1989; Kreutz & Harres, 1997; Koutsantoni, 2005). These resources are used "to distinguish facts from opinions" (Taki & Jafarpour, 2012), and "to present claims cautiously, accurately and modestly" (Hyland, 2009). Myers (1989) considers hedges as negative politeness strategies that redress the face threatening effects resulting from making new claims and criticizing others' contributions. Thus, the English-speaking writers in the present study preferred the frequent use of Entertain to construct the image of the cautious, accurate, and deferential scholar who is ready to accept that his/her opinions and evaluations are only probable and not definitive.

Additionally, the English-speaking writers relied, to a larger degree, than the other groups, on the use of Acknowledge and Distance resources. They also used Acknowledge, which is attitudinally neutral, more than Endorse, which serves to completely align the writer with the point of view cited. Acknowledge and Distance open up the dialogic space to incorporate the views of others. Also, the recurrence of Acknowledge, together with the predominance of the Entertain options, is instrumental and appears to be deliberately devised by the English-speaking writers to surround the issue they discuss with even higher degrees of uncertainty and neutrality. Thus, if the research field is depicted as being uncertain, it becomes straightforward for writers to strategically contextualize their studies within the current research domain. Another important rhetorical effect for the engagement with the previous research through Acknowledge is the construal of the reader as equal to the writer in terms of power relations. That is, the reader in the English-speaking discourse community needs a backdrop of robust evidential support from the literature to be convinced of the value of the new study.

Regarding the Arabic discourse, however, there were fewer instances of engagement with the literature in general, as the Arab writers recorded the least amount of use of Endorse and Acknowledge with a dearth of Distance. They also showed two tendencies that exempted them from the need to provide specific references to their claims: namely, generalized Acknowledgement (e.g., *it is believed that…*) and amplified subjects of reporting verbs that were not followed by references (e.g., *Most foreign studies indicate …*). These practices imply that in the Arabic discourse community citation of others' work is not considered an inevitable ground for claim validation, at least not to the same degree necessitated in the English discourse. These practices also suggest that in the Arabic-speaking discourse community, the reader has a weaker power status than the writer, readily taking what the writer conveys at face value without need for much evidential support from the literature. The finding that Arab academics engaged with the previous literature less frequently than their English-speaking counterparts lends support to the genre-based research (Sultan, 2011; Al-Ali & Sahawneh, 2011; Fakhri, 2009).

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Pertaining to the student writers, there were several indicators to the propensity of the EFL discourse to resemble the rhetorical nature of the Arabic rather than the English discourse, supporting as such the tenets of the Contrastive Rhetoric Hypothesis (Kaplan, 1966) at the interpersonal plane of academic discourse. This included the student writers' more frequent employment of Monoglossia (as compared to English) for the projection of a maximally confident authorial voice, as with the writers of Arabic. Also, analogous to the Arab writers, was their tendency to use more Contractive than Expansive resources, leading to a more restrictive discourse than its English counterpart.

Another important feature that was shared by the two groups of Arab writers was the use of deontic modality. When using this resource, writers directly imposed their behavioral recommendations on specific agents (mostly teachers and learners) through active type of sentences. In the literature, deontic modality is often associated with an authoritative voice that expresses "guidance" (Mauranen, 1993) or "control" (Koutsantoni, 2005) of the readers' behaviors, thoughts and actions. By using expressions of obligation and necessity, the writer assumes "the role of the teacher" to give their readers some instructions on how to perform certain actions in the way they suggest (Taki & Jafarpour, 2012, p. 162). The English-speaking writers used deontic modality less frequently, and when it occurred in their discourse it was realized in passivized constructions wherein agency was concealed. The passive voice not only increases the formality of the text (e.g., Lee, 2006), but it also allows writers to express their opinions indirectly and impersonally, and to avoid the abruptness of imposing severe obligations for discourse participants. Yet, another reason for the infrequency of active-voice deontic formulations in the English discourse appears to be related to genre-specific factors. That is, giving advice is not one of the communicative purposes that the introduction section typically serves, as described by Swales (1990) for example. In fact, research by Pho (2013), Fryer, (2013) and Bunton (2005) has documented that in expert English discourse, deontic modality is a typical characteristic of the discussion and recommendation sections where "advice or social measures that should be taken in the real-world" are proposed "in view of the research findings" (Bunton, 2005, p. 216). Thus, English-speaking writers provide their personal advice and recommendations only after demonstrating through their evidence-based findings that their recommendations are actually valid and appropriate to be followed by readers. The Arab writers, on the other hand, provide their personal recommendations in the introduction section before disclosing their findings. This entails that, in contrast to the audience of the English-speaking discourse, the audience of the Arab discourse readily accepts the writers' suggestions despite little validating evidence, signaling again the less powerful status of the reader in the Arabic-speaking discourse community.

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Another area that may potentially lead the EFL discourse to deviate from the native norms concerns the difference between the use of Acknowledge and Distance, on the one hand, and Endorse, on the other hand. The student writers endorsed others' views more than the English-speaking writers. This intensified the confident tone that characterized their discourse and denied them the opportunity to problematize the literature and to create a specific place for their research.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The present study has revealed marked differences between the reader engagement strategies that are preferred by English-speaking and Arabic-speaking academic writers. This indicates that culture plays a pivotal role in determining the nature of the preferred engagement strategies used by writers coming from different cultural backgrounds. The existence of these contrasts lends support to the position that "rhetorical strategies that authors adopt to persuade the community are culturally differentiated" (Koutsantoni, 2005, p. 102). It also means that culture exerts a more powerful influence than disciplinary context in shaping of rhetorical practices. Therefore, the argument that discipline neutralizes the effect of culture (Flottum, 2007, p. 15) is inapplicable to Applied Linguistics in the English-speaking and Arab cultures. Globalization and the importation of English academic writing patterns through forms of cross-cultural exchange (Yakhontova, 2006), have not influenced the culture-specific traditions of persuasion and argumentation adopted by the Arab writers of academic discourse.

These findings are of particular relevance to novice EFL academics as well as to current pedagogical practices directed at the enhancement of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instruction held at the graduate level. Although the EFL writers were supposedly advanced in their general linguistic competence, their level in what Swales (1990) calls "academic discourse competence" was not up to the target standards. This indicates the complexity of the interactional dimension of academic discourse, and that this dimension cannot be naturally mastered as a result of the mastery of the system of language or as a result of the continued exposure to the academic register of discourse. Thus, interactional conventions of academic discourse need explicit and deliberate instruction by academic institutions to enculturate novice writers into their disciplines and to assist them achieve the acceptable level of proficiency.

The present study shows that Arab writers do not commonly demonstrate the value of their studies by grounding them within established literature. An alternative means of research validation that this study pointed to was the expression of conviction and certainty through Monoglossia and Pronounce resources. However, future research, that focuses exclusively on Arabic academic discourse, might yield further

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informative insight into how Arab writers validate their research by combining the description of the Engagement system with another system in the Appraisal Theory, that is, Attitude or Graduation. Examining how different appraisal meanings co-exist and interact can contribute to a better understanding of how writers achieve their academic persuasive purposes.

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ADDITIONAL READING

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Appraisal Theory: A theory proposed within the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics to model the interpersonal dimension of language, i.e., to represent how writers create an evaluative stance concerning their material, construe particular authorial voices or persona and establish interpersonal relations with target readers.

Contrastive Rhetoric Hypothesis: A theory proposed by Kaplan (1966) to suggest that logic, rhetoric, and textual organization are culture-specific; therefore, the difficulties writers face writing in a second language emanate from rhetorical differences between the first and second languages.

Interpersonal Dimension: One of three metafunctions that Systemic Functional Linguistics theorizes as being fulfilled by language, the other two being the ideational and the textual metafunctions. Interpersonal metafunction is realized through linguistic resources that enact roles and relationships between writers and readers.

Reader Positioning: A writer's use of a number of intersubjective resources to align readers with, or to get them to adopt, a particular point of view.

Rhetoricity in Academic Discourse: Discourse that persuades by making its point effectively and by creating credibility for the writer.

Voice: (1) The source to which the thoughts being discussed belong, hence, authorial voice vs. other voices; and (2) the result of the amalgamation of repeatedly co-occurring patterns of interpersonal resources, hence tentative voice vs. assertive voice.

Writer-Reader Interaction: The notion that written discourse involves an underlying writer-reader dialogue similar to dialogues taking place in spoken interactions. The writer assumes a hypothetical reader and anticipates his/her likely reactions to adjust the text accordingly.

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Chapter 3
Less Is More in College Students' Writing:
Extremely Short Stories as a Bridge to Academic Writing

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ABSTRACT

This chapter reports on a study of the content of extremely short stories (ESS) written by freshman undergraduates in the language and literature department of a university in Jordan. It looks at the origins and benefits of extremely short stories, with particular reference to the extensive work of Peter Hassall who established the first Extremely Short Story Competition (ESSC) for non-native English speakers in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). This study is the first in an Arab country outside the UAE. Students' most popular themes included problems and problem-solving, travel, student life, family, and friends. Stories contained features of academic writing as well as many literary elements, including character, plot, metaphor, simile, and more. The chapter concludes by suggesting that the ESS can successfully serve as a bridge to academic writing and bring writer and reader closer together by generating interesting texts for audiences other than the instructors.

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Vigorous writing is concise. A sentence should contain no unnecessary words, a paragraph no unnecessary sentences … This requires not that the writer make all sentences short … but that every word tell. (Strunk & White, 2000, p.10)

INTRODUCTION

"Academic English is no one's mother tongue" (Huang, 2013, p.17), yet academic life revolves around writing in English, even in many non-English speaking countries. When studying for a degree in English language and literature, students must be able to write well-organized academic essays, usually in response to long, complex, literary texts. These are often seen as a form of "specially-designed torture" (Whitaker, 2009, p.2) by native and non-native English speakers alike. Instructors who wade through such long essays with multiple, repeated errors will testify that quantity is no guarantee of quality and that demanding such huge leaps from high-school writing to full-blown academic writing often results in plagiarism. This chapter suggests one way to bridge that divide by placing quality before quantity, asking for less in one area to achieve more in others. Having college freshmen write 50-word stories about topics of their own choosing early in their studies, enables them to establish a stronger foundation in writing, reduce errors, gain confidence and motivation, and find their voice and agency as writers. These short, pithy stories can then be successfully used to introduce freshmen to the key features of narrative and other literary elements which are essential in the discipline of language and literature.

BACKGROUND

Academic Writing

Academic writing requires students to be able to write different types of essays, each with its own special purposes and features. Argumentative writing must defend a position, descriptive writing must show not tell by appealing to the senses, and expository writing has various subgenres such as, cause and effect and problem-solution, for example. Narrative writing must tell a story, its purpose being "to entertain and instruct via reflection on experience" (Hyland, 2006, p.47). Before students can write long essays, however, they must be able to convey meaning on the page or screen, construct a coherent sentence and a well-organized paragraph, and have mastered the basics of how to spell, punctuate and connect sentences. They

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must also become familiar with the more generic features of academic writing, such as complexity, responsibility, objectivity, formality (Samigullina, 2018), accuracy (Hyland & Jiang, 2017), hedging (Tso, Ho & Chung, 2016) and, of course, conciseness (Strunk & White, 2000).

Complexity can be found in the choice of vocabulary and complex grammatical structures such as the use of subordinate clauses in complex sentences; *responsibility* or writing responsibly requires the writer to acknowledge any sources used and previous work on a particular topic; *objectivity* means removing as much bias as possible and avoiding the use of the first person; *accuracy* requires the correct use of grammar, vocabulary and other linguistic features; *explicitness* means a writer must clarify the referent for each pronoun, for example, and use the correct signal words to ensure textual cohesion; *hedging* includes the use of modal verbs to suggest correlations instead of making outright claims based on their research or reading, and *conciseness* means brevity.

Formality may be the most difficult characteristic for freshmen EFL/ESL students to master, especially when much of their English is acquired through the informal register of videos, movies, pop songs and other forms of entertainment and social media. One common example of such informality prevalent in students' writing is the use of the word 'kids' for children and 'gonna' for going to. Formality involves impersonalization or hidden identity (Hyland, 2002) through the selection and use of words and structures which are not normally used in everyday speech. It helps prevent "ambiguity and misinterpretation by minimizing the context-dependence and fuzziness of expressions" (Hyland & Jiang, 2017, p.41). It requires an overall economy of words, such as replacing phrasal verbs with single verbs (Mendis, 2010) and verbs with nouns (Hyland, 2006).

Such heavy requirements of academic writing can adversely affect students' motivation to write as the risk of failure is great and so it can become a form of torture to be at worst avoided and at best endured, rather than mastered and enjoyed. Another major deterrent to writing for students is the lack of authentic purpose whereby they are not writing texts to be read and enjoyed by others but solely to be assessed by instructors and consigned to the "assessment archives of our universities and colleges" (Hassall, 2005, p.90). If writing style and content depend on the intended audience, students should have opportunities to write for reasons beyond assessment purposes to know the real value and joy of writing. As part of their course work, they should be allowed to appeal to a wider audience, including their own peers. Thus, they can identify other authentic purposes for writing, find their own voice, tap into their creativity, and consolidate their knowledge of the basics of writing while also being taught to identify some of the essential features of academic writing. Extremely short stories can serve that need as they are easy to write and interesting to read.

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The Short Story

Most high-school students are introduced to the short story by reading O Connor, Joyce, Chekhov, O Henry and others at school. As a genre, Swartwood (2011) places it within a "hierarchy of fiction" (p.23) after the novel, novella and novelette. A good short story gets right to the point and tells us "only one thing … intensely" (Pritchett, 1981, p. xi). It achieves this in "a compressed blast of discerning, intellectual pleasure" (Boyd, 2004, p.5), that is equally as intense as that provided by a novel. Its many benefits are exemplified by its use in the English classroom. One example is a study carried out by Meraji and Sadighi (2013) with two groups of pre-university students in Iran to see the effect of reading short stories on their writing ability. Almost 80% of the experimental group found reading the stories helped them and motivated them to read and write. Swartwood's (2011) hierarchy continues after the short story with "sudden fiction, flash fiction, micro fiction, drabble [and] dribble" (p.23) and, finally, hint fiction, reflecting a gradual decrease in word count to as low as 25 words or fewer. Hint fiction gives readers only a hint of a story, rather than meeting them halfway.

The Extremely Short Story

Another category called 55 fiction was added in the middle of that hierarchy by Steve Moss in California in 1987 (See Moss, 1995), which required writers to submit stories of no more than 55 words. One instructor claimed that through writing for the 55-fiction competition, students learned "word economy, editing skills, and the basic essentials of the short story" (Aldiss, 1995, p.8) in an easy, simple and enjoyable manner. This very short story genre appears to help would-be or heretofore reluctant writers to overcome their aversion to and fear of writing, as evidenced by the plethora of writers willing to share their work on various websites.

It has also found value in various disciplines. In medicine, for example, Scheetz and Frye (2000) reported in *The Journal of the American Medical Association,* on their use of 55-word stories to help them better understand their patients, and encouraged other physicians to do likewise. The goal of writing 55-word stories in medicine is "to tell … a story that helps us to understand, or to appreciate something about a patient or about an experience of health care" (Scheetz & Frye, 2000, p.1934). More importantly, they can be read quickly, which is essential for time-pressed doctors. Another physician who has used the format for years has found that its brevity makes it possible for "key moments of the healing arts" (Fogarty, 2010, p.400) to be not only written about but shared with their intended authentic audience. She writes that not only does the *reader* "gain insight into" such moments but the *writer* does, too (emphases added); "the brevity of the pieces adds to both the writing and reading

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impact" (p.400). In other words, physicians understand their cases more clearly by writing about them. This reminds writing instructors that an oft-forgotten reason for writing is to know what we think. Students must untangle their threads of thought through writing to make explicit to themselves and others what they think or know about certain topics.

Positioned just beneath 55 fiction in terms of word count lies the extremely short story (ESS) at 50 words, which also makes it a dribble or minisaga (Setty, 2008). In 1982, writer Brian Aldiss ran a competition in the UK's Daily Telegraph newspaper, with BBC Radio 4's Today program, seeking the best 50-word stories, a form he eventually patented. This resulted in the publication of the first anthology of mini sagas (Aldiss, 1995) by native speakers of English for native speakers. A similar competition was run by a New Zealand Radio Show called Top of the Morning, which also offered very short stories written by native English speakers for native English speakers. These inspired instructor Peter Hassall in the United Arab Emirates to run the same competition for *non*-native English speakers at Zayed University where, in 2003-4, he invited students in the university's literature club to write a 50-word story for an Extremely Short Story Competition (ESSC). Prizes were awarded by the British Council and many of the entries were published in an *Emiratia* anthology.

The aim of the ESSC was to give students' writing a purpose over and above certain retirement to the afore-mentioned assessment archives and provide badly needed English literature for Emirati nationals. Students wrote for publication under a pseudonym so that their voices could be heard by a wider than usual audience in "a safe, secure environment" (Hassall, 2005, p.90). Through the ESSC, they could "fully exploit their creative potential" (p.91) while simultaneously depicting their "concerns and interests" (Hassall, 2011, p.7). The contest spread to Japan, where it succeeded thanks mainly to the efforts of Nobuyuki Honna (Takeshita, 2008). It has since spread to twenty other countries (Matsubara, 2013) but not yet to Arab countries outside the UAE. Its publications have been translated into a number of languages, making them valuable resources for students as writers, readers and learners of English. Less really is more.

Benefits of Writing Extremely Short Stories

While academic writing is, to a certain extent, "*forced*, *unnatural*, and often times *unfamiliar*" (Randolph, 2012, p.74), creative writing is freer and more natural, and offers many benefits to students such as, increasing their critical thinking, improving their overall writing skills and giving them a feeling of control over their own writing (Randolph, 2012). It can be used to consolidate or improve certain elements of writing while raising awareness of how the language works (Šimanskienė, 2005). Many of Randolph's students found that their creative writing course allowed them

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to "play with … and appreciate the language," and "view it as a living thing that grows." (p.73). Many high-school graduates will not have experienced this creative playfulness, freedom with language or control over their writing during their many years at school and so are ill-prepared to jump straight into academic writing when they reach university. Having college freshmen write an ESS as part of their overall assessment in English language and literature offers one way to bridge that gap.

The ESS places story-writing within reach of every student, so that they see writing at university as more than simply learning how to write a paragraph or essay. It stimulates and motivates them to write and provides a vehicle for their creativity and voice where they can "unleash their imagination" (Miyake, 2012, p.59) while also developing and demonstrating their writing skills. Students are usually more willing to write shorter texts than longer ones. A Dubai-based instructor found that the ESS lends itself to truly authentic, meaningful discussions about word choice and grammar, provides a potential diagnostic tool with which to identify students' weaknesses, makes the writing task appear less prohibitive, and makes students *want* to write (Ryan Abu-Wardeh, 2006, p.82). She also found that although limited to 50 words, the ESS requires great discipline.

A study in a Japanese university found that writing ESS greatly helped non-English majors to increase their motivation and self-confidence in learning and using English (Ike & Nishi, 2014). They also enjoyed reading the many texts they produced and found them helpful in improving their reading abilities. Such readable texts are often lacking for non-native speakers of English so, extremely short stories can fill that gap as they are written in the language of their peers, "the general people's voice" (Matsubara, 2013, p.285). The ESS sends students a clear message that quality is more important than length and that students should master the ability to write shorter texts before writing longer ones. The conciseness required to write extremely short stories enables students to develop many of the writing conventions that they will use in those mandatory longer texts, such as avoiding redundancies and making every word count. They are what Nissen (2008, p.18) might call, "whole, autonomous, integrated, weight-bearing short-short stories".

Reading Literary Texts

Students of language and literature are required to read lengthy, complex texts, and identify various elements of style and key features of narrative. It is easy for freshmen to become overwhelmed when they learn there are multiple interpretations of a text or poem, that each reading of a text is a rewriting of it and that much of the meaning is gleaned through the interaction between text and reader, based on the reader's schema. One very quick and easy way to expand schema is to read extensively and, for students who are reluctant readers, 50-word pieces of literature (Hassall, 2011)

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may be just the right size. They contain shades of what Eagleton (1996) refers to as "the rich inwardness of the personal life" (p.171), and while they may not make it into Bloom's (2014) western cannon, they fit quite nicely into McCrae's (1994) literature with a small L. They bring writers and readers together in texts that are accessible to college freshmen to both read and write.

As a bridge to more demanding tasks, after reading their own and others' stories for enjoyment, students can be taught to check the mechanics of writing, such as spelling, grammar and punctuation. They can then be introduced to such literary terms as genre, character, protagonist, plot, theme, setting, foregrounding, movement, tone, metaphor and more, thus paving the way for more demanding literary analysis and critique. The growing interest in extremely short stories ensures that there is a freely available steady supply of story models for students to read for inspiration or guidance. (Many can be found at fiftywordstories.com, for example). In contrast, when students are writing longer essays, they find very few models to read for inspiration or guidance. The instructor also has more time to read the entire texts and provide prompt, detailed feedback.

In addition to the literary features, students can be taught the importance of clearly signalling relationships between sentences and of making the referents for each pronoun clear to the reader. Instructors can guide them to use different kinds of references to improve textual coherence, such as anaphoric reference, for example, which can be seen in the Japanese ESSC publication, *Rays of the rising sun,* #397, "My <u>parents</u> taught me how to love. I thank <u>them</u>…" (Matsubara, 2016, p.5), where *them* refers to *parents*. Another type, cataphoric reference, can be seen in this entry (#139) from the Emirati compilation, *Pearls of Emirati wisdom*, p.10,

<u>Her</u> *bronzed and yellow silky sands;* <u>Her</u> *black and gray stone; Her white and blue skies; Her shiny golden sun; Her high colourful buildings; Her calm refreshing air … all these attract me to* <u>my lovely country</u>. *(Matsubara, 2016, p.10)*

Here each *Her* propels the reader forward to find that it is a personification of *my lovely country*, which is in itself, a literary device. References and conjunctions - the most frequently used cohesive devices (Nilopa, Miftah & Sugianto, 2017; Wu, 2006) - substitution, ellipsis, reiteration and collocation (Halliday & Hasan,1976), all help differentiate a text from a random, unrelated set of sentences. While research findings vary as to the correlation between cohesive devices and textual quality (Ghasemi, 2013; Zhang, 2000), their absence greatly reduces it.

When extremely short stories are written as entries into a competition (ESSC), students do not get feedback or suggestions for improvement until after the stories are published or judges' decisions are finalized. This means that there are few studies which explore the benefits of using them outside of the competition to help students

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transition to academic writing more successfully in the freshman year. This chapter addresses that gap by showing how the ESS has much to contribute as one small but significant element of an academic writing course in an English language and literature degree program.

METHOD

Participants and Data Gathering

The study reported in this chapter was carried out at a private, Western-style university in Jordan. It offers a range of degree programs over seven faculties, including science, engineering, health sciences, business, languages and communication and more. Most of its students come from Arab countries including Jordan itself, Palestine, Syria, Iraq, Libya and the Gulf states, while a smaller number come from Armenia and Nigeria. A large number have been educated through Jordan's public or private school systems, while others have either spent some time in the West or been educated through Western curricula. Therefore, all have varying levels of ability in English. Data for this study was gathered from a convenience sample of 170 students in different cohorts over three semesters who were studying for a degree in English language and literature. They were registered in the first of three compulsory academic writing courses, where they were given regular short writing assignments to help them learn how to structure a paragraph. This included learning the basics of writing proper sentences, making meaning clear, using appropriate cohesive devices, avoiding redundancies, and using correct grammar, spelling, punctuation, and more.

Early in the semester, instead of one of their earliest writing assignments, students were asked to write their own 50-word story. They could choose their own topic or select one of these four titles: *Never again*, *A summer's romance*, *The lie* and *A day to forget* – courtesy of Latham-Koenig & Oxenden's (2013) *American English File, 4A* (p.29), which most students were using in their English Communication Skills class. They were shown examples of 50-word stories both from that textbook and online to help them understand the assignment. Consistent with efforts to prevent plagiarism in all their assignments, students wrote an academic-honesty statement at the end of each story in which they stated it was specially created for this class and was their own work. Their stories were checked for originality and they were given feedback and an opportunity to improve them, as they were not written for a competition.

In all, 170 stories were gathered (equally divided between male and female), along with students' permission to use them anonymously for this study. 22 students'

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stories were considered very similar to ones already published and were omitted from the data analysis. This left 148 original stories, 78 by females and 70 by males.

Data Analysis

Thematic codes were assigned to each story or part of a story on their first reading and these were constantly compared until major themes emerged as categories which fit the data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Stories were read again to identify various features of academic writing including cohesive devices, complexity, formality, accuracy, explicitness and structure, and further readings helped identify various narrative and literary elements such as, protagonist, setting, plot, title, personification, metaphor and simile. Key words or phrases were placed in columns on an Excel file under labels such as student gender, story title, narrator voice, protagonist gender, first lines, topics and more. Percentages were calculated for the themes using an online calculator, rounding up or down if the decimal place was more or less than 0.5, respectively. The process was repeated for each major category.

RESULTS

Most (83%) of respondents' written texts contain the narrative elements of plot, characters, setting, movement and resolution and so can be described as stories. The remaining texts give an account of daily routines, describe a pleasant moment or event, or explain how the writer solved a problem.

Themes

Themes range from setting up a surprise birthday party to wrapping a small present within larger boxes for a sister's birthday and more. The most common themes are presented in Table 1.

A sample of 23 stories is presented here to exemplify many of these themes and to demonstrate other elements relevant to this study. They are numbered 1-23 for convenience and quick reference.

Problems

These include the more serious problems of war, poverty, crime and losing a job, and less serious mishaps. An example of both types is given below. Both have characters, movement and a resolution, although the first does not have a setting. The resolution in the second was when the writer resolved to try to forget that eventful day.

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Table 1. Most common themes from students' extremely short stories

Most common themes			
	Male; female		**Male; female**
Problems	23% - [11.5% m&f	Values	9% - [7% m; 2% f
Travel / transport	14% - [7% m&f	Challenge	5% - [3% m; 2% f
Student life	13% - [5% m; 8% f	Romance	5% - [1% m; 4% f
Family	11% - [3% m; 8% f	Childhood	4% - [2% m; 2% f
Friends	11% - [6% m; 5% f	Lessons learned	4% - [2% m; 2% f
Fear	9% - [6% m; 5% f	Sport	4% - [4% m; 0% f

1. **Short story**: There was a hungry child who was trying to steal. I told him he can buy anything he wants and I will pay for it as long as he doesn't do it again. This child is now a dependable adult and he stayed in contact with me since that day. (f54).
2. **A day to forget**: It was a day like any other, if you ignore the events that transpired. Most of these events were inconvenient. For example, I dropped my sandwich down a flight of stairs. I later accelerated into a closed door. Now, that the day has ended, I hope to forget its existence. (m25)

Travel and Transport

The first two incidents presented here are about students driving. The first happened en route to the university where the student avoided a potentially bigger problem (by following the instructor's advice) and the second leaves the reader anticipating an interesting - perhaps even amusing – resolution.

3. **Short story**: The rooster crowed and I woke up from a deep sleep. I hit the road toward university. It was raining heavily. Unfortunately, I crashed. All that I was worried about was not being late to class. I wasn't, cause Dr. C. had taught me to leave earlier for these incidents. (m49)
4. **A day to forget**: Normally, the streets are empty but that day I had the worst luck. Out of the blue I felt a sudden bump from the rear. I got out of the car. The sight was unbelievable. The man who hit me was walking around frantically. When he turned, I yelled "Dad?!" (f17).

Others in this category suggest some of the more positive, though unexpected, sides of travel,

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5. **A summer romance**: She was about to have the worst summer of her life. All of her friends had made plans to travel together to exciting places. She ended up having to travel with her stepmom. She bumped into the man of her dreams going on the same cruise. There, it all started. (f48)

Student Life

This category includes stories about exams, concerns about grades, attending the wrong lecture or being on the wrong bus, making friends for life and the sheer exhaustion of being a student,

6. **The journey**: My bag was becoming extremely heavy. Food and water were running low, I couldn't avoid it, exhaustion was setting in. It felt like it had been days, but only a few hours had passed. I walked to the gate, opening it to see my destination. There waiting, was my bed. (f70)

Family

Family features in 50 students' stories, particularly those written by female students. This theme was exemplified by caring for each other, being sad when parted and anticipating reunions, having arguments, sibling antics, sibling concern, and more.

7. **Short story**: Last weekend my cousin Eleen came from Palestine on her Easter break. She spent a week in Amman. We had a blast! Then her mom wanted her to return for school. We said goodbye. On her way out, the bell rang. Surprise! Her mom and siblings were at the door. (f32).

Friendship

Friendship was exemplified by friends doing things together such as, going on day trips or short holidays, or having risky adventures such as visiting haunted houses. Making a new friend 'for life' counted as the most important thing in the freshman year,

8. **Short story**: Around this time, during my freshman year at university, I met my friend but I didn't realize that he was my friend for life. I thought he was just a person in my classes. I added him on snapchat and we started snapping and now he is my best friend. (m57).

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Fear

Fear included the usual ghostly scenarios, late-night noises and looming dangers, but it also included the idea of fear saving a life:

9. **Never again**: A girl named Olivia got into a huge fight with her parents. She tried to commit suicide, so she got to the top of the tallest building she knew. When she stepped on the edge she got scared and said, "I almost killed myself. I am never doing this again". (f58)

Values

Values included relationships, kindness, a king who longed for a son and heir, others' talents, and more.

10. **Short story:** After an extensive search, I found a great piano tuner. He showed me pictures of his paintings. I told him he was very talented and should be working on his art rather than tuning pianos. Two years later he took my advice and now I don't have a piano tuner. (m66)

Challenging oneself

Challenging oneself included the challenge of trying to be a better person, losing weight, being more organized and managing one's time,

11. **Short story**: I'm always late to everything. As I am horrible at managing my time, I got schedules and checklists. I started improving and that made me feel so good. The schedules made me aware of what I needed to do at a specific point in time. I was shocked. Changes happen. (f65)

Romance

Romance included stories about broken hearts, longings, dates gone wrong and an unhealthy relationship,

12. **The fruit hurts**: She saw him walk from corner to corner, and her heart started beating rapidly wishing he's come closer and drop by. "Would you like a date?", his sweet voice softly whispered in her ear. She tilted her fact slowly, only to find a plastic bag of dried fruit next to her face. (m2).

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13. **Gone**: A couple of months after she had met him, she stopped coming out with us during girls' night. When she did, he was outside waiting, sometimes watching her. After a while, we stopped hearing from her at all. We thought nothing of it. "She didn't make it", the doctor said. (f63).

Emotions

Emotions featured in 96% of the stories, equally divided between positive and negative. The most frequent included fear (14%), upset (13% - 5m, 14f) and happiness (11% - 5m, 10f), anticipation (9%) and sadness (7%). Just over half (53%) showed a change of emotion from negative to positive while 22% showed a negative change. Some protagonists did not display any emotion but generated anticipation and suspense in the reader,

14. **The reckless murder**: Thick flesh, still warm, blood dripping through his fingers. The smell of rotting corpses escaping from the bin beside him. The blade glinting in the light, seeping through holes in the stale curtains in the room. Time was running out. John was coming to pick up his steak at 4. (f57).

Literary Features

Metaphor, Simile and Pun

In this example of a metaphor, the student was probably referring to his parents,

15. **War**: … I lost them both, my sun and moon; war took them. I have missed them… (m14).

In 16, where the writer may have taken inspiration from an app called Carly, he uses personification when referring to his car, and simile when comparing his car to an imaginary wife,

16. **Short story**: Once upon a time, there was a white Mercedes called Carly. Carly was owned by a 19-year old living in Jordan. Carly used to be smart. She had an auto-drive technology that drove by itself, whenever its owner felt tired. He treated Carly like a wife; he bought her flowers. (m60).

Simile is also evident in the following,

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17. **A summer romance**: "He loves me and I love him. … He is as sweet as sugar …" (f9).

The writer of *The fruit hurts* (Romance, story 12) used a pun when he referred to the word date as both a possible meeting and as a fruit.

Protagonist Gender and Narrator Voice

Subcategories of protagonist gender included opposite gender, male and female, self or own gender other than self. This study highlights single male or female gender other than self and so excludes protagonists belonging to the other subcategories. Male and female students gave similar importance to own-gender protagonists at 30% and 32% respectively but females showed greater readiness to write about opposite-gender protagonists than did their male counterparts, at 14% and 1%, respectively. Just over half of the stories (57%) were written in the first person (equally distributed between male and female writers), 10 of which were written in the first-person plural (3f, 7m). Two stories were in the second person and 62 (42%) were in the third person (34f, 28m).

Story Titles as Contributions to the Narrative

Titles have importance in writing as they can suggest tone (Johnston, 2008). Almost half (48%) of all stories were given the generic title, *Short story*, 18% chose one of the four given titles: *Never again* (5), *Summer romance* (3), *A day to forget* or *A day to remember* (12), and *The lie* (6), and the remaining 34% chose their own story titles. One-word titles proved powerful, such as the simple but apt past participle, *Gone*, (Romance, story 13). Another one-word title *Mirror* displayed a "stream of consciousness" (Sinclair, 1918, p.58), a literary device used by many well-known authors,

18. **Mirror**: Why is your beautiful face filled with tears? He left you alone, frozen and you still love him? Stop! You had enough. Your life is yours to live but when you feel like giving up, just remember my words. Move on forward; let it be the only direction you take (f56).

Academic Writing Features

All the stories demonstrate brevity and many also demonstrate various aspects of the features of academic writing. Story 2 demonstrates complexity with the use of the words *inconvenient*, *accelerated* and *transpired* and the subordinate clause, *if you*

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ignore the events that transpired. The author showed responsibility in supporting his claim that it was an inconvenient day and his story was well structured with a conclusion which mirrored the thesis, all within the limit of 50 words. There was also formality in his choice of words, such as *events* and *transpired*, while stories 3 and 7, on the other hand, demonstrate *in*formality in using the word *cause* (for because), and "*We had a blast*!", respectively. Explicitness is evident in many students' use of various signalling devices to explain relationships. Lexical cohesion is evident in the repetition of the word *travel* (story 5) and the phrase *best friend* (8) as well as in the collocation *sun and moon* (15). Examples of textual or grammatical cohesion include endophora. 83 stories (56%) used anaphoric references (Halliday & Hasan, 1976), as exemplified by the pronoun *her*, referring to the precedent, Lisa,

19. **Quite a scare**: Lisa began her morning run in the park as usual … (f1).

54 stories (36%) used cataphoric references (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). One example is the pronoun *He*, which propels the reader forward to find the referent in line 2: *The father*. The story also used anaphora,

20. **Short story**: He forced the door open, yelling: "Where's Chloe?" The wife looked at him and said: "Chloe doesn't want to see you again". The father couldn't believe his ears and left the house crying. He said in a deep voice, "Please forgive me my only daughter", while staring at the sky. (m65).

While the use of cohesion can improve coherence, it does not guarantee overall coherence. Use of anaphora in the last line of story 21 below, helped to coherently connect *them* with *parents* in the previous sentence, but it did little to tie in the first two sentences which remain disconnected from the rest. A reader would have to exert extra effort to accord it some of the coherence that is missing,

21. **Writing:** When I was four, I learned how to read. Today, I know that even during something as great as graduation, your mom will still cry. Knowing that my parents are proud of me, and everything I've achieved feels incredible, so I'll do anything I can to never let them down. (f62).

Two stories (1%) used ellipsis and substitution. This one elided all subjects and verbs,

22. **Work week**: Monday: morning tea, lunch at 4, home to watch movie. Tuesday: morning coffee, lunch at 4, video game night. Wednesday: morning coffee, lunch at 3, reading my favorite book. Thursday: morning coffee; lunch at 2.

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Evening shopping. Friday: My happy hour at 6pm, evening run, easy chair and my book. (f11).

Substitution was exemplified in story 23 by the use of the word *there* in the last sentence, instead of downstairs, after downstairs had already been repeated,

23. **Short story**: One night I was asleep, that is until I heard a noise coming from downstairs. At first, I didn't know what to do. Then, I gathered all my courage and went downstairs to see who had made the noise. When I got there, I found my mother who seemed angry. (m56).

DISCUSSION

The results show that extremely short stories can be successfully used as a bridge to academic writing early on in a language and literature freshman writing program. By greatly reducing the word count they enable students-as-writers to improve their overall writing quality, identify key elements of academic writing, tap into their creativity, overcome their anxieties and find motivation to write. They also offer students-as-readers accessible short stories to read first for enjoyment and then as a bridge to more demanding literary reading.

Cohesive Devices

Arab students (particularly EFL/ESL Jordanian students) find the use of cohesive devices in writing challenging (Al-Jarrah, Mansor, & Ab Rashid, 2018) and are believed to be over dependent on repetition or conjunction as a form of cohesion (Khalil, 1989; Sayidina, 2010). These students' stories demonstrate their ability to successfully use a variety of cohesive devices. Their use of cataphora is consistent with its use by some Emirati student writers, as exemplified by Little fish, big fish, by Buttercup (Hassall, 2006a, p.138).

Stories and Other Text Types

The stories analysed for this study met many – and in some cases, all - of the story requirements identified by Swartwood (2011, p.27). In addition to telling a story many texts provided food for thought long after being read, particularly where the writer gave only "a hint of a much larger, more complex story" (Swartwood, 2011, p.25). Few contained humour, unlike the prize-winning entries in the British Council Republic of Korea ESSC 2005 (Hassall, 2006a, p.137) but yet consistent

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with many other ESSC entries. Most texts either contained emotion or generated emotion in the reader, further underscoring the importance of emotional impact in story (Pink, 2005; Goldie, 2011). Texts which simply described daily routines (22) fit the description of a 'slice of life' (Al-Sharqi & Abbasi, 2015, p.53) and could be used to help students differentiate between a vignette and a story. Those where the writer solved a problem (11) help to illustrate expository texts, and descriptions (14) demonstrate the importance of painting a picture using the senses rather than simply telling.

Themes

Students' extremely short stories offered brief glimpses of their concerns, interests, preferences, problems and ways of looking at life and how they spent some of their time, reflecting Gibson's (2011) view that "we tell stories … to make sense of ourselves and our lives" (p.3). The themes found here are similar to the three larger categories in Swartwood's (2011) 25-word hint fiction, namely, life and death, love and hate, and this and that, which entails any story that fails to fit into the first two categories. The importance of family, particularly for females, is consistent with findings from the Emirati studies (Hassall, 2009) while the greater importance of friends for males than for females is consistent with the Japan study (Matsubara, 2016), although the gap is narrow. There was little similarity between Matsubara's other themes and this study, confirming her view that "stories in each country had [their] own flavour" (p.290). Likewise, there was little evidence to support Fujiwara's (2008) finding that love replaced friendships as students entered college, or that global issues were important to them, or with Aldiss's findings of great interest in murder and the afterlife (Payne, 1999).

Using ESS to Teach Literary Elements

Students' overall choice of own-gender protagonist in their stories is consistent with findings from a sample of short stories written in the UAE (Hassall, 2012) where 76% of main protagonists written by female students were female. It also reflects the protagonist gender preference in a sample of books read by a similar student sample in an earlier study in Jordan (Kamhieh, 2018). Perhaps the extremely short story is the right vehicle to help forge closer ties between what students read and what they choose to represent in their writing. It shows researchers what educators already know: that "reading and writing go hand in hand" (Bazerman, 2010, p.3) and complement each other.

The use of the personal pronoun, *I*, to start more than half of the stories was consistent with findings from an analysis of lexical frequency in East Asian and

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Middle Eastern Corpora (Hassall, 2013, p.208). The value of reading fiction narrated in the first person is often called into question as it "constructs the fictional self as static and stable" (Nikolajeva, 2014, p.88) and limits ability to move within different perspectives. Similarly, students who choose to always write a story in the first person may possibly do so by exerting less effort than if they narrated the story from different viewpoints. Instructors can use such stories to encourage students to move away from the first-person narrator to the more formal third person, which, of course, also increases the desired feature of objectivity or formality in academic writing.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study is the first of its kind which investigates the use of ESS in a language and literature degree program in the Arab world outside the UAE and so it makes a valid contribution to the literature. In view of its potential benefits, future research on the use of ESS could include freshmen from other degree programs and students from other tertiary level institutions throughout Jordan. A second line of enquiry could investigate whether or not the ESS affects students' overall attitude toward writing at university. After compiling the completed stories into colourful anthologies, researchers could investigate their appeal to reluctant readers, whose reasons for not reading are often cited as not having interesting books (Kamhieh, 2012). Finally, having students submit their entries electronically, can help augment the now growing corpus of data from across many countries (Hassall, 2006) which can be used for future research. As always, instructors must ensure that students' stories are their own work, particularly when they are not "collected under examination conditions" (Hassall, 2013, p.201).

CONCLUSION

Writing extremely short stories has enabled this group of university students in Jordan not only to find their voice in writing, but to produce literature "in a fresh literary genre which has significant potential for publication and research" (Hassall, 2011, p.3). Like the UAE, Jordan, too, may lack what Hassall describes as "published creative writing in English … which has not been translated from Arabic" (p.2) and which will appeal to college-age readers. The impact of written texts depends on similarities between the minds of the writer and reader (Grosman, 2011). Stories written by students for their peers increase those similarities and therefore, their potential impact. What could be more interesting to students than texts written *by* students about topics which are important to them and their peers for an identifiable

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audience of real readers other than the instructor. This will surely motivate them to focus on quality, select their words more carefully and pay greater attention to accuracy and detail, while yet finding their voice and creativity. This study shows that instructors can expect positive results if they include extremely short stories among their early academic writing assignments in language and literature. The shorter the text the more effort and discipline that are required by the writer; the shorter the text the more interested the reader. Writing an extremely short story is both more demanding and more rewarding, which is why less is more.

If the short story is the genre of today, might the very short story – which is as comfortable on the page as it is on the screen, matching the shifting media and ever-accelerating pace of the present – be the genre of tomorrow? (Botha, 2016, p.201)

Why wait 'til tomorrow?

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Anaphora: Referring back to a referent earlier in the text.

Cataphora: Referring forward to a referent in a text.

Cohesion: Forming a whole unit; in language, forming a text.

Conceptual Thinking: Thinking at an abstract level to gain new insights and identify possibilities.

Concise: Giving information in a precise yet informative manner.

Corpus: Written and spoken language that is collected and stored (on computers) for use in the study of language and compilation of dictionaries.

Endophora: Refers to both anaphora and cataphora as a form of reference.

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Exophoric Reference: Refers to something that is external to the text.

Fossilized Errors: Errors in language which have become a habit through repeated usage, and so are difficult to change.

Pseudonym: A name other than one's own, often used by authors who wish to remain unidentified.

Reiterate: Repeat a word or phrase, usually to explain it more fully.

Vigorous Writing: Writing that is concise.

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Chapter 4
University Librarians' Role in Supporting Academic Writing

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ABSTRACT

The university library is often referred to as the heart of the university because of the central role it plays in providing information resources to support research, teaching, and learning activities. The study was carried out among reference librarians and subject librarians at selected universities to establish how the librarians have been supporting academic writing endevours by researchers at their respective institutions in Zimbabwe. The study also sought to examine the challenges faced by university librarians when offering services to support academic writing by researchers at Zimbabwean universities. The study adopted a qualitative approach. Ten librarians were interviewed. Findings from the study reveal that university librarians are readily available to offer their services in support of academic writing by researchers. There is however a need to increase researchers' awareness of the role of academic librarians in supporting academic writing. A strong partnership between academic librarians and researchers throughout the research cycle is recommended.

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INTRODUCTION

The university library is often referred to as the heart of the university because of the central role it plays in the provision of information resources to support research, teaching and learning activities taking place at the university. Made (2000) points out that the library and its resources have an influence on the nature of university education in a country. It is therefore important to have good university libraries which in turn contribute towards good university education and a quality education system in any given country. The library is the fuel that propels operations at the university. There is also a link between university libraries and the national education landscape. As Made (2000) puts it, universities are as good as their libraries. Investing in good libraries is essential as this in turn contributes significantly towards a good national education system. Good university libraries should be managed by equally qualified, dedicated professional staff. University library staff with competence in efficient service delivery are necessary for the university library to make meaningful impact to its faculty, students and society at large. For instance, Mugwisi (2015) confirms that university librarians in Zimbabwe offer information literacy skills training to their patrons so that the patrons can effectively use information sources at their disposal independently.

Availability of research output on a particular subject ought to be known or else it remains unknown. University libraries have a responsibility of publicising research output of academics and students on their websites (Wai Fan 2005). In Zimbabwe, several libraries have established institutional repositories (IRs) where journal articles, conference proceedings, book chapters and technical reports by faculty and students are uploaded for access by the other users online (Kusekwa and Mushowani 2013). IRs are a practical solution to providing visibility and access to research output at a low cost. Most IRs are open access. By providing free access to research output through the open access model, researchers' work has become more visible, accessible thereby promoting greater use of research output. Chisita and Chiparausha (2019) report that at least six university libraries in Zimbabwe have their IRs readily accessible on the worldwide web. Although there has been a steady growth in the number of IRs in Zimbabwe, Tapfuma and Hoskins (2019b) lament the low number of articles uploaded on each IR. Tapfuma and Hoskins (2019a) also report that some librarians in Zimbabwe lack news skills associated with the changing library and information service provision environment. University librarians in Zimbabwe should be challenged to acquire newer and relevant skills that match demands of modern day library and information services delivery.

The objectives of the study were to:

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i. Establish how reference librarians and subject librarians at selected university libraries are supporting academic writing endeavours by researchers at their respective institutions in Zimbabwe.
ii. Examine the challenges faced by university librarians when offering services to support academic writing by researchers at Zimbabwean universities.

BACKGROUND

Academic libraries are increasingly being expected to support research endeavours of their patrons. This is necessary if investment in libraries is to be more meaningful. Research support has become a very important component of the daily activities carried out by academic librarians. Research support is described by Hoffman (2016: XIV) as "anything that a library does that supports the activity of scholarship and research at its parent institution'. Richardson, Nolan-Brown, Loria and Bradbury (2012) note that librarians are willing to work with research offices to support researchers in the knowledge creation process. The authors point out that librarians are demonstrating value by moving away from ordinary reader services to author services. It is this latter approach that is expected to drive academic librarians towards providing literature that addresses the mixed methods research approach. Kenan, Corrall and Afzal (2014) agree and stress that academic libraries' approach to research support for their parent institutions has transformed to match the changing scholarly communication practices, technological developments and academic culture. Partnership between researchers and academic librarians is also critical in research data management where the latter play an important role of advising researchers to efficiently manage their research data.

Role of Libraries in Research Support

As libraries have moved away from just being custodians of information sources, they have assumed a major supporting role to the 21st century researcher who must write in order to make an impact. Gannon-Leary and Bent (2010) found that librarians feel that they have an important role to play in terms of assisting researchers writing for publication by way of providing advice, support, and mentoring. In these, the librarians are providing researchers with information regarding where to publish, journal status, journal impact factors (JIFs), collaboration and opportunities. This is essential for the researchers as some journals and journal articles are predatory and bogus. By publishing with these platforms, researchers would have lost their work as it would be labelled negatively. Librarians come in by identifying credible journals, which researchers can approach to publish their work.

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According to Keller (2015), academic libraries are viewed as partners in research. She also established in her study that there were several methods and services that academic libraries in Australia had developed in order to offer research services to their universities. Open access, institutional repositories, bibliometrics and enhancement of research impact, support for research students and research data management (RDM) are rated as the most important five activities that promote research support (Keller, 2015). Open access has created opportunities for researchers to be more visible but the concept has also been hijacked by bogus and predatory publishers. Therefore, university librarians' skills of identifying credible open access platforms are highly required. University libraries host IRs on behalf of their parent institutions. They take responsibility of handling copyright clearance and certification issues using instruments such as SHERPA/ROMEO on behalf of researchers. University libraries, through promotional activities such as Open Access week commemorations, research seminars, Information Literacy training sessions and marketing research output on library websites and social media have increased research impact. By creating research data repositories, storage, access and sharing of research data are enhanced

Du and Evans (2011) carried out a study to investigate "the use of a university library academic service to assist in research information seeking and the role and value of the academic services in support of research" as viewed by both librarians and academics. In the study, it was found that the major roles and values of the library in research support include assistance offered to researchers when searching for e-resources both in and out of the library, making database subscriptions and monitoring access, and provision of research skills training. This is an essential service considering that researchers especially in developing countries cannot afford the high costs of subscribing to e-resources. Enabling access e-journals off-campus makes it more convenient and less costly for the researchers to access scholarly electronic information.

Tise, Raju and Adam (2015) opine that despite shortcomings by the library in research support, evidence is available to show that the community of researchers views libraries as 'key partners' in the research process. In agreement to the above, Borrego and Anglada (2018) highlight that the role of academic libraries in academic writing has been transformed leading to the libraries calling themselves intermediaries and partners in the process.

Lang, Wilson, Wilson & Kirkpatrick, (2018) note that research data management has globally become a priority to support researchers who are involved in academic writing. Cox and Pinfield (2013) as cited by Lang *et al*. (2018) describe activities involved in RDM to involve designing and creating data, storage, security, legal considerations and governance frameworks. RDM facilitates proper storage and

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sharing of research data for the benefit of researchers. Besides, funders are lobbying for the unrestricted access to research data by making it available in open repositories.

Challenges Faced by Academic Librarians When Assisting Researchers

As much as academic librarians have transformed themselves in line with the research support services of the digital environment, a lot of challenges affect their efforts (Namuleme and Kanzira, 2015). Runaway costs due inflation and budgetary constraints are a major drawback to research support services in academic libraries and this leads to poorly funded research support services in academic libraries (Pasipamire, 2015; Tapfuma and Hoskins 2019a). When budgets are tight, research activities are severely affected as universities concentrate on remaining operational. As budgets cuts are implemented, library and information services are not spared. However, this is not the case across the globe as findings by Keller (2015) indicate that Australian universities are well-resourced and well-funded there by promoting research support services that require huge capital injection. At times even when the resources are made available, they may not be enough as argued by Borrego and Anglada (2018, p. 8) who assert that, "…resources devoted to these tasks are scarce and do not correlate with the size of the libraries". Poor funding of academic libraries negatively affects collection development which is pivotal to academic writing supporting activities (Borrego and Anglada, 2018; Made, 2000).

Literature is abound with reports that academic researchers sometimes are not aware of the ability of the library to offer them with academic writing services (Tise, Raju and Adam, 2015). Awareness plays an important role in service delivery; with limited awareness, most library and information services provided by university librarians remain untapped. At times, researchers doubt or do not have confidence in the abilities of librarians offering support to their research tasks. As a result, researchers end up shunning consulting the libraries (Borrego and Anglada, 2018). Du and Evans (2011) note that there may be a gap in existence between the perceptions of the researchers and academic library services. Citing Hagland and Olsson (2008), Lang *et al*. (2018) observe that some researchers had confidence they could do their researches without the assistance of the librarians whose potential value, competencies and skills they were not sure of.

In a related issue, programmes and trainings such as information literacy skills (ILS) are either not well organised or when they are running, they are not taken seriously (Hoffman, Beatty, Feng & Lee, 2017; Mugwisi 2015). Some library patrons view themselves as more competent and knowledgeable than librarians (Jelagat, 2016). It is unfortunate that although some services are available, they remain underutilized due to misconceptions by the potential patrons. However,

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Hoffman *et al* (2017) question the abilities of the librarians to effectively impart the skills to researchers. Librarians are usually assigned the responsibility to teach ILS. Bombaro (2014) and Mugwisi (2015) note that academic librarians are challenged by their lack of influence in the administration of programmes such as ILS, so much that such an important element of research support ends up in the hands of the faculty or ignored completely. In such cases, university librarians' influence is inadvertently lost to faculty.

Jelagat (2016) notes that without complete infrastructure inclusive of ICT infrastructure, libraries have a challenge in service delivery. In a study carried out by Nyahodza and Higgs (2017), e-services offered by University of Western Cape were perceived to be useful and meeting users' needs and among the challenges encountered included slow internet speed. It is therefore important to have modern purpose-built libraries with good ICT infrastructure to ensure good service delivery. The ICT infrastructure should be robust enough to match the needs and expectations of library patrons. Such infrastructure include computers, projectors, servers, and related software for library management systems, Internet access, IRs, etc.

The advancement of ICTs has led to most of the information sought by researchers to be in electronic format but most researchers may not be competent enough to retrieve and use the information as intended by the librarians (Jelagat, 2016). At times, the researchers possess the required ICT skills, which the librarians may lack. It has been established in a study by Peyvand Robati and Singh (2013) that ahead of any librarianship qualification, technology competencies top the list of competencies expected from librarians. Ashiq, Rehman and Batool (2018), Tapfuma and Hoskins (2019a) also note that there is a vacuum when it comes to technological skills among librarians. Kammourie-Charara (2012:13) proclaims that, "Libraries in the digital age need stronger technological type of librarianship". ICT skills and competencies to manage digital collections, databases, library management systems, web pages, programmes and hardware are therefore important in university librarians' core competencies.

Libraries have seen it beneficial to offer training services to researchers in areas including open access, intellectual property, off campus access to electronic resources, referencing and citation searching (Borrego and Anglada, 2018). Keller (2015) points out that librarians use research seminars, research training workshops and orientation seminars when offering training to the researchers. Where the role of the library has been shifted to that of an adviser on metrics and scholarly impact, the librarians, as established by Lang *et al*. (2015), have also concentrated on training individual researchers in metrics. However, the findings of a study by Delaney and Bates (2017) are that research students seem to be unconscious of their shortcomings and even when they value information provision by the library, they do not value training by the library. To keep researchers up-to-date with current trends and improve

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service delivery in their respective research areas, librarians select information of interest to their researchers and disseminate it to them manually or electronically (Namuleme and Kanzira, 2015).

Use of social media such as Facebook and Twitter have been found to be of paramount importance in as far as marketing of library services and breaking communication barriers between academic writers and librarians is concerned (Namuleme and Kanzira, 2015). Considering that social media applications have become so popular in today's society, university libraries cannot overlook their value in service delivery. Social media applications can be used to reach out to patrons for purposes of communication, sharing information, training, marketing and publicity. Bussell, Hagman and Guder (2016) as cited by Delaney and Bates (2018) stress that libraries should focus on marketing their services to key groups that show signs of lacking confidence in research skills.

METHODS AND MATERIALS

The study was carried out among reference librarians and subject librarians at selected university libraries to establish how the librarians have been supporting academic writing endeavours by researchers at their respective institutions in Zimbabwe. Reference librarians are responsible for managing the public services section of libraries. They are the front office of libraries. Subject librarians, who are sometimes referred to as faculty librarians are the liaison personnel between the university library and faculty. A qualitative approach was adopted for the study whereby structured interviews were employed to gather data. An interview schedule that had questions that required the participants to respond to was used (Appendix 1). Interviews covered broad themes which are types of assistance offered to researchers, challenges faced and solutions proffered. The structured interviews whereby the researchers adhered to the order and wording of questions (Sarantakos, 2013) was used. This was meant to reduce researcher bias but at the same time achieving objectivity and uniformity Sarantakos, 2013). As Punch (2005) suggests, interviews were employed as a data collection tool because they allowed researchers to discuss with participants in order to get the required information but at the same time assessing the interviewees' perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations and constructs of reality. The participants were asked to explain how they assisted researchers to prepare their research work, the challenges they faced and how these challenges were addressed. Ten librarians from Africa University, Bindura University of Science Education, Lupane State University, Marondera University of Agricultural Sciences, National University of Science and Technology, University of Zimbabwe and Zimbabwe Open University various universities in Zimbabwe were

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interviewed. The librarians included seven subject librarians and three reference librarians. Qualitative data gathered from the interviews were organised and coded thematically using research objectives. The data were analysed and conclusions were made. These conclusions informed recommendations that were made.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The study confirms that university librarians were aware of their responsibility of providing research support to academics at their institutions. Reports from the interviewees show that there are deliberate efforts by the university librarians to offer support to academics for scholarly writing. The following sections provide detailed findings from the study.

Research Support Offered by University Librarians

Findings from the study reveal that university librarians are readily available to offer their services in support of academic writing by researchers. The findings echo Keller's (2015) assertion that librarians were research partners and must therefore be afforded an opportunity to support academic writing at their respective institutions. Participants reported that they were assisting researchers in literature searches to enable them access literature required for their research work. One participant mentioned that they went to an extent of "downloading articles that may be helpful" on behalf of the researchers. This was also done partly because some academics faced challenges in independently identifying and retrieving articles using computer-based technology.

Interviewees indicated that some researchers had to undergo training on how to access electronic resources (e-resources) training. The librarians had to therefore orient the researchers on how to effectively use e-resources so that their academic writing projects were well supported with online literature. The same approach was cited by Du and Evans (2011) who report that librarians offered e-resources training to researchers so that the researchers were well equipped to access scientific content required in their various academic endeavours. Such a service is important particularly because the electronic resources landscape is so broad and retrieving relevant information for one's academic project could be a mammoth task.

Academic writing requires that research work is properly cited or referenced. A study by Borrego and Anglada (2018) reiterates this important role of assisting researchers in referencing and citation that librarians play in the research cycle. The university librarians interviewed offered researchers with training on the management of references. Two interviewees specifically mentioned that they trained researchers

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on how to use Mendeley reference management software. By using reference management software, articles produced are professionally cited and plagiarism concerns are lowered or eliminated totally.

Apart from being properly cited, academic work is expected to be plagiarism-free. Academic librarians interviewed highlighted that they offered plagiarism checks on work undertaken by researchers. Turnitin and Ephorus plagiarism check software were reported to be in use. The librarians also trained the academics on how they could use plagiarism check software so that they could do the checks independently. This is very important because professionally-written papers must be plagiarism-free and properly cited.

One participant reported that they were offering information literacy skills training to researchers at their institution. The participant pointed out that "training was aimed at equipping the researchers with skills to independently and competently search for, and use information resources". ILS training is very important in academic writing; scholars do not write once but it may be a life-long commitment. It therefore becomes very essential for librarians to equip the academics with requisite skills to competently and independently use information. This is necessary if the academics are to achieve more. Once skilled, the academics also free up time for the university librarians to concentrate on other duties and responsibilities.

Some participants indicated that they were assisting researchers at their institutions with various skills on how to write academic articles. Three participants said the assistance mainly targeted postgraduate students who were still new to academic writing. One participant had this to say:

We assist the researchers with research support, providing them with the tools that make the research process easy, for instance assisting with searching for relevant literature …, holding research seminars whereby we will be demonstrating step by step, chapter by chapter on how to write and structure be it article, conference presentations etc., also assists researchers by having one-on-one sessions.

Another participant said the training they offered as a library mainly focused on helping researchers to do data analysis. In such situations, the university librarians provided assistance on how data analysis can be done manually or using computer-based packages such as the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS).

Three interviewees pointed out that researchers depended on the librarians for research data management. One of the participants explicitly said that they "assist [researchers] in the research data management plan". Another librarian pointed out that they were helping researchers at their institutions to store their research data on the cloud. Therefore, the assertion by Lang *et al* (2018) that research data

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management has globally become a priority for librarians is quite important and cannot be overlooked by both university librarians and the researchers.

Responses from the interviews also showed that university librarians acted as resource persons on scholarly publishing. The university librarians assist researchers in identifying credible journals and publishers. They also help the researchers in identifying counterfeit journals. One participant indicated that they used the Beall's List of Predatory Journals and Publishers to help researchers at their institution to avoid falling prey to predatory publishing. Another participant mentioned that their library was intending to subscribe to Cabell's Journal Whitelist as the database would be helpful to researchers in identifying appropriate journals to publish with. The same participant indicated that they were currently using platforms such as Scopus, African Journals Online (AJOL) and Directory of Open Access Journals (DOAJ) to guide researchers on where to publish their journal articles.

One librarian interviewed pointed out that they offered proofreading services so that researchers could submit articles that met editors' expectations. Librarians interviewed highlighted that they also provide guidance to researchers on how they can prepare conference presentations, book chapters and journal articles.

Challenges Faced

The assistance rendered by university librarians has not been easy. Interview participants cited some challenges they encountered in the process of assisting research in academic writing. The challenges faced are discussed below.

Failure to access some electronic resources due to non-payment of subscription fees was cited by interviewees. The phenomenon resonates well with a similar observation made by Pasipamire (2015) and Tapfuma and Hoskins (2019a) that budgetary constraints stifled librarians' effort to offer research support services to academics at universities in Zimbabwe. However, the trend seems to be prevalent in the developing world as research elsewhere indicates that the developed world is well-resourced financially and therefore does not suffer challenges associated with financial constraints, for instance, Keller (2015) pointed out that Australian university libraries were well-funded and research support services were functioning properly. University libraries in the developing world therefore ought to learn from their counterparts in the developed world on how to overcome this challenge. Participants also lamented failure to access electronic resources due to power cuts; this was further worsened by failure by university libraries to secure alternative power supplies due to limited funding as cited by Pasipamire (2015).

The study found out that lack of cooperation by some researchers was a stumbling block towards effective research support service delivery. Some participants pointed out that some researchers did not attend training sessions offered by the library.

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Furthermore, librarians interviewed pointed out that some researchers did not understand the roles librarians play in their research and were therefore not prepared to engage the librarians. Similarly, budding researchers doubted the capabilities of librarians as some of them looked down upon librarians. The findings buttress observations made by Raju et al. (2015), Borrego and Anglada (2018), Du and Evans (2011) and Lang et al. (2018) that researchers:

i. Doubted the ability of librarians to effectively deliver;
ii. Had negative perceptions towards partnering with librarians; and,
iii. Shunned librarians.

The lack of cooperation by researchers contrasts assertions made by Keller (2015) and Tise, Raju and Adam (2015) that academic libraries are academics' partners in research. The university librarians in Zimbabwe therefore need to work towards ensuring that they have adopted a win-win approach with the academics.

On a related note, researchers' observations were to some extent correct as some librarians admitted that they did not have enough skills on how to assist the researchers. Therefore, without the required skills to offer research support services, librarians could not confidently deliver service as expected. The challenge was further exacerbated by non-availability of limited time to assist the researchers on the part of the librarians.

Due to failure by researchers to properly engage librarians, a related problem whereby researchers provided wrong bibliographic details that made it very difficult for librarians to find what the researchers wanted was encountered. As Hoffman *et al* (2017) suggest, offering information literacy skills training to the researchers would serve to address this challenge.

As observed by Jelagat (2016) and Nyahodza and Higgs (2017), the study confirmed that ICT infrastructure, particularly poor Internet connectivity made it difficult to access electronic resources though librarians had put in place arrangements to support the researchers. Bandwidth is low or jammed by other demands from the universities' staff and students.

Solutions Proffered to Challenges Faced

Participants were asked to share their experiences on how they addressed the challenges that they were facing. The following solutions were proffered by the university librarians:

- Generators were used for backup power;

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- Open access databases such as "Research for Life," … "Research Gate and Academia…" are used to enable access to resources required by the researchers;
- Librarians are holding awareness campaigns, sensitisation meetings, and developing research guides to promote their services;
- Some librarians are engaging in Inter-Library Lending (ILL) for books and articles they do not have in their own libraries;
- Librarians are offering training on how researchers can identify the correct bibliographic details for information resources, how to conduct literature searches and how to download full text content;
- Librarians are providing training researchers and providing them with handbooks, guides and other tools to manage referencing and citation; and,
- Librarians have embarked on advocacy work for the adoption of research data management by researchers.

Findings from the study show that university librarians in Zimbabwe provide support to academics at their institutions. The support is in the form of facilitating access to information for the researchers and enabling access to research output from the researchers. The internet has been a key driver in this endeavour through provision on electronic resources (such as electronic books and journals) and managing research data, for example using IRs. The university librarians have been helpful in promoting scholarly writing by providing assistance with referencing, citation, avoiding plagiarism training budding researchers on scholarly writing and publishing. Financial, human capital and infrastructural constraints have to some extend deterred effective support by the librarians. Solutions such as use of open access resources, sharing resources with other libraries, continuous professional development of the university librarians and engagement between librarians and academics are proffered.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the results obtained from the study that have been discussed above, the study confirms that reference librarians and subject librarians at university libraries in Zimbabwe are supporting academic writing by researchers by offering e-resources and information literacy skills training, research data management services, plagiarism check, reference and citation services. The university librarians interviewed encountered challenges, key among them failure to access some electronic resources due to non-payment of subscription fees, lack of cooperation by some researchers, and librarians' lack of enough skills on how to assist the researchers. Engaging in

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ILL, provision of back-up power using generators, embarking on library advocacy and staff-developing the librarians were employed to solve the challenges faced. It is therefore important to raise the researchers' awareness of the role of academic librarians in supporting academic writing and building a strong partnership between academic librarians and researchers throughout the research cycle. The study also reasserts the importance of promoting academic writing in institutions of higher learning. Academic writing is important for the individuals' career development but it is also an opportunity to share views, concerns and experiences. In addition, academic writing contributes to the universe of knowledge and preservation of the knowledge and its transfer from one generation to another.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The researchers recommend future research in the following areas:

1. Development of a strong partnership between faculty and academic librarians. This would help in building a healthy research support relationship between the two parties;
2. Possible measures academic librarians can adopt to build positive reputation. This would allay negative perceptions towards academic librarians held by some library patrons; and,
3. Development of a model that strengthens innovative and sustainable ways of academic library service delivery in view of the challenges they face, e.g. power cuts, budgetary constraints and lack of cooperation among stakeholders.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Academic: (1) Anything that relates to education and scholarship, (2) a member of a university or college is responsible for teaching or research.

Academic Writing: Academic writing refers to formal style of writing used in research papers, essays and other academic papers. Academic writing is evidence-based, requires formal language and well-structured presentation.

Information Literacy: The ability to know when one needs information, ability to identify, locate, evaluate, and effectively use that information.

Research Data Management: The care and maintenance of the data that emanates from the research process within a research cycle.

Research Support: Help given to researchers during the research process.

University Librarian: A professionally trained person who works in a university library.

University: Library: A library that is attached to a university. It serves staff and students at the university.

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APPENDIX

Interview Schedule

Thank you very much for accepting to participate in this research.

We are carrying out a study to find out how university librarians are supporting academics as they carry out their research work. Data collected from this study will be used for research purposes only and all participants will remain anonymous.

1. What is your job title?

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   ……

2. How do you assist researchers to prepare their research articles, book chapters, technical papers and conference presentations?

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3. What challenges do you face when assisting researchers to prepare their research articles, book chapters, technical papers and conference presentations?

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4. How are you addressing these challenges?

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Chapter 5
Discipline-Focused Revision Practices:
A Context-Specific Example of Revising Dissertation Writing

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ABSTRACT

In this chapter, the authors present a conceptual framework grounded in a comprehensive review of the literature that discusses disciplinary writing and scholarly identity, specifically focusing on the role that revision has in both the scholarly writing process and the formation of scholarly identity. A review of the revision process is described, followed by the impacts of discipline and context factors on that process. An example of this process in the social sciences for doctoral students is provided to illustrate the application of the ideas described in the chapter. This discussion concentrates on novice writers such as graduate students and early career researchers. Finally, research-based strategies for providing scholarly writing instruction to graduate students are described with regard to improving students' revision processes.

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INTRODUCTION

Becoming a scholarly writer is a never-ending journey. It is an ongoing process where one learns through revision not only to improve writing ability but also to gain disciplinary knowledge. Writing in the discipline helps one to learn the discipline (O'Brien, Marken, & Petrey, 2016). Learning disciplinary conventions makes novice writers more comfortable about entering the scholarly discussions in their fields, especially via publication (Kirkpatrick, 2016; Perry, 1998). However, novice writers find publishing a challenge (Bowen, 2010) which is concerning given the importance of publishing. There is need for recent graduates to have published before graduation because positions in academia are competitive (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016). In addition, doctoral publishing before and after dissertation is related to later publication record (Kamler, 2008). Further, some doctoral programs require students to publish for program completion (Habibie, 2016; Jalongo, Boyer, & Ebbeck, 2014; Kamler, 2008).

Despite the importance of publishing and the need to guide emerging scholars as they write within the discipline, doctoral programs typically do not explicitly address the writing and publication processes (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016; Bowen, 2010; Cameron, Nairn, & Higgins, 2009; Paré, 2011; Starke- Meyerring, 2011). Instead, learning how to write and publish is often perceived as "tacit knowledge… that is acquired through a combination of informal mentoring experiences and the individual doctoral candidate's initiative, diligence, and persistence at publication" (Jalongo et al., 2014, p. 242). In addition, doctoral programs are faced with striking a balance between timely degree completion and adequate immersion of students in scholarly study (Carter & Kumar, 2017). The culmination of most doctoral programs is the dissertation, a genre of academic writing requiring an intensive study into some new aspect of a discipline and field of knowledge (Kamler, 2008; Paré, 2011). Doctoral students need to be prepared to produce a quality dissertation for their own professional growth and to further the knowledge in the discipline. Doctoral programs are where the torch is passed in a discipline with regard to scholarship. For these reasons, transference of knowledge about scholarly writing should be intentional and even a focus for doctoral programs.

Novice writers lack the experience to understand that extensive and repeated revision of a scholarly work is a normal part of the process (Jalongo et al., 2014). They find this "*feedback loop*" to be an "iterative process [with] seemingly endless revisions" (Murray, 2010, pp.107-108). Obviously, haphazardly addressing revisions makes the end product of lesser quality, prolongs the process of finalizing the product, and increase editorial costs. But in addition, the revision process advances one's scholarly writing and should be embraced and not rushed. Making revisions allows one to learn from mistakes, so the focus should be on both improving writing and

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the final product (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016; Nolan & Rocco, 2009). Nevertheless, emerging scholars find detailed feedback to be intimidating and may lose confidence in themselves as writers. These negative perceptions of feedback can be lessened when one views feedback as useful and realizes and appreciates that detailed feedback took someone a long time to provide. Also, learning a method to process and address feedback can make the revision process more manageable.

MAIN FOCUS OF THE CHAPTER

The overall purposes of this chapter are: (a) to provide novice writers with a process to use when revising their writing, (b) to provide descriptions of how the process can be embedded in context and customized to specific disciplines, and (c) to illustrate this process within a specific context, revising dissertation writing for a doctorate of education (EdD) degree. The target audience for this chapter consists of novice writers (e.g., graduate students working on theses or dissertations), junior faculty, and practitioners in the field. However, this information would also be useful for practicing scholars when improving their writing and for those who advise or instruct novice writers.

This chapter has four major sections:

1. **Background:** Provides an overview of two areas of research literature, disciplinary writing and scholarly identity;
2. **Revision Process:** Describes a process to use when revising writing;
3. **Customizing the Process for Discipline and Context:** Factors to consider and strategies for improving students' scholarly writing and revision processes in a graduate program; and,
4. **Conclusion and Recommendations:** Discussion of chapter conclusions, implications for practice, and recommendations for future research.

BACKGROUND

Background information needed to understand the revision process includes disciplinary writing and scholarly identity. The summary of the disciplinary writing literature includes explanation of how scholarly writing differs by discipline and resulting implications for doctoral programs. The literature summarized in the second subsection describes scholarly identity and influencing factors.

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Disciplinary Writing

Although similarities in scholarly writing can be found across disciplines, each discipline has its own unique expectations for scholarly writing. Discipline-specific considerations include unique knowledge and content, appropriate research practices, and writing conventions (Habibie, 2016; Kirkpatrick, 2016; Inouye & McAlpine, 2019; O'Brien et al., 2016). An in-depth knowledge of content within the discipline is needed to write about the topic, to make a good argument, and to establish a framework for writing (Habibie, 2016). Scholarly writing is often geared toward writing for journals in a particular discipline (e.g., how to write about disciplinary knowledge, how to make arguments, how to organize writing). In addition, a scholar should know how the written work fits in with the previous research in a discipline and how to conduct research within the discipline (Paré, 2011).

One should be immersed in the scholarly writing for a discipline in order to "learn the discursive norms and rhetorical conventions as well as disciplinary concerns of [the] academic discourse community" (Habibie, 2016, p. 11). The readers of a scholarly journal constitute a *discourse community*, or those who are the researchers, audiences, users, and practitioners within that discipline. Discourse communities can vary within a discipline. "[Journal] readers expect to see writing that conforms to the rules, expectations, conventions and ways of knowing of their subject or discipline." (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016, p. 6). Scholarly writing is created to meet the needs of a discourse community and differs by discipline with regard to varying audiences and purposes (Rademaekers, 2014).

Writing instruction and practice within graduate programs prepares students to become proficient in scholarly writing within a specific discipline while developing their identities as academics (Inouye & McAlpine, 2019). Graduate students writing theses or dissertations need to be prepared to write these major scholarly works by the end of their programs, and also need to be prepared to write professionally whether that is in academia or in practitioner roles (Habibie, 2016). Paré (2011) describes how the dissertation genre of academic writing is unique from other genres of writing in that it accomplishes important objectives, including "the assessment of the student's readiness for professional life, the relations [dissertations] establish between and among readers…and the consequences [dissertations] are shaped to produce (a newly minted member of the community)" (p. 64).

Many disciplines have articles or journal editorials that focus on how to write within that discipline (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016). However, faculty-student collaboration and mentoring have the most impact on novice scholars gaining disciplinary knowledge and being introduced to disciplinary discourse practices (Gube, Getenet, Satariyan, & Muhammad, 2017; Kamler, 2008; Paré, 2011). Faculty supervisors and mentors, as experienced scholars, help to immerse emerging scholars in the discipline's culture,

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or "its discursive practices, its ways of making knowledge, its history, its values and beliefs, its areas of consensus and conflict" (Paré, 2011, p. 69). Disciplines and subdisciplines often have conflicting findings, theories, perspectives, and research philosophies (Paré, 2011; Starke-Meyerring, 2011). Experienced scholars in a field understand the nuances within the research literature in a disciplinary field and can give guidance on aspects of a literature review such as adequate coverage of the literature and appropriate critical appraisal of the literature. Also, they understand the expectations of research within the field of study, including selection of methods and presentation of evidence (Starke-Meyerring, 2011). Students need to situate their research within the discipline culture in order to increase the impact on the field of study and to develop their identities as scholars in their respective disciplines (Paré, 2011).

Scholarly Identity

Developing one's identity as a scholarly writer is an important aspect of doctoral education. A *scholarly identity* should be personally authentic and grounded in one's discipline to further develop into independent scholars after graduation (Kirkpatrick, 2016; Starke-Meyerring, 2011). When students are inexperienced with scholarly writing and do not receive explicit instruction on writing and publishing, they remain unsure and lack confidence in themselves as scholarly writers. They believe they have nothing to contribute to the scholarly discussions in their fields. This leads to limited scholarly writing and publication (Kirkpatrick, 2016). In other words, they have a negative scholarly identity, which has also been referred to as researcher identity and academic identity in the literature (Inouye & McAlpine, 2019). A negative scholarly identity leads to reduced scholarly writing and publication which have major consequences for employment. They develop *imposter syndrome* by doubting their ability to be a scholarly writer, instead thinking they are masquerading as a scholarly writer and will be discovered (Noonan, 2015; Paltridge & Woodrow, 2012).

The problem is novice writers see scholars as fictional or far removed from them. However, they need to understand that all scholars begin somewhere and that they too can develop a positive scholarly identity with assistance from established professionals (Kirkpatrick, 2016; Paré, 2011). Inouye & McAlpine (2019) described three stances within the interpretivist-constructivist paradigm for framing scholarly identity: socio-cultural, linguistic, and socio-cognitive. They found that the majority of research examines scholarly identity from a socio-cultural perspective where identity is formed through social interaction and recommended that more research is needed to examine how critical thinking and self-regulation impact identity formation. These researchers identified ways scholarly identity is influenced, including "encouraging autonomy, awareness of voice, confidence, knowledge acquisition, learning through

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critique, positioning, and reflection and assessment" with complex relationships existing between each of these influences (Inouye & McAlpine, 2019, p. 16).

Although there are resources available on how to publish (e.g., journal articles, editorials), these are mostly general and do not take into account the personal nature of writing and scholarly identity (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016; Downs, 2011). Scholarly identity development is an emotional experience because writing is personal and criticism is viewed as critical of intelligence (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016; Bosanquet & Cahir, 2016). Experiencing negative emotions can stall the writing process (Cameron et al., 2009). For example, graduate students have anxiety about doctoral writing and publication and feel pressure because publication is public (Kamler, 2008). They find having their writing reviewed by others to be intimidating (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016; Guerin, 2016). As a result, novice writers are hesitant to invest the time to develop as writers and pursue publication because they lack confidence, are afraid of failure, and question whether the risk is worth the reward (Jalongo et al., 2014; Kamler, 2008; Stoilescu & McDougall, 2010). Writing well requires being motivated to invest the time needed to improve one's scholarly writing (Nolan & Rocco, 2009). "For both novice and experienced academic writers, writing for publication can be a complex and difficult process. They may experience many frustrations and failures before finding their own ways of writing" (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016, p. 5). Emerging scholars need quality feedback that is critical and offers a challenge, but given with adequate support and guidance through mentoring, while learning to understand the writing process (Kamler, 2008).

REVISION PROCESS

The revision process is comprised of three stages, each with its own considerations for writers editing their writing. These stages are obtaining feedback on writing, developing an organized approach to making revisions, and completing revisions on a manuscript. A visual summary of this process is presented in Figure 1, and each stage is described in the following sections.

Obtaining Feedback

When obtaining feedback that will be used to revise writing, the first consideration that must be made is the source (or sources) that will be utilized for feedback. There are three sources that a writer can use: experts, peers, and self. An expert is a scholar who has a more comprehensive knowledge- and/or experience-base on the topic than the writer. Experts can offer important and meaningful feedback on the content and methodology in a manuscript. A peer is a colleague with a similar

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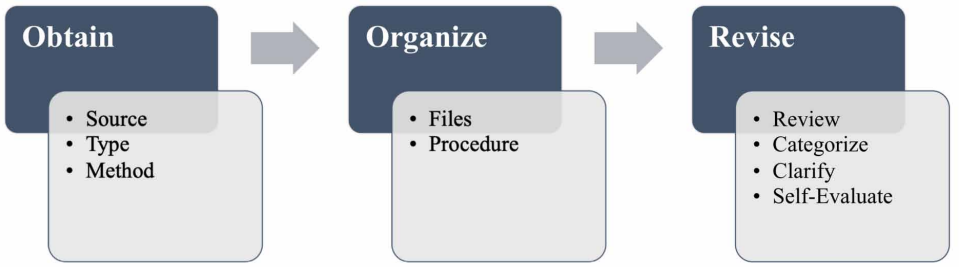
Figure 1. Visual diagram of the revision process



level of expertise. Finally, self-editing affords a writer an opportunity to reflect on their writing by ensuring that their manuscript articulates their ideas and intentions clearly, thoroughly, and appropriately. Each of these sources of feedback serves a different and important role in helping a writer to improve their writing.

The second consideration that must be made is the type of feedback that will be given from the source(s) described above. Edits can generally be classified as being about content, writing mechanics, or organization. Edits related to content can vary from suggesting additional information to include in the manuscript, portions that need further elaboration, matters related to methodology and results, and other similar types of feedback. Conversely, edits on writing mechanics and organization will focus on issues such as improving grammar usage and clarity.

The third consideration to be made when obtaining feedback on writing is the method in which the feedback will be given. Feedback can be given using some combination of electronic and handwritten feedback, and it can come in the form of in-document line edits, in-document commentary, out-of-document commentary, or standardized rubrics. In-document line edits tend to identify issues with grammar, while in-document commentary will focus more on content. Out-of-document commentary can come in the form of a letter or email and can be used to address any topic, though this method tends to focus on more general issues—especially those that are related to content. Finally, standardized rubrics are not as specific as in-document edits, but they do provide detailed feedback for writers related to any aspect that is addressed on the rubric.

Taking an Organized Approach

After writers have considered the source(s) of feedback, the type of feedback received, and the method in which the feedback is given, they need to develop an organized approach to reviewing and addressing the feedback in their writing so that they can effectively revise it. The first step in this approach is to have an organized system

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for file storage. It is good practice to save every update of a draft of a document and every round of feedback received so that the progression of the manuscript is clear and former versions are accessible. This can quickly make the number of files quite large which can become unwieldy. Therefore, writers need to have an organized plan for file naming and storage. This system should help the writer know the timeline of the drafts and what was added or changed from previous drafts. Strategies for accomplishing this include strategically and consistently naming files and maintaining a spreadsheet or log that briefly describes a summary of important details for each draft.

The necessity of having an organized approach is not limited to file management. Writers need to develop a systematic approach to making revisions. Without developing and adhering to a clear set of steps for the revision process, necessary edits can be missed or work can be inadvertently lost. As writers work through the revision process, they should revisit their organization practices to determine their effectiveness and to make changes accordingly. The next section outlines the general steps that writers should take into account as they develop their process for revision.

Steps of Making Revisions

The first step in making revisions is to take the edits and feedback that are received and to look over them in their entirety before beginning any revising. This is important because it gives the writer a comprehensive understanding of the reviewer's feedback on the entire document. Understanding each feedback item in relation to other feedback items provides clarity for the writer which is necessary for effective and efficient revising. Writers also need to be aware that some edits are expected in a document that are not explicitly identified in the feedback. For example, one mistake could be repeated multiple times in a document, but feedback for correcting the error only appears once. It is expected that the writer will make all relevant corrections throughout the entire document for these types of edits.

While examining the feedback, writers should develop a list of the edits that are to be made. Ideally, this will be done in a manner that allows the writer to sort the edits by categories and by the amount of work that will be required. Identifying the category of the recommended edits will give the writer a general idea of areas of greatest need in improving the manuscript. Examples of categories include but are not limited to issues related to the content of the manuscript, issues related to study methodology, grammar issues, problems with clarity, issues with organization, and style/formatting problems. These overarching categories could even be further disaggregated into sub-categories that better summarize the nature of the revision to be made. For example, feedback on content can be related to issues with the arguments being made or issues with the theoretical perspective/framework. Other

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subcategories could include needing citational support for claims or addressing redundant or unnecessary information. Edits within these various categories would need to be approached and corrected differently, so having the ability to go through a manuscript methodically and concentrate on edits that are similar in nature may help the writer maintain focus and enhance the quality of their revisions.

An additional method of classification that is beneficial for writers is difficulty. Identifying the edits as major, moderate, or minor will help writers prioritize the revisions that need to be made and develop a plan for finishing them. After classifying the edits in these various ways, writers should prioritize the revisions they will be making. The decision for how the edits will be approached is ultimately up to the writer and needs to take into account their own personal style and motivation. Possible strategies are to focus on one category of edits at a time (e.g., all grammar edits at one time) or to order edits by revision difficulty (e.g., focus on the most difficult or time-consuming edits first).

Writers should make notes about any feedback they receive that they do not understand or find clear. Instead of attempting to guess what the reviewer intended with their suggested edit, it is best for the writer to follow up and ask for clarity. This will ensure that any revisions that are made are in alignment with the feedback and that the manuscript is being improved correctly. Moreover, this reduces the likelihood that additional edits will need to be suggested in follow-up reviews, thereby saving time and effort for both writers and reviewers.

Finally, writers need to self-evaluate their editing process as they work through it and make changes to their approach accordingly. Writing is a personal process because the exact process that works for one person is likely not going to work as well for someone else. The editing process is no different—it takes time and practice to find the ideal strategy for making revisions. Thoughtfully considering the ideas presented in this chapter will help writers discover their optimal process more expeditiously.

CUSTOMIZING THE PROCESS FOR DISCIPLINE AND CONTEXT

The revision process for novice writers should be considered and developed in a discipline-specific and context-specific manner. A discussion of how the revision process can be customized in a Doctor of Education (EdD) degree program is provided to illustrate this process within a specific discipline and context. The broader disciplinary context would be scholarly writing in the social sciences. This section ends with a discussion of research-based strategies for improving scholarly writing for emerging scholars and includes how these strategies involve the revision process.

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Table 1. Discipline factors that impact the revision process

Factors	Applications to EdD Dissertation	Impacts on Revision Process
Writing Style	American Psychological Association (APA) Style	Impacts formatting of the entire document
Publication Structure Expectations	Traditional structure of EdD dissertation with five chapters (i.e., Introduction, Review of Literature, Methods, Results, Discussion)	How the revisions would be made in stages (e.g., by chapter); revision process would be different for some chapters (e.g., Review of Literature would have literature coverage and synthesis components incorporated in the revision process)
Discipline Writing Conventions	Dissertation has repetitive aspects (e.g., purpose statement); all chapters have an introduction and summary; detailed results are presented	Repetitive aspects need to be checked for consistency, clarity, and accuracy
Revision Protocols for Discipline	Receive feedback from multiple sources (e.g., chair, methodologist, other committee members, department head, university reviewer)	Have to incorporate all feedback into the document; need to organize the overall revision process around approval levels and timelines for the dissertation
Discipline Challenges	Various abbreviations used in education; specificity of content compared to the breadth of the audience	Ensuring revisions keep various audiences in mind
Discipline Values	Scholarly-practitioner focus of EdD	Revisions need to maintain focus of scholarly practitioner
Theoretical/Conceptual Framework	Discipline-specific leadership theories	Frames the study; all major revisions have to be considered in light of the framework
Discourse Community for Field of Study	Topic area in educational leadership	Appropriately defining content; entering dialog appropriately; studying the unknown; supporting argument
Stakeholders/Audiences	Schools, districts, and policymakers	The primary audience is the scholarly community in the discipline, especially the dissertation committee; however, portions should be written in a manner that could be readily translated into practice for stakeholders
Methodology	Elements of educational structure and organization will affect what is possible (e.g., experimental designs are not practical)	Revisions need to remain in alignment with appropriate language for the methods that are used (e.g., cannot say cause-and-effect)
Ethical Governance	APA, American Educational Research Association Code of Ethics, Institutional Review Board Guidelines	Alignment of and adherence to ethical standards and timelines while making revisions (e.g., protection of human subjects, sharing data)

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Table 2. Context factors that impact the revision process

Factors	Applications to EdD Dissertation	Impacts on Revision Process
Institution Expectations	Format of dissertation	Using a sample format or template will reduce the amount of revisions
Program Standards	Rubric, specific structures, tables and figures	Including a self-assessment using the rubric will reduce the amount of revisions
Program Structure and Curriculum	Scholarly writing addressed in a writing course	Embedding mastery experiences in the curriculum will equip students to approach revisions efficiently and confidently; explicit instruction about the revision process
Program Writing Interventions	Mentoring by dissertation chair and methodologist; writing workshops	Reduce the amount of revisions and make the process easier for students
Context Challenges	Student variables (e.g., scholarly identity, writing ability); student outcomes (e.g., plans to enter academia)	Understanding one's needs and goals personalizes the revision process and increases effectiveness
Context Values	Study must have leadership focus	Need to examine aspects of the dissertation for leadership focus as part of the revision process

Factors to Consider

The revision process should be authentic with regard to the given discipline and context. Tables 1 and 2 display the discipline and context factors to consider with regard to their impacts on the revision process. The tables demonstrate the application of the revision process to a particular discipline and context, the dissertation for the EdD in Educational Leadership degree.

The application and impact information shown in the tables are not exhaustive but demonstrate how to customize the revision process based on the factors shown. Writers need to reflect on the extensiveness of the impact or role of each factor with regard to the revision process considering the genre (e.g., dissertation, journal article) and individual writing ability.

Strategies

The relevant research literature was examined to identify strategies for improving graduate student writing. The identified strategies and the associated literature are discussed in this subsection along with ways to apply each strategy to enhance the revision process in a graduate program. The relevant literature was obtained by searching for the following terms: revision, disciplinary writing, graduate student writing, scholarly/research identity, writing feedback, and dissertation writing. Table

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Table 3. Strategies for improving scholarly writing and applying the revision process

Strategies	Definition	Applying to Revision Process
Enculturation into Disciplinary Writing	Writing in the discipline pervades all aspects of the program including values and discourse.	Having a culture that celebrates the benefits of the revision process for improving disciplinary writing
Publishing	Students preparing manuscripts for publication during coursework and from their dissertations	Students become more comfortable with revising when it is a regular part of coursework and when they experience the review process for publication
Collaboration/ Mentoring	Students participate in research and publication with faculty and with guidance transition to autonomous scholarship	Students participate in the revision process with faculty and learn to conduct this process independently
Program Curriculum	Faculty collaborate and use research-based practices to infuse scholarly writing instruction throughout the curriculum	Faculty collaborate and use research-based practices to infuse revision process instruction and opportunities throughout the curriculum
Writing Courses	Having an entire course (or courses) devoted to instruction on disciplinary writing given by faculty who understand best pedagogical practices	Having a major focus on the revision process in a writing course given by faculty who understand best pedagogical practices for teaching revising
Program Interventions	Providing discipline-specific workshops and training focused on scholarly writing to supplement the curriculum	Providing discipline-specific workshops and training focused on the revision process to supplement the curriculum
Individualized Interventions	Providing interventions to address cognitive and affective variables (e.g., self-regulated learning, writing approaches, scholarly identity) related to scholarly writing	Providing interventions about the revision process to address cognitive and affective variables related to scholarly writing
Peer Interventions	Students participate in peer activities to improve writing (e.g., peer review, peer writing groups) and discuss perceptions about writing in a safe way	The revision process is a central focus in these peer activities which allows the process to be further developed and refined.
Reviewing Others' Writing	Students conduct reviews for conferences or journals (officially or unofficially)	Students discuss their strengths and weaknesses as reviewers and how this relates to their revision process.
Feedback	Faculty should focus on providing quality feedback regularly that is critical but delivered in a supportive way	Provide feedback in stages and assess students' feedback preferences to make feedback make the revision process more individualized

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3 contains the ten identified strategies, their definitions, and applications to the revision process. Each strategy is elaborated on in the narrative in this subsection.

Enculturation in Disciplinary Writing

Graduate students are encultured in the writing for their discipline when this pervades all aspects of their graduate programs including values and discourse.

Strategy Description

A graduate program should have a culture that promotes the scholarly writing of faculty and students. When faculty are prolific writers, they model for students scholarly writing behaviors, values, and healthy scholarly identities. Research and dissemination of research by faculty and students should be financially supported by the institution. Presenting and publishing should be strongly encouraged. When there is a culture of scholarship, writing and publishing become part of discourse and students are regularly exposed to disciplinary norms and writing traditions (Kirkpatrick, 2016). Faculty should deliberately pursue such a culture individually and collectively (Habibie, 2016). Intentional and focused instruction on scholarly writing should exist throughout a program (Jalongo et al., 2014). Ultimately, faculty should exhibit intrinsic motivation to conduct, present, and publish research for the sake of gaining knowledge and not just to fulfill scholarship requirements (Habibie, 2016).

Revision Process

Considering this strategy specifically in regard to the revision process leads to envisioning a program culture that encourages and facilitates writing development for students and for faculty. Writing should be viewed as a never-ending journey with the revision process advancing one's writing. Revising writing should be portrayed as a positive, growing experience and not as something negative that makes someone embarrassed or ashamed. Faculty should model healthy scholarly identities by demonstrating that revising writing makes them feel more powerful as scholars and not diminished. The revision process should be incorporated throughout the program and in all courses focusing on improving as writers within the discipline. Faculty should work collectively and have regular discussions about having a focus on writing improvement within the discipline and on the role of revision in the scholarly productivity of themselves and the students.

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Publishing During and After a Doctoral Program

Graduate students improve their scholarly writing by preparing manuscripts for publication during coursework and from their dissertations.

Strategy Description

Part of establishing a culture of disciplinary writing is to encourage student publication, and the most obvious way to improve students' disciplinary writing is to pursue publication (Aitchison, Catterall, Ross, & Burgin, 2012; Stoilescu & McDougall, 2010). Jalongo et al. (2014) found that students want to do projects that are publishable to make their coursework worth their time, and this is especially true if students need to publish for their careers. Submitting a manuscript for review in a publication allows students to get feedback from reviewers who are experts in the discipline. Students develop a familiarity with the submission process and with the review process which increases their confidence as scholarly writers (Aitchison et al., 2012; Guerin, 2016; Jalongo et al., 2014).

Students need pedagogical practice on scholarly writing within the discipline; however, instruction on writing for publication has not been a focus in graduate programs (Kamler, 2008). Students need to learn to write, and this should not be assumed to be an innate skill (Cotterall, 2011). The process of writing the dissertation should be a focus of coursework. In addition, students need guidance on how to publish their dissertations (e.g., finding journals, preparing manuscripts) and what to publish (e.g., considering research from various angles and for varying audiences). A dissertation should lead to multiple publications (Aitchison et al., 2012; Lee & Kamler, 2008).

Students also need instruction on how to develop a manuscript for publication. Habibie (2016) described the process of writing a paper for a conference and then transforming the paper into a manuscript to submit to a journal. Learning to write a manuscript for a particular journal allows students to learn about the discourse community in the discipline (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016). When students are working on publications while working on their dissertations, they learn how to juggle multiple projects, a skill that would benefit students who plan to go into academia (Jalongo et al., 2014; Murray, 2010).

Revision Process

This strategy of improving students' scholarly writing by participating in the publication process obviously incorporates the revision process. Revising is part of manuscript preparation and part of processing reviewers' feedback. Students need to

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learn the benefit of obtaining feedback from presentation attendees and session chairs and discussants. The value of journal reviewer feedback should also be emphasized (Guerin, 2016) so that students can see how feedback improves the work even if it is intimidating. When the revision process is a regular part of coursework, students develop a comfort level with making revisions. Rubrics can be a good tool to use to help students learn to self-assess their manuscripts and dissertations. Learning how to process feedback in an organized revision procedure will lead students to producing publishable work and to strengthening their scholarly identities.

Collaboration and Mentoring

When graduate students participate in collaborative research and publication with faculty and receive guidance, they more easily make the transition to autonomous scholarship.

Strategy Description

Faculty who frequently publish and do other scholarly activities serve as role models for students. When students are included in these efforts as collaborators, students are able to feel challenged but in a safe way (Kirkpatrick, 2016). Kamler (2008) describes a scaffolding approach for gradually increasing student autonomy in the collaborative process. A faculty mentor can provide "feedback, questions, suggestions, and instruction" to introduce students to writing in that discipline and to facilitate students preparing a better manuscript before submitting it for publication (Paré, 2011, p. 59). Kamler and Thomson (2008) state that faculty collaborating with students is more useful for doctoral students than overly generalized dissertation advice books that emphasize a one-size fits all approach. Students benefit from collaboration within the discipline because they become fellow researchers and are provided with the tools needed to draw on their experiences and make individualized decisions. A culture of faculty-with-faculty and faculty-with-student collaborations demonstrates that working together is beneficial (Habibie, 2016). Faculty can boost student confidence by treating students as scholarly colleagues (Cameron et al., 2009; Kirkpatrick, 2016). When faculty encourage students to publish with them, they strengthen student's scholarly identities (Can & Walker, 2011; Habibie, 2016; Kamler, 2008).

Revision Process

During collaborative efforts, faculty are able to model the revision process Certain frustrations are viewed as a normal part of the process and receiving corrections and

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edits is not solely a reflection of student inexperience (Nolan & Rocco, 2009). When reviewers' comments are received, faculty and students can conduct a joint analysis of reviewer comments. Faculty can explain the revision process and procedures and demonstrate how to interpret and act on reviewer comments. Also, faculty can explain how to use the editor's comments to see how different reviewer opinions can be negotiated (Lee & Kamler, 2008). Faculty can mentor students through more independent revision of manuscripts.

Program Curriculum

A graduate program curriculum should be infused with research-based practices for scholarly writing through faculty collaboration.

Strategy Description

A graduate program should be intentional about providing instruction and experiences with scholarly writing in a systematic and systemic manner that does not leave learning about scholarly writing to chance (Jalongo et al., 2014). Program practices should deliberately ensure that scholarly writing "permeates the program" (Jalongo et al., 2014, p. 244) and that pedagogical attention is given to disciplinary writing in a strategic and explicit way (Kamler, 2008).

Typically, faculty do not have formal training in supervising and developing scholarly writers. Consequently, institutions need to provide ways to improve the ability of faculty to successfully guide emerging writers (Kamler, 2008; Paré, 2011; Starke-Meyerring, 2011). Faculty need to become familiar with research literature about the writing process and pedagogical issues. The program curriculum should be "[infused]…with a solid research base that examines the roles of writing and discourse in the production of knowledge, researcher identity, disciplinarity" Starke-Meyerring, 2011, p. 93). Institutional resources should be used in a way that will best address the crux of the problem (Starke-Meyerring, 2011).

There should be open discussions amongst faculty about their own writing and how to guide students through the writing process. Faculty should have discussions about scholarly writing within the program curriculum and collaborate on ways to infuse writing within the curriculum. Challenges with instructing and guiding students in scholarly writing should be identified along with potential solutions (Bair & Mader, 2013). Scholarly writing should be embedded in all courses (Kirkpatrick, 2016).

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Revision Process

Instruction on and practice with the revision process should be a part of the curriculum, a part of course experiences (e.g., revising as a whole class, peer review), and a part of developing course projects (Nolan & Rocco, 2009). Providing students with extensive amounts of experiences revising their own work can reduce the amount of post-graduate revision experiences and allow students to graduate as stronger writers (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016). Program faculty should discuss their own revision processes and the relevant research literature regarding ways to instruct students in making revisions. They should collaborate on ways to infuse revision experiences throughout the curriculum.

Discipline-Specific Writing Courses

A writing course (or courses) entirely devoted to instruction on disciplinary writing are more impactful when taught by faculty who understand best pedagogical practice for writing instruction.

Strategy Description

Including discipline-specific writing courses within the curriculum is not common practice although students want this type of instructional experience, and they want it early in their programs (Jalongo et al., 2014). Providing a writing course is an intentional way to include disciplinary writing instruction as part of the curriculum (Kirkpatrick, 2016; Nolan & Rocco, 2009). If scholarly writing is not explicitly taught, students are left to figure it out on their own and this could result in a form of elitism that impacts employability and tenure/promotion. "Success with scholarly writing is a constellation of skills, understandings, and dispositions too important to be left to chance" (Jalongo et al., 2014, p. 242). Providing writing instruction is not easy. Faculty need pedagogical knowledge of how to introduce novice writers to writing within the discipline. Also, they need to be self-aware of their own writing practices to be able to explain it to novice writers. Most faculty had to gain their own knowledge and skills regarding scholarly writing as tacit knowledge. As a result, it is difficult for faculty to concretely determine how to share knowledge with students. Faculty need to reflect on this knowledge and then articulate it in a way that can be easily understood (Cameron et al., 2009; Paré, 2011).

A discipline-specific writing course should focus on disciplinary conventions for scholarly writing. Regan and Pietrobon (2010) describe a framework of four principles for teaching scholarly writing (i.e., structure and content, constructing an argument, comparing writing styles, recognizing text structure patterns). Students need to

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understand how to enter the scholarly dialogue and situate their own research within the current discussion. An understanding of a field of study, including important theories and landmark studies, is needed before critiquing it (Habibie, 2016; Kirkpatrick, 2016; Wisker, 2015). Students should begin reading different types of publications early and learn how to identify appropriate journals for publishing their own work. Writing exemplars should be provided with explanations for why they are exemplars, including dissertation examples. Excerpts of poor writing should also be examined. Students need assignments that require them to expand their thinking (e.g., position papers) (Jalongo et al., 2014). Lee and Kamler (2008) describe having students develop graphic representations of their writing structures and writing processes to increase student understanding of scholarly writing. Providing the above experiences in a writing course helps to demystify scholarly writing (Nolan & Rocco, 2009). Having a writing course at the beginning of a program allows students to learn how to review literature and begin scholarly writing early (Kirkpatrick, 2016). Jalongo et al. (2014) describe the benefit of having two writing courses, one covering basic skills needed to review literature and write and a second course on more advanced writing and the publication process.

Revision Process

Learning how to revise is a set of skills students need to begin developing as early as possible. A useful approach is to have a major focus on the revision process in an early writing course with particular attention to revising scholarly work within one's discipline. Not only will this allow students to get a jump start on improving their writing, but they will develop a comfort level with receiving feedback and processing revisions early as well. Students do need to take ownership of their own revisions, but they need explicit instruction into how to effectively and efficiently process revisions. Just like scholarly writing in general, most faculty are not given direct instruction on processing revisions as part of their own graduate programs of study. Consequently, providing instruction on the revision process to novice writers is not intuitive. Faculty need to self-reflect about their own revision processes, become familiar with the relevant literature, and collaborate with other faculty to improve pedagogical practices regarding the revision process.

Program Interventions

Graduate programs should supplement the curriculum with discipline-specific workshops and training focused on scholarly writing.

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Strategy Description

In addition to making writing instruction part of the curriculum, there should also be interventions outside of coursework. A university-wide writing center has its advantages, but when a program provides its own interventions (e.g., workshops and trainings), faculty are able to tailor the writing intervention to the discipline (Habibie, 2016). These interventions can cover writing course papers or the dissertation and address improving specific facets of writing or the writing process overall. Murray (2010) describes having a structured writing retreat that incorporates several strategies for improving scholarly writing (e.g., working with peers, improving scholarly identity, learning to self-regulate writing).

Program interventions can also focus on the publication process. Kamler (2008) describes procedures at her institution for a publishing mentoring program. Mentors work with students to transform the dissertation into publications and students learn about the publishing process as a result. Lee and Kamler (2008) describe the benefits of working with students to develop their own research agendas. This can facilitate narrowing the dissertation topic and identifying future avenues for research after graduation. Also, students can identify possible manuscripts to submit for publication as precursors to their dissertation studies. Some programs structure the culminating project for the program as a thesis or dissertation that is broken down into future publications where the dissertation is written as a series of publications (Geurin, 2016). Bowen (2010) describes sharing with students the lessons learned about publishing the dissertation and the publishing process in general.

Revision Process

Program interventions can be focused on the revision process. Students can bring a sample of work and get hands-on practice making revisions. Alternatively, students could submit a proposal to a conference or a paper to a journal and the intervention focus on making the indicated revisions following the peer review. These interventions are the perfect venues to provide students with instruction on the revision process that is consistent across the program. Many strategies for educating students about revisions could be incorporated into one intervention.

Individualized Interventions

Graduate programs should identify students' areas of weakness in their writing and provide individualized interventions to address cognitive and affective variables (e.g., self-regulated learning, writing approaches, scholarly identity) related to scholarly writing.

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Strategy Description

In addition to providing program interventions on scholarly writing within the discipline, interventions can be provided that focus on internal aspects of writing within the individual. Jalongo et al. (2014) describe the writing process as being made up of a constellation of abilities within the writing process. Some interventions can be focused on strengthening students' scholarly identities. When students better understand that their own perceptions and thoughts about writing are normal, imposter syndrome for students can be reduced. Professors can share their research agendas with students and describe how they have overcome their own struggles (Kirkpatrick, 2016). Peers sharing experiences with each other can positively impact scholarly identity as well. Students learning more about the writing and publishing processes and getting practice with both will strengthen their scholarly identities.

Students need to understand themselves as writers. Lavelle and Bushrow (2007) developed a framework of writing approaches that encompass writing styles, beliefs, and strategies that they measured using an instrument, *The Inventory of Processes in Graduate Writing*. In an intervention, students could identify their writing styles, reflect on their styles, and receive interventions targeted to their styles. The writing approaches in Lavelle and Bushrow's (2007) framework and specific interventions for each include:

- **Intuitive**: Students just know how to write by visualizing or sensing how to write and would benefit from seeing models or exemplars of scholarly writing.
- **Elaborative:** Students write to share ideas and values self-expression and would benefit from learning about the use of voice and gearing writing to audiences.
- **Self-Efficacy:** Students writing is highly driven by their levels of confidence and would benefit from writing tasks with clear guidance and expectations, meaningful feedback, writing with peers, and setting goals.
- **Avoiding Revision:** Students do not revise their work, and this is not usually because they do not value revisions. Usually students fail to revise because of a lack of time allotted for revision before deadlines or they do not have a good understanding of the revision process. These students would benefit from interventions focused on time management and the revision process.
- **Scientist:** Students have a logical, structured approach to writing and would benefit from exploring ways to be more flexible and creative.
- **Task-Oriented:** Students focus on the end product and look for the most efficient way to just get the work done. They would benefit from interventions

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that promote the value of writing for self-expression such as journaling and free writing.

- **Sculptor:** Students just write whatever comes to mind without a pre-planned structure and become overwhelmed with a large rough draft that needs major revision. They would benefit from interventions focused on outlining and the revision process.

Students with opposite writing styles (e.g., task-oriented and self-expression) could share their strengths with one another as part of an intervention.

Graduate students have busy lives and need to learn to manage their time to be productive with their writing. Jalongo et al. (2014) describe students needing to develop a mindset of writing. An important part of this mindset is learning to value the writing process as not just a necessity to complete the program but appreciating the writing experience and seeing the benefit of sharing their research and ideas to make an impact. When students gain confidence in their writing, they are more motivated to pursue it. Students need to recognize that it is important to write, to get involved in collaborative writing endeavors, to invest in mentoring relationships, participate, and to embrace writing (Habibie, 2016). Learning time management strategies that students can customize to their own writing styles is also beneficial.

Revision Process

Self-regulated learning with regard to writing is primarily about revising writing. Learning to control one's writing is based on self-assessing or interpreting feedback and having procedures to follow to control the revision process. Providing interventions geared toward students' individual writing approaches was previously discussed. The revision process would be a part of these interventions, and each writing approach should be considered with regard to the revision process. In a similar type of intervention, student preferences for feedback (Singh, 2016) could be measured and this information can be used to consider how these feedback preferences impact the individual revision process.

Peer Interventions

Graduate students benefit from participating in peer activities to improve writing (e.g., peer review, peer writing groups) and having opportunities to discuss perceptions about writing in a safe way with their peers.

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Strategy Description

Peer interventions include giving and receiving feedback from peers, participating in peer writing groups, and collaborating with peers to edit work. As a result of peer interventions, learning about scholarly writing, self-efficacy about writing, and scholarly identity are all improved. When students work with their peers, they learn about scholarly writing from one another and get less-intimidating feedback (Jalongo et al., 2014; Kirkpatrick, 2016; Mangelsdorf & Ruecker, 2018; Stoilescu & McDougall, 2010). Students need to be trained before reviewing the work of their peers not only to be more effective but also to provide constructive criticism in a professional and sensitive manner (Mangelsdorf & Ruecker, 2018). Reviewing the work of peers has a reciprocal benefit in that assessing another's work improves one's ability to self-assess (Jalongo et al., 2014). Peer review can be incorporated within courses. Peers should intentionally paired or grouped and have manageable amount of peer work to review (Nolan & Rocco, 2009). Landry, Jacobs and Newton (2015) found students had positive perceptions of peer reviewing and student writing improved as a result. Further, the overall assessment from the peer reviews was similar to the feedback provided by the course instructor although there were some inconsistencies among the individual peer reviews which is why training is necessary.

In peer writing groups, students can discuss how to be successful scholars by discussing writing issues and solutions (Mangelsdorf & Ruecker, 2018; Paré, 2011). Peer writing groups are safe places for students to express their feelings and concerns. Students feel nurtured and supported, find out their emotions are normal, and feel free to express feelings and concerns with people they trust (Cameron et al., 2009). Peer writing groups are most impactful when they are facilitated by a more experienced writer (e.g., faculty) (Aitchison & Lee, 2006; Lee & Kamler, 2008). The facilitator will help the group sessions stay structured and focused on goals, all under the supervision of someone knowledgeable about the discipline. Peer writing groups can be venues for implementing other strategies that improve student writing (Paré, 2011).

Revision Process

When students participate in peer interventions, the revision process is emphasized. Students can improve their own revision processes by learning from others and discussing their concerns in a comfortable environment. Participating in peer review where feedback is given to peers improves students' abilities to make revisions based on peer feedback received. Also, when students have higher levels of confidence in their writing, they become motivated to defend their writing, especially with peers, and this leads to stronger scholarly identity (Can & Walker, 2011). The instructional

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aspect of peer review should be two-fold: students learn about assessing scholarly writing and then should learn about effectively and efficiently revising scholarly writing.

Reviewing Others' Writing

Graduate students should be encouraged to conduct peer reviews for conferences or journals (officially or unofficially) while being guided on how to appropriately participate in this aspect of scholarship.

Strategy Description

Students should be encouraged to participate in external peer review opportunities such as reviewing for conferences and journals or at least unofficially have the experience (Habibie, 2016). Schultz, Agrimonti, and Higbee (2016) describe having students conduct journal manuscript reviews as a course assignment. They found this real-world assignment increased student writing self-efficacy by increasing familiarity with peer review processes and empowering students as they learn the value of providing service to the profession. Reviewing other's writing exposes students to the language of the discourse community (Badenhorst & Xu, 2016). They are able to learn about trends and latest research in their areas of study (Stoilescu & McDougall, 2010).

Revision Process

When students participate in professional peer review opportunities, they should discuss their strengths and weaknesses as reviewers. This self-awareness can facilitate development as scholarly writers and improve their revision procedures. A greater benefit could be experienced from participating in the editorial aspect of the review process. Students could see how reviewers have different perspectives and how an editor negotiates these varying ideas.

Feedback

Faculty should regularly provide graduate students with quality feedback that is critical but delivered in a supportive way.

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Strategy Description

Carter & Kumar (2017) define feedback as having two components, "a judgmental component and a suggestion component that directs the writer towards desired literacy goals" and state that *feedforward* "…directs the author forward to the next level of development" (p. 69). Aitchison et al. (2012) found that receiving feedback is the main way students learn to write. In addition, feedback impacts formation of scholarly identity (Inouye & McAlpine, 2019). For these reasons, it is crucial that students receive quality feedback regularly. O'Brien et al. (2016) defined quality feedback as, "explicit, evaluative language that informs students of the degree to which they meet expected standards, identifies problems in the written text, and suggests measures students can take to meet performance standards" (p. 12). Rubrics can emphasize the evaluative aspect of feedback, but edits and narrative feedback are needed for students to learn from the feedback and improve their writing.

Given the importance of quality feedback, why is it not readily provided? Giving feedback is time-intensive and tedious. Those responsible for doing so often have other demands in academia. As a result, students write with minimal evaluative guidance. Those who can improve writing on their own advance further while those who cannot struggle and often pay for editorial services without learning for themselves. Oftentimes when faculty supervisors or instructors work with struggling writers, they often give edits that are too detailed and students do not learn how to improve their writing (Aitchison et al., 2012).

Feedback needs to be critical to be meaningful but should be given in a supportive way (Kamler, 2008). Receiving feedback evokes an emotional response, especially for novice writers. Faculty should consider how the feedback comes across to students and what students' emotional responses would be. It is important for faculty to make personal connections with students and show that they care (Kirkpatrick, 2016). Mulliner and Tucker (2017) found that students' perceptions of feedback may not match what instructors perceive. This is why it is useful to obtain data on students' perceptions of feedback Singh (2016). Further, varying quality and perceptions of feedback lead to the benefit of receiving feedback from multiple sources (O'Brien et al., 2016).

Revision Process

When students receive quality feedback, it provides students with a model for their own self-assessment of their writing. O'Brien et al. (2016) provide a framework to use to scaffold a writing process with feedback and revision. This could be a way to make the feedback process more manageable for faculty and for students. Further, working through the feedback loop multiple times gives students a great deal of

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practice interpreting feedback and making decisions about acting on feedback (Murray, 2010). Students have several opportunities to check their interpretations of the feedback received and this increases their confidence in themselves as scholarly writers (Murray, 2010; O'Brien et al., 2016). Students need to do a great deal of revisions for a project to see the benefit of the feedback loop in improving writing. In addition, they are able to refine their revision process and self-assessment skills (O'Brien et al., 2016). Identifying students' feedback preferences can give students feedback that they will be able to more readily address in a revision process (Habibie, 2016). Can and Walker (2011, 2014) have a questionnaire that can be used to determine students feedback preferences and that reports preferences by three categories (function, focus, presentation).

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This last section of the chapter contains overall conclusions and recommendations for practice. This chapter began with an introduction and background information on disciplinary writing and scholarly identity. The three stages of the revision process are obtaining feedback, organizing an approach for revising, and completing the revisions. This process can be used to effectively and efficiently process feedback and edits, and it is important that writers consider this process and develop a discipline- and context-specific approach to revising writing. Finally, research-based strategies for providing scholarly writing instruction to graduate students were described overall and then specifically with regard to improving students' revision processes.

Two important conclusions can be derived from the information in this chapter. First, having an organized revision process is crucial for development as a scholarly writer. Further, a revision process is personal and should not only be customized to the discipline and context but also to an individual. Also, the revision process should be revisited and updated regularly as scholarly writing improves. A second conclusion is that graduate programs should examine their current practices for teaching scholarly writing and discuss how to make improvements. Faculty should consider research-based practices and make program improvements that better facilitate the development of scholarly writers with customized and fluid revision processes. This should be a primary focus of program instructional outcomes, in addition to program content and research methods.

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FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Future research is needed on how experienced and novice researchers can co-construct pedagogy on improving scholarly writing (Kamler & Thomson, 2008). When emerging scholars through discussion, reflection, and practice fully understand the role of scholarly writing in expanding disciplinary knowledge, their scholarship will improve and their impacts on the discipline will be more profound (Paré, 2011). The disciplinary culture becomes nourished and the field advanced when there is an influx of emerging scholars with positive scholarly identities who are well-situated within the field (Starke-Meyerring, 2011). Research is needed to examine how feedback and revision impact writing, critical thinking, and identity development (Inouye & McAlpine, 2019) within disciplines and contexts. Critical thinking skills are the means by which research results are translated into policy and practice implications (O'Brien et al., 2016). To have maximum impact of research on practice, the interactions should be understood between the way scholars think and conceive of research and how they disseminate information in academia and in practice.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Disciplinary Writing: Scholarly writing with knowledge and content, research practices, and writing conventions that are unique to that discipline.

Discourse Communities: The community of researchers, audiences and users of research, or practitioners within a discipline (Habibie, 2016).

Feedback Loop: A cycle of receiving and interpreting feedback, followed by making revisions, and resubmitting for further feedback (Murray, 2010).

Feedforward: Information that one uses to make improvements in scholarly writing going forward (Carter & Kumar, 2017).

Imposter Syndrome: Having doubts about one's ability to be a scholarly writer and instead one thinks they are masquerading as a scholarly writer and will be discovered (Noonan, 2015; Paltridge & Woodrow, 2012).

Revision Process: A method for improving scholarly writing that includes obtaining feedback, taking an organized approach to address feedback, and following steps for making revisions.

Scholarly Identity: One's identity as a scholarly writer, often synonymous with academic and research identity (Noonan, 2015).

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Chapter 6
The Impact of Knowledge of English Rhetorical Patterns of Organisation on BA Accounting and Finance Students' Writing Academic Genres

Malika Kouti
Kasdi Merbah University, Algeria

ABSTRACT

This chapter discusses the impact of knowing the English rhetorical pattern of organisation on BA Accounting and Finance students' academic writing. More specifically, it focuses on the knowledge of how to structure a letter of application for job hunting purposes. This case study involved the analysis of 40 letters of application written by 40 Accounting and Finance students in the Department of Accounting and Finance at the University of Ghardaïa, Algeria after they had been trained to structure this type of letter. The training lasted for two sessions in the Department of Accounting and Finance at Ghardaia University, Algeria. The training was a direct instruction in which students were shown activities that assisted them in mastering the rhetorical pattern of organisation that concerns letters of application. They were also shown the difference between formal and informal letters of application. The obtained results demonstrated the efficiency of the direct instruction in teaching Accounting and Finance students how to write a letter of application.

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INTRODUCTION

Teaching academic writing has been a challenge for many practitioners, mainly in ESP (English for Specific Purposes) contexts as it is related and due to a lack of consideration of its importance by both institutions and graduate and post-graduate students. Specificity of the discipline requires specific courses (Basturkmen, 2010) that consider the type of the discipline, the learners, the content, and the objective behind the course. In an Accounting and Finance department as the one in Ghardaia University, it has been noticed that there is no clear objective for teaching English for either graduate or post-graduate students, and this lack has made teachers rely on themselves to provide courses based on mainly teaching specialised vocabulary while neglecting the reading and writing skills. Concerning the latters which are interrelated (Grabe, 2003, 2006, 2009; Grabe and Stoller, 2001), there should be a focus on developing them as they are needed for many objectives which range from writing business letters, memos, e-mails, reports up to dissertations. Grabe (2003) claims that "reading and writing might reinforce or accelerate the learning content, the development of literacy skills, and the acquisition of language abilities" (p. 242). Nonetheless, students should have linguistic knowledge, English in this case (Alderson, 2000). Swales and Feak (2004) maintain that "Graduate students face a variety of writing tasks as they work toward their chosen degrees." (p. 7). Letters of application are required for job hunting, and are not taken into consideration by the majority of teachers in business studies, mainly in Accounting and Finance content area, which implies teaching how they are structured through a specific framework.

BACKGROUND

Origins of Research on Rhetorical Patterns of Organization

Connor (1998) argues that contrastive analysis is an area of research in second language acquisition that aims to identify any problems in writing experienced by second language writers. In fact, it is regarded as a pedagogical solution to the problems of Second Language (L2) rhetorical patterns of organization, suggested by Robert Kaplan (Kaplan, 2005; Matsuda, 1997) in his an article entitled 'Cultural Thought Patterns in Inter-Cultural Education' published in 1966. The article argued that English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers should be aware of the rhetorical patterns of organisation that second language students use and that are not familiar with, especially in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) settings. Kaplan suggested a theoretical framework that is affected by the Whorfian hypothesis and that argues that language influences thought. This field of inquiry impacted many researchers

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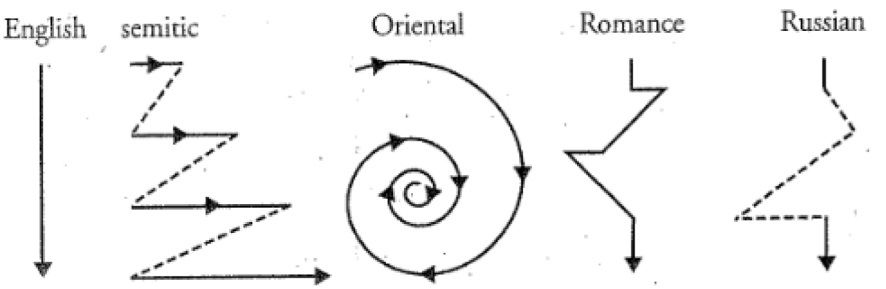
who published a number of works (e.g. Connor, 1996; Connor & Kaplan, 1987; Kaplan, 1972, 1983; Martin, 1992; Purves, 1988). Contrastive rhetoric showed an advancement in research in 1980s (e.g. Enkvist, 1987; Leki, 1991) because of the increased research on discourse analysis and text linguistics. This body of research, according to Connor (ibid), Martin (1992) and Ostler (1996), resulted in the study of rhetorical patterns of organisation for both first language (L1) and L2 written discourse. According to Connor (2002),

Contrastive rhetoric examines differences and similarities in ESL and EFL writing across languages and cultures as well as across such different contexts as education and commerce. Hence, it considers texts not merely as static products but as functional parts of dynamic cultural contexts. Although largely restricted throughout much of its first 30 years to a fairly rigid form, student essay writing, the field today contributes to knowledge about preferred patterns of writing in many English for specific purposes situations. Undeniably, it has had an appreciable impact on the understanding of cultural differences in writing, and it has had, and will continue to have, an effect on the teaching of ESL and EFL writing. (Connor 2002, p. 493)

Kaplan, after having analysed the organisation of ESL student essays, identified five types of paragraph development which reflected different rhetorical tendencies. This finding allowed him to provide a diagram (See Figure 1 below) that includes cultural rhetorical structures such as Romance, Oriental, Semitic, Russian, and English. Kaplan claimed that English rhetorical patterns of organisation were represented as linear due to the fact that English texts begin with topic sentences followed by supporting sentences anddetails. For example, he found out that Romance and Russian rhetorical patterns include digressions while Oriental languages are indirect in their approach.

Figure 1. Kaplan's (1966) diagram of cross-cultural differences in paragraph organisation (in Hudson, 2007)



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Kaplan's work has been regarded as a pedagogical solution to the L2 students' rhetorical patterns of organisation problem. This work has been labelled "the paragraph-pattern approach". It is based on teaching the English features of a piece of writing (ibid). According to Raimes (1983), the students in this approach:

copy paragraphs, analyze the form of model paragraphs, and imitate model passages. They put scrambled sentences into paragraph order, they identify general and specific statements, they choose or invent an appropriate topic sentence, they insert or delete sentences. (As cited in Matsuda, ibid, p. 46)

Contrastive rhetoric is a tool for studying second language writing (Kachru, 1995), and considered as a cultural phenomenon. In other words, different cultures develop different rhetorical patterns of organisation that may interfere in second language writing and reading (ibid).

A number of researchers criticised Kaplan's model. Although contrastive rhetoric has been useful in accounting for cultural differences in students' essay writing in EAP settings (Kachru, 1999), it is considered as simplistic (ibid). Three papers criticised contrastive rhetoric (Scollon, 1997; Spack, 1997; Zamel, 1997), in two issues of TESOL Quarterly (1997), for not taking into consideration cultural differences. Kubota (1999, 2001) criticised Kaplan's favour of English rhetorical patterns of organisation. It has been claimed that writing in English on the part of second language learners does not necessarily mean using the English rhetorical patterns of organisation. Besides, it is not possible that only one rhetorical structure, the English one, represents all writing in any culture or language. Therefore, Kaplan revised his claim asserting that languages include various rhetorical patterns of organisation.

Rhetorical patterns of organisation or text structures (as labelled by other researchers such as Meyer and her colleagues) which are connected to contrastive rhetoric research are beneficial to students in both reading and writing skills. Rhetorical patterns of organisation are "*the frameworks that writers employ to convey information in an organized coherent way*" (Jiang, 2012, p. 84). Nuttall (1996) argues that rhetorical patterns of organisation are important in the reading process, for they assist students in applying the same patterns in writing, i.e. using similar rhetorical patterns of organisation in writing different academic genres. This has been clearly stated by Grabe and Stoller (2001) when they claim that integrating EAP (English for Academic Purposes) reading and writing can result in "*summary writing, report writing, and outlining*" (p. 200). Rhetorical patterns can be taught through direct instruction. According to Meyer and Ray (2011), the structure strategy

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enables them to a) follow the logical structure of text to understand how an author organized and emphasized ideas; b) use processes parallel to these structures to increase their own learning and thinking (e.g., comparing, finding causal relationships, looking for solutions to block causes of problems); and c) use these text structures to organize their own writing, such as written summaries, recalls, and essays. (p. 128)

Rhetorical Patterns in Accounting and Finance Content Area

Rhetorical patterns of organisation convey specific purposes that are signalled by certain transitional words and expressions. Some of the most widely used rhetorical patterns in Accounting and Finance content area are: definition, description, and compare and contrast. They are exemplified below, highlighting their purposes, and the related transition words and expressions used in them.

Definition

This rhetorical pattern aims to explain a concept and provides examples of it. This concept is generally defined by using verbs such as to "be" in the present simple (is/are), to "mean", "is /are defined", and so on. The following is an illustration of this pattern:

- *Investment* means using money to buy something (an asset) with the aim of making a profit by selling that asset at a higher price some time in the future. There are many different types of investments. Some people put their money in art, stamps, or collectibles. Other people invest in shares and become part owners of a company (Richey, 2011, p. 36).

The first sentence defines the term "investment". The second sentence shows that there are types of "investment". The third and fourth sentences provide examples of "investment".

Description

The rhetorical pattern of description is used for describing something and telling its characteristics. The author uses some descriptive adjectives which assist the reader visualise the topic under study. An example is provided below:

- UBCS International is a leading international bank. We provide an excellent range of products and services, including current accounts, savings accounts,

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> mortgages, insurance, loans, foreign exchange services and investment advice. We have 2,000 employees in our head office in Frankfurt and 38,000 in our 320 branches in Europe, the Middle East and Asia. (Richey, 2011, p. 13)

The rhetorical pattern of organisation of the piece of writing above is the descriptive one. The first sentence tells the reader what "UBCS International" is. The remaining sentences describe UBCS: the services it provides and the number of employees and branches it has.

Comparison and Contrast

This rhetorical pattern of organisation is used for comparing and/or contrasting between two companies, organisations, things, and so on. Common transitional words and expressions used in this rhetorical pattern of organisation are: like, unlike, similar, in comparison, in contrast, despite, although, on the other hand, look like, and so on.

- Compared to the national central banks, the ECB will be relatively small. While the bank of France and the Bundesbank each employ more than 10,000 staff, the ECB will have to do with only 500 employees. The comparison is not entirely fair because the ECB's staff will be primarily engaged in research, security and payments systems, while most of the staff at NCBs are involved in areas such as logistics and administration (Johnson, 2000, p. 29).

The above paragraph is a comparison between the ECB and the national central banks, highlighting the differences between them. There are other transition words and expressions that can be used in this rhetorical pattern of organisation such as "compared to", "while", and "the comparison".

The above three paragraphs are examples of the English patterns of organisation used in Accounting and Finance content area, mainly in some Algerian universities such as the University of Ghardaia. Since Algerian students are considered as foreign language learners of English, they should be introduced to simplified texts, though these texts may lose some meaning as they are written for language teaching purposes (Davies, 1995; Dudley - Evans & St John, 1998; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Kennedy & Bolitho, 1984; Nuttall, 1996; Silberstein, 1994; Wallace, 1992), since the majority of those students are quite good at English.

Recently, the focus has not become only on studying or summarising texts, but also on teaching students other genres such as letters of application, and asking them to produce similar patterns.

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Knowledge of the Rhetorical Pattern of a Letter of Application

Students of accounting and finance at Ghardaia University are required to master how to write texts in different genres in their discipline. Besides the genres mentioned above, there are letters of application. To this end, they need to have a course that focuses on this genre of writing. Writing this type of letters does not take too much time, especially when students have a good mastery of the English language. According to Frendo (ibid), a genre like letters can be divided into sub-genres such as letters of confirmation, persuasion, and cover letters or letters of application. These types of letters are welcomed by teachers since they give both teachers and students "something concrete to aim for" (p. 82). Raimes (1983) insists on teaching letter writing as it allows the dealing with a wide range of forms and functions which are part of the mastery of language.

The Structure of Writing

Writing is very important in business studies and used in a variety of situations. Written communication requires some planning and organisational skills and skills in linking sentences together, others in spelling and punctuation, word choice and order, and so on (Frendo, 2005). A possible theory of teaching writing is the text or genre approach, as this approach permits learners to study model texts and base their own writing on what they have seen in texts. Besides, according to Hyland (1996), in this approach, writing is regarded as communication with readers.

Genre has been defined as a type of discourse. John Swales (1990) defines "genre" in his book, Genre Analysis, as it "*comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes*" (p. 58). Martin (1984) defines a genre as "*a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers [or writers] engage as members of our culture*." (As cited in Davies, 1995, p. 91). Genres can be written (Swales & Feak, 2004). The above definitions stress the importance of purpose. Consequently, different genres are characterised by different functions which require different patterns of organisation.

Two building blocks should be taken into consideration in writing compositions: cohesion and coherence. The former is about the way sentences combine to form a unified text whereas the latter ensures the logical sequence of a text (Nunan, 1993). Any piece of writing should be within a specific context which takes into consideration the intended message of the author and the audience. Students in business studies in general and accounting and finance in particular are also asked and shown how to write letters of application as they will need it for future goals.

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The Context of Writing

Any type of correspondence in business English should take into consideration the context. In a written correspondence, according to Frendo (2005), a context includes the audience, the purpose, and the response.

Audience

The readers of any piece of writing may be customers, managers, or laypersons. They may be from a completely different cultural context which means differences in the writing organisation. To explain more, in English, for example, a paragraph starts with a topic sentence, which is not the case in Asian contexts as a paragraph starts with details that lead to a paragraph. The audience may, also, come from a different professional context ; that is, when the audience is known, a specific style will be selected: formal or informal. A job applicant will write a letter in a formal way rather than an informal one.

Purpose

The purpose of writing a letter is important and should be very clear. Acceptability is not judged by accuracy, but by whether the piece of writing can be used or not, and depending on the type of audience. There are some addressees who are tolerant with mistakes whereas there are others who are not. All in all, formal language should be used in letter writing.

Response

Writers wish to have an appropriate response to their letters. That is why they have to consider the following questions:

- What is the relationship between me and my reader?
- What are the main issues at stake?
- Is there enough information?

Letters of Application

Among many writing genres in correspondence are letters of application. Letters are different from reports and contracts in that they require a written reply. There are specialist books, such as *Market Leader* (2012), which incorporate such types of correspondence besides other ones like emails, memos, and so on. Students need to

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work on setting the right tone in a letter. This can be achieved through consciousness-raising activities where they have the opportunity to detect specific expressions and aspects of language use in authentic materials.

According to Chappell (2006), letters of application are of three types, one of them is a "reply to a job advertisement, usually a letter with a copy of your CV attached, or increasingly these days, an online application" (p. 40). Some example activities include, for example:

- Ask learners to describe the function(s) of each paragraph, and identify the key words and phrases. Finish off with a class discussion.
- Remove key words/phrases from the letter. Ask learners to complete it (an alternative is to add extra words/phrases, and ask learners to delete them).
- Ask learners (having read the letter) to work in pairs and re-create the letter (without access to the original). Compare the result with the original.
- Ask learners to write possible replies.

However, there are other activities to writing a formal letter such as providing students with an informal letter, and asking them to consider all its parts and expressions while discussing any possible modifications. Of course, students will be introduced to a number of important expressions widely used in writing letter. After that, students will be asked to write a similar letter of their own (Raimes, 1983), and corrected by both their peers and teachers.

The Structure of a Letter of Application

A letter of application should follow the guidelines of all types of letters. It should have, according to Chappell (2006) and Downes (2008), an introduction, a body, and a conclusion besides contact information of the applicant, the address, and so on. A letter of application includes the contact information of the applicant which is put on the right side of the paper. It includes the name of the applicant, the current home address, the phone number, and the e-mail besides the date, all in a block style. The recipient and his/her address are put on the left side of the paper.

In the first paragraph, the applicant should give details on the position they are applying for and where they have heard or read about it (in a newspaper, on the radio…). For example, "I am writing in response to your advertisement for the position of …" or "With reference to your advertisement in …" or "I would like to apply for the position of …" In the body, the applicant is going to tell and explain why he is the right person to get the position. At this level, s/he is going to mention the different skills and experiences s/he has got by providing evidence. For example, "I am currently working as a Press Officer for the Swedish Ministry of Industry.

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This experience has enabled me to gain a broad understanding of the media and public relations…" (Downes, 2008, p. 39). In the final paragraph, the applicant should leave a good impression in finishing the letter. For example, "I look forward to hearing from you" (Rogers, 2012).

Methodology

Given the information above, this study attempts to investigate the impact of knowledge of rhetorical patterns of organisation on BA Accounting and Finance students' academic writing genres- letters of application, more specifically. The main research question in this study is the following: "Does direct training on using the rhetorical pattern of organisation of writing a letter of application have an effect on the students'writing ?"

This question can be broken into the following sub-questions:

1. Do students use the correct rhetorical pattern of organisation of a letter of application (introduction, body and conclusion)?
2. Do they include contact information, address of the recipient… in their letters ?
3. Do they express the purpose of writing it clearly?
4. Do they use formal language?
5. Do they mention their qualifications and skills clearly?
6. Do they close a letter appropriately?

To this end, a number of students were asked to write a letter of application after had been shown and trained in how to do it in class by their teacher.

The Participants

The participants in this study are forty Third year BA Accounting and Finance students at Ghardaia University in the academic year 2016/2017. A convenience sampling technique has been selected. The Third year students are pursuing a three-year Bachelor (Licence) degree in Accounting and Finance in the Faculty of Economics, Management and Commerce at the University of Ghardaia. They study English a one-hour and a half session per week.

Data Analysis Procedure

The data are analysed with Excel programme. The analysis is done both quantitatively and qualitatively.

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Training Sessions

As mentioned earlier, the adopted methodology for this study is direct instruction. The researcher teaching in the department of Accounting and Finance could have an idea about the students' difficulties in studying the English module. For this reason, the direct instruction lasted for two sessions, and the third one was devoted to the students' testing.

Session One

The teacher introduces an informal letter of application extracted from *Market Leader: Business English Practice File* (Rogers, 2012, p. 7), and asks her students about its genre. After identifying the genre, she gives them the opportunity to read it silently, then loudly. Next, the teacher discusses with them the context surrounding the letter (See Appendix A): who is the sender and the addressee, and the purpose of writing it besides the informality of the expressions used in it. After that, they move to reading the letter bit by bit, beginning by the first sentence which represents the purpose of writing the letter while discussing the formality/informality of the sentence as it is addressed to a company. At this level, the teacher should draw the students' attention to the fact that the purpose should be written in a separate paragraph, the first one. The body, as we have seen earlier, includes the qualifications, skills and experiences of the applicant, and should be written in formal language with appropriate expressions (See Appendix B). Finally, a conclusion should be written, including any requirements for additional information about the applicants or expressing a wish to receiving a reply, and so on. The students are reminded that they should close the letter with an expression such as "Yours faithfully" (See Appendix B) and not to forget to write the name. The correction of the informal letter will be on the board (See Appendix C), and later taken down by the students. Finally, the students are asked to compare the two forms of the letter.

Session Two

Next session, the teacher recycles with the students the components of a letter of application and its rhetorical pattern of organisation. Then, students are reminded with the different formal expressions. At this stage, students are invited to imagine an advertised job within ten minutes. Next, students are required to write a plan for the letter of application, either individually or in pairs. Later, students are asked to write a letter of application. The teacher moves round the rows, sees how the students are doing that, and asks for any kind of assistance. Finally, some students

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are given the opportunity to read their letters out loud while the teacher and their colleagues provide them with feedback.

Session Three

In the last session, the students are invited to write a letter of application within one hour, given time to plan their work. After that allotted time, the teacher collects the papers to be evaluated.

RESULTS

The collected data are analysed in terms of to what extent students managed to write the letter of application following the intended pattern of organisation; that is to say, by considering the structure of the letter. This research is based on a quasi-experimental design. The statistical analysis is restricted to calculating the percentages, and presenting them in tables and graphs. The following are detailed findings in relation to the stated questions.

1. Do students use the correct rhetorical pattern of organisation of a letter of application?

The extent to which students comply with the correct structure of a letter of application is described in Table 1.

All the students (100%) used the correct structure of the letter of application as mentioned earlier; however, only ten of them used the correct rhetorical pattern of organisation (three paragraphs: introduction, body and conclusion), whereas 24 of them used one paragraph, and six wrote it in two paragraphs. Three students combined paragraph one two, and the other 3 ones combined paragraphs two and three.

Table 1. The use of correct letter structure

	Frequency	Percentage
Students used the correct rhetorical pattern of organisation (3 paragraphs).	10	25
Students wrote the whole letter in one (1) paragraph.	24	60
Students wrote the letter of application in two paragraphs	06	15
Total	40	100

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Table 2. The inclusion of contact information, address of the recipient …in the letter of application

	Frequency	Percentage
Students closed their letters of application appropriately whereas	30	75
Those who did not	10	25
Total	40	100

2. Do they include contact information, address of the recipient and other parts in the letter?

The extent to which the students include contact information, address of the recipient and other parts in the letter is shown in Table 2.

From Table 2 above, we notice that the majority of the students (75%) included contact information, address of the recipient, their addresses, and so on in the letter application.

3. Do they express the purpose of writing the letter clearly?

Whether the students express the purpose of writing the letter clearly is described in Table 3.

From Table 3 above, 40 students (100%) expressed their purpose of writing the letter of application clearly.

4. Do they use formal language?

The extent to which the students used formal language in their letters of application is described in Table 4.

Table 3. Expressing the purpose of writing the letter clearly

	Frequency	Percentage
students expressed their purpose of writing the letter of application clearly	40	100
Total	40	100

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Table 4. Using Formal Language

	Frequency	Percentage
students used formal language in the letter writing whereas	37	92
The students who used informal language	03	08
Total	40	100

Table 5. Mentioning their qualification and skills clearly

	Frequency	Percentage
Students mentioned their qualifications and skills clearly.	32	80
Those who did not	08	20
Total	40	100

According to Table 4 above, 37 students (92%) used formal language in writing the letter of application whereas 3 of them (8%) used informal language such as "I saw your ad. . ." (Results represented in Graph 4 below)

5. Do they mention qualifications and skills clearly**?**

In Table 5, the degree to which the students were able to sufficiently refer to their qualifications and skills in the letters of application is depicted.

From Table 5 above, 32 students (80%) mentioned their qualifications and skills clearly; however, 8 students (20%) did not.

6. Do they close a letter appropriately?

According to Table 6 above, 28 students (70%) closed their letters of application appropriately whereas 12 (30%) did not.

DISCUSSION

This study has shown that training sessions are effective in improving the students' writing skill, especially writing letters of application, gaining new types of vocabulary,

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Table 6. Closing a letter appropriately

	Frequency	Percentage
Students closed their letters of application appropriately	28	70
Students did not close their letters of application appropriately	12	30
Total	40	100

and discovering the specificity of the English rhetorical pattern of organisation, mainly the one of a letter of application. Knowing how a letter of application is structured facilitates the distribution of information in the letter, which makes the reader of the letter locate that information and read it easily.

That only 10 of the students used the exact letter's rhetorical pattern of organisation while the others either used one paragraph or two shows the need to additional sessions. Two sessions of training are not really sufficient although the results are promising. The results also mean that not all students grasp the new knowledge very quickly, due to individual differences.

The majority of students used the opening information (See Appendix B) which shows their mastery of this side without forgetting that they became aware of.

The majority of students used formal language (See Appendix B) mainly the expressions used in the training sessions. This reflects the extent to which students were involved in the training, and their awareness of distinguishing formal and informal letters.

All the students are aware of the fact that they write for a purpose (See Appendix A), and this has been reflected in their letter writing. They also learnt that the purpose should be expressed in the first paragraph. Besides, they have learnt to mention where they have read about the applied position (See Appendix A) in the first sentence of the first paragraph.

The students participating in this study have also learnt that they should talk about the different skills and qualifications (See Appendix B) that are appropriate to the position in the body of the letter. This has made them think better about matching their skills and qualifications to specific positions.

The students who closed their letters appropriately have become aware of the fact that politeness is crucial in any kind of relationship; that is why, they used a variety of closings (See Appendix B) such as "Yours faithfully", "Yours sincerely", and so on.

The findings have shown that students have been aware of how to write a letter of application due to the training in how to do it. This is going to assist them in writing letters of application using a variety of formal expressions, in the future.

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Despite the short period of the training, the study has yielded good results; in that, students have learnt how to structure and organise information, use appropriate and varied formal expressions, and open and close the letter clearly.

CONCLUSION

The present study has indicated that training students in how to write a letter of application is very effective, especially when it takes longer time, i.e. in more than two sessions. This study has also shown that students when taught in an organised way and with clear objectives gain knowledge efficiently and effectively since they are well oriented. Moreover, this study has made clear the fact that training is beneficial in academic settings such as Accounting and Finance. More importantly, it has shown that the students need to be motivated and given much importance and care, taking into consideration that English is a foreign language, and that students are encountering mainly linguistic deficiency. As it has been noticed, the focus was not on teaching grammar since students were provided with the most useful expressions, and their job was to complete them with the needed information. All in all, the direct instruction and the results are promising.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study and the obtained findings suggest five important points. First, the results yielded after a very short time of tuition indicate that this research may have better results if carried out in more sessions. Second, much research is required to further look for other teaching methods to handling this topic of writing a letter of application rather than the direct instruction. Third, more focus is required in the writing skill in ESP contexts in the University of Ghardaia, mainly in Accounting and Finance specialty. Fourth, the programme should be designed according to the students' needs after conducting needs analysis questionnaires, interviews and discussions with students, which is not the case in Accounting and Finance specialty at the University of Ghardaia. Finally, the role of the teacher should be under question and given much attention, for the teachers in that context are not ESP teachers. This means that general English teachers should be trained to teach in Business contexts. In sum, much research is required in this area of study, especially letter of application writing with foreign language learners as the case of Accounting and Finance students at the University of Ghardaia.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Accounting and Finance: A branch of study in the Economics studies.

ESP: "English for Specific Purposes" is a variety of English taught to students of different specialties in different academic settings such as business English, Medicine, etc, focusing on teaching them vocabulary and needed skills. It is based on students' needs.

Letter of Application: A letter written for job hunting purposes.

Rhetorical Patterns of Organisation: Plans used by authors for organising their writing.

Writing Academic Genres: Forms of writing taught to and practised by students in academic settings.

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APPENDIX

A

Hello
I saw your ad in our local paper last Monday, so I want to apply for the job of accountant. I know I am the person you're looking for. My family say I am suitable for the job. Tell me if you want to know more about me.
Best

B Formal Expressions

Opening:
Dear Sir/Madam,
I would like to apply for the position of… / With reference to your advertisement in… of… / I would like to apply for a job in … / I am writing in response to your advertisement for the position of …
Body:
I feel I am qualified for the position, for I … / I feel I have strengthened my knowledge of … / At present, I am responsible for …
Final Paragraph:
I would be happy to give you more details… / I look forward to hearing from you. / Please let me know any details you would require/ Please find enclosed a copy of my CV / I enclose a copy of my CV.
Yours faithfully / Yours sincerely

C

John Brown
15 House Road
Oxford
London
john.brown@gmail.com
18 October 2016
Diana Parker
Recruitement Manager
Johnsons Furniture Company
Shakespeare Square
London

Dear Ms Parker,

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With reference to your advertisement in Daily Mail of 14th October, I would like to apply for the position of accountant.
I feel I am well qualified for the position as I am a final-year student who is about to graduate from Oxford university with a BA in Accounting and Finance. I feel I have significantly strengthened my understanding of my field of study.
Please, let me know if there are any details you need.
I look forward to hearing from you.
Yours faithfully,
John Brown

D. Teaching Notes

Any teacher has the intention to see his/her students' improvement, mainly after spending some time in training them. Training itself is beneficial; nonetheless, it needs some considerable time in order to yield good results. The following are some notes to be taken into account in handling this kind of case studies.
It should be known that a case study implies that learners are required to be involved a number of tasks and activities using different skills.

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Box 1. Session One

Stage	Points of Focus/Activity Type	Description	Remarks
1 (10 mins)	Conducting a discussion	Asking SS questions about their studies: what they need to study, the different tasks they would like to do …	
2 (10 mins)	Reading an informal letter silently, then loudly after identifying its genre	SS read an informal letter as an introduction to the core of training session.	
3 (15 mins)	Discussing the informal letter: what it is, what it is about, …	SS give their impressions about the letter, and answer and ask questions about the letter.	
4 (15 mins)	Moving to making the difference between formality and informality of language, and focusing on the difference between formal and informal letters of application	SS discuss with their mates and teacher the difference between formal and informal expressions.	
5 (20 mins)	Moving to discussing the structure of the letter of application by discussing the different components and highlighting the main ones (introduction, body and conclusion) besides contact information of the applicant, and the address of the addressee which do not exist in the letter, and the closing expressions	SS discuss the structure of the letter through asking questions and being interested to what the teacher says and explains.	
6 (10 mins)	Rewriting the letter (formally) on the board, and asking SS to copy it down	SS write the letter down.	Choosing unreal names for the applicant and the recipient of the letter and companies
7 (10 mins)	Asking the SS to read the letter loudly, and them about their impressions about the letter before and after correction	SS do.	

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Box2. Session Two

Stage	Point of Focus /Activity Type	Description	Remarks
1 (10 mins)	Reviewing the previous letter of application and its components	SS (students) contribute to the recycling process.	
2 (10 mins)	Reminding SS with the different formal expressions for the different parts of a letter	SS take the expressions down.	
3 (10 mins)	Asking the students to imagine they have seen an advertisement of a job somewhere and want to apply for it.	SS do.	
4 (15 mins)	Inviting SS, either individually or in pairs, to make a plan for the letter of application: the sender, the recipient, the purpose of writing the letter accompanied by mentioning where they read the advertisement, their qualifications and skills, … while being assisted by the teacher	SS write the plan, assist each other, and ask their teacher for help when in need.	
5 (30 mins)	Requiring the SS to write the letter of application while helpting them when necessary	SS write the letter of application.	
6 (15 mins)	Listening to some SS reading their letters while providing them with feedback	Some SS read their letters of application.	

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Chapter 7
The Use of Metadiscourse Markers in Dissertations Produced by MATESOL Students

Lina Mohamed
University of Khartoum, Sudan

ABSTRACT

The use of metadiscourse markers is an important writing strategy employed both to structure the text and to engage the reader in the text production. In this connection, the purpose of this study is to assess the use of metadiscourse markers in term papers produced by MATESOL students at university of Khartoum. Forty papers were examined using Hyland's model of metadiscourse markers. Twenty papers were chosen from class 2016-2017, and the other 20 were selected from class 2017-2018. The data were analyzed in percentage terms. The results revealed that trained students use more metadiscourse markers than the untrained students. Additionally, it was found that female students used more metadiscourse markers than male. Also, it was found that all participants used more metadiscourse markers in the background section than in the statement of the problem section.

INTRODUCTION

The use of metadiscourse markers in students' dissertations has been studied extensively in the last decades (Hyland, 2004; Abdi, 2002; Blagojevic, 2004; Bunton, 1999; Atai et al 2008). Researchers investigated both differences and similarities in

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the use of metadiscourse markers in students' writing for the central role that they play in the construction of the text. For example, Hyland (2004) states that they are a valuable means of exploring academic writing, and comparing the rhetorical features and preferences of different discourse communities. Bunton (1999) informs that they are frequently used to make the text more cohesive and coherent.

Generally, definitions of metadiscourse varied from broad ones, such as "writing about writing" (Williams 1981, 211) or "discourse about discourse or communication about communication" (VandeKopple 1985, 83), to more specific ones, such as "writing about the evolving text rather than referring to the subject matter" (Swales 2004, 121). Metadiscourse markers are also known as an umbrella and fuzzy term which is easy to accept, though not easy to establish its boundaries (Swales, 1990; Nash, 1992). The term metadiscourse describes features of rhetorical organization by including only text elements which refer to the text itself (Bunton, 1999; Mauranen, 1993; Valero-Graces, 1989). As pragmatic constructs, metadiscourse features are "crucial rhetorical devices that allow the writer to acknowledge, accommodate and engage with the reader according to socially sanctioned norms." (Hyland, 1998:5). Where the Sudanese context is concerned, several studies have investigated the use of metadiscourse in research articles. For instance, Ali (2016) compared the use of metadiscourse in discussion section of research articles written by Sudanese and English native speakers. He concluded that there is dichotomy in the use of metadiscourse among disciplines. On the other hand, a study conducted by Mohamed (under process) about metadiscourse markers in academic articles, produced by native speakers, researchers of ESL and EFL background and male and female researchers. He found gender-based differences where female researchers used more metadiscourse markers than their male counterparts. A third study was Albaggari (2011). She compared the use of certainty markers in journals published by Khartoum University press in soft and hard science departments. The findings revealed no significant difference based on the discipline of the research. Finally, Sulaiman (2012) investigated the use of metadiscourse markers in university students' writing. The study revealed that the participants both misused, and overused metadiscourse markers, which negatively affected the quality of their writing.

The studies revealed above fall into two categories. First, most of them (Ali, 2016; Albaggari, 2011; Mohamed, under process) centred upon the use of metadiscourse by writing experts. They learned to write through the process of slow acculturation (Carter, 2007). As to second, Sulaiman (2012) studied the use of metadiscourse by EFL learners who were trained to write paragraphs and essays. Thus, the study aimed to decide if such training produces student writers who could produce text that engage their imagined audience.

Apparently, these studies did not tell about the role that explicit training plays in the use of metadiscourse markers in academic writing. Therefore, the purpose of this

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study is assessing the use of metadiscourse markers in texts produced by MATESOL candidates who were trained in their use. In this connection, the study attempts to achieve many objectives to assess the role of training in helping the students to write with a communicative intent; to measures the students awareness of their audience, and to determine the writing genres that attract most uses of metadiscourse. Also, there are three related questions that the study attempts to answer:

1. How does explicit training enhance the students' use of metadiscourse markers in writing?
2. How are metadiscourse markers distributed across different writing sections?
3. Does gender affect the frequency of use of metadiscourse markers?

BACKGROUND

This section discusses what has previously been studied in this area of investigation and outlines the theories which will be used as a basis for the study. It particularly discusses the topic under four themes beginning by defining the term metadiscourse as introduced by many scholars and how it is further developed. Additionally, it explains how considering the audience through the use of metadiscourse is an essential part of any academic peace. Moreover, it discusses how stance taking in academic genres is conveyed with the use of linguistic conventions of discipline, one of which metadiscourse. Finally, the chapter provides a section that announces the importance of training on use of metadiscourse.

Generally speaking, the available literature informs that metadiscourse is a concept used by writers to structure their text and engage readers in their interpretations of these same texts. While definitions of metadiscourse issue from this general meaning, researchers seem to focus on a number of aspects that constitute metadiscourse. For instance, (Hyland, 2005, p.37) defines metadiscourse as a "cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community". By contrast, classical definitions focus on limited scope of the concept of metadiscourse as evidenced by the review that metadiscourse is a "linguistic material which does not add propositional information but which signals the presence of an author" (Vande Kopple,1985); and "Writing about Writing, whatever does not refer to the subject matter being addressed" (Williams, 1981). A somewhat more detailed classical definition comes from (Crismore, 1983, p. 2), who conceive that metadiscourse referred is "the author's intrusion into the discourse, either explicitly on non-explicitly, to direct rather than inform, showing readers how to understand what is said and meant in the primary discourse and how to 'take' the

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author". Although this definition considers the place of the readers in the text it does not approaches them as participants in the construction of the text as Hyland does. On the other hand, Williams' definition does not directly refer to the audience. In other words, it focuses on levels of information presentation in the text. That is, he suggests that writing usually have to be on two levels: supplies information about the subject of the text and the expansion of the propositional content.

Researchers list many linguistic resources to establish metadiscourse in the manner presented in Hyland (2005) above. In this connection, metadiscourse consists of a "range of devices writers use to explicitly organise their texts, engage readers, and signal their attitude to both their material and their audience" (Hyland et al, 2004). This means that metadiscourse create a space for a triangular relationship between the text, the reader and the writer. As noted by Hyland and Tse (2004), through metadiscourse, a writer is able not only to transform a dry, difficult text into coherent, reader-friendly prose, but also relate it to a given context and convey his personality, credibility, audience-sensitivity, and relationship to the message. More recently, Hyland (2017) explains that metadiscourse is the commentary on a text produced by the speaker or writer in the course of speaking or writing and it is a widely used term in current discourse analysis and language teaching.

Having reviewed many definitions of metadiscourse, the next part will discuss in some detail that metadiscourse models that have so far been developed. Most of these models start from Halliday's notion (1973) of language who point out that when a person uses a language s/he is going to achieve three functions: the ideational function which refers to the information that one has; the textual function which makes plain the way a certain person is going to organize her/his proposition; and the interpersonal function which shows the interaction that will take place between the producer and the audience through the understanding of what is being said or written.

Vande Kopple (1985) categorizes metadiscourse markers into two major types: textual and interpersonal. The subtypes under textual are text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers, and narrators while the interpersonal comprise validity markers, attitude markers, and commentaries. So this taxonomy is more developed than that of William's but still one can find many overlaps in its subtypes because of its limited sorts (Table 1).

A recent taxonomy of metadiscourse formulated by Hyland (2005), which appears in Table 2 below, was taken as the model. It should be noted that Hyland's model was preferred for being recent, simple, clear and comprehensive (Abdi, Tavangar & Tavakkoli, 2010).

Hyland (2015) explains that interactive resources allow the writer to manage the information flow to explicitly establish his or her preferred interpretations. These resources include the following: transitions comprise an array of devices,

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Table 1. Metadiscourse markers

Textual metadiscourse	**Text connectives –** used to helps how parts of a text are connected to one another. Includes sequencers (*first, next, in the second place*), reminders (*as I mentioned in chapter 2*) and topicalizers, which focus attention on the topic of a text segment (*with regard to, in connection with*) **Code glosses** – used to help readers to grasp the writer's intended meaning. Based on the writer's assessment of the reader's knowledge, these devices reword, explain, define or clarify the sense of usage, sometimes putting the reformulation in parentheses or marking it as an example, etc. **Validity markers** – used to express the writer's commitment to the probability or truth of a statement. These include hedges (*perhaps, might, may*), emphatics (*clearly, undoubtedly*), and attributors which enhance a position by calming a support of a credible other (*according to Einstein*).
Interpersonal metadiscourse	**Illocution markers –** used to make explicit the discourse act writer is performing at certain points (*to conclude, I hypothesize, to sum up, we predict*) **Attitude markers** – used to express the writer's attitudes to the propositional material he or she presents (*unfortunately, interestingly, I wish that, how awful that*). Commentaries – used to address readers directly, drawing them into an implicit dialogue by commenting on the reader's probable mood or possible reaction to the text (*you will certainly agree that, you might want to read the third chapter first*).

Source: (VandeKopple, 1985, p. 82-9)

mainly conjunctions, used to mark additive, contrastive, and consequential steps in the discourse, as opposed to the external world. Frame markers are references to text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure, including items used to sequence, to label text stages, to announce discourse goals and to indicate topic shifts. Endophoric markers make additional material salient and available to the reader in recovering the writer's intentions by referring to other parts of the text. Evidentials indicate the source of textual information which originates outside the current text. Code glosses signal the restatement of ideational information. Interactional resources focus on the participants of the interaction and seek to display the writer's persona and a tenor consistent with the norms of the disciplinary community. They include the following subcategories: Hedges mark the writer's reluctance to present propositional information categorically. Boosters express certainty and emphasise the force of propositions. Attitude markers express the writer's appraisal of propositional information, conveying surprise, obligation, agreement, importance, and so on. Engagement markers explicitly address readers,

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Table 2. An interpersonal model of metadiscourse

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	Help to guide reader through text	Resources
Transitions	Express semantic relation between main clauses	in addition/ but/ thus/ and
Frame markers	Refer to discourse acts, sequences or text stages	finally/ to conclude/ my purpose here is to
Endophoric markers	Refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above/ see figure/ in section 2
Evidential markers	Refer to sources of information from other texts	according to X/ (Y, 1990)/ Z states
Code glosses	Signal the restatement of ideational information	namely/ e. g. / such as/ in other words
Interactional	Involve the reader in the argument	Resources
Hedges	Withhold writer's full commitment to present propositional information categorically	Might/ perhaps/ possible/ about
Boosters	Emphasise force or writer's certainty in proposition	in fact/ definitely/ it is clear that
Attitude markers	Express writer's affective attitude to propositions	Unfortunately/ I agree/ surprisingly
Engagement markers	Explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader (personal pronouns, questions and commands)	Consider/ note that/ you can see that
Self-mentions	Explicitly refer to authors	I/ we/ my/ our

Source: (Hyland, 2004)

either by selectively focusing their attention or by including them as participants in the text through second person pronouns, imperatives, question forms and asides (Hyland, 2001a). Self-mentions suggest the extent of author presence in terms of first person pronouns and possessives.

Writing is considered as a social engagement in which writers interact with their readers not only to convey messages, but also to help their receivers to understand them. It means that writers predict their readers' requirements and expectations, and respond to them. These expectations are within the bounds of their history, previous texts they have read, or the constraints of particular contexts. To communicate successfully, writers must recognize their readers' expectations, forms and constraints, and get the things done through them (Hyland, 2005). It is believed that the content (what you say) and the way it is delivered (how you say/write) are equally important in communication. Aligned with this, in spoken or written communication, people not only share the propositional content of what they are conveying but they also use

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language to package their ideas for the sake of helping their audience comprehend things in the way they wish. With the evolution of genre and genre studies, the research into metadiscourse has attracted a great deal of attention as it was clear that each genre and the producers of these genres followed relatively different conventions, as a part of how something is presented, to guide their audience in perceiving their texts. For some analysts audience is genuine people outside a text whom the writer must accommodate. For others it is a fiction embodied in the writer's rhetorical choices (Kirsch &Roen, 1990; Park, 1986; Selzer, 1992).

Obviously, academic research has varied audiences. Those research address specialists, students, practitioners, as well as lay people and reasonable members of the discipline, perhaps a homogenous grouping. In actual fact, audience is rarely an authentic reality in academic territory. It integrally shows the writer's awareness of the circumstances which explain a rhetorical context and the ways that the current text is multiply aligned with other texts. Writers form an audience by making use of their knowledge of earlier texts and depending on readers' capability to perceive intertextuality between texts. Along these lines, this view considers writer-reader relationships as basic to academic writing because it focuses on the dialogic aspect of discourse in anticipating a reader's reaction and in replying to a broader textual communication among members of disciplinary community (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2000). Any text foresees a reader's response and itself responds to a broader discourse already in progress; as a result, argument integrates the active role of an addressee and is understood against a background of other opinions and viewpoints on the same theme in prior texts (Bakhtin, 1986). Any addition to an academic debate thus locates the writer intertextually within a larger controversy and within a community whose members are likely both hold a position on the issue under debate and to recognize only certain forms of argument as valid and effective (Hyland, 2001). Metadiscourse is therefore an important link between a text and its context as it points to the expectations readers have for certain forms of interactions and engagement. It highlights the dialogic role of discourse by revealing a writer's understanding of an audience through the ways that he or she addresses readers and their needs. These expectations are social, affective and cognitive, based on participants' beliefs and values, their individual goals and their experiences with similar texts in the past. In other words, a text has to talk to readers or hearers in ways that they find familiar and acceptable, which means that the processes of comprehension and participation are not just a matter of informational clarity, but of the individual writer's or speaker's projection of a shared context. That is, in pursuing their personal and professional goals, senders seek to embed their discourse in a particular social world which they reflect and conjure up through particular recognized and accepted discourses (Hyland, 2005).

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Success on academic writing does not only depend on the social negotiation between the writers and the readers across academic genres. Authors' attempt to position themselves as a competent member of their disciplines so crucial as well. That is, authors are required to express authorial stance in their texts. Hyland (1999) defines stance as "the ways that writers project themselves into their texts to communicate their integrity, credibility, involvement, and a relationship to their subject matter and their readers" (p. 101). Biber (2006) describes stance as the expression of "many different kinds of personal feelings and assessments, including attitudes that a speaker has about certain information, how certain they are about its veracity, how they obtained access to information, and what perspective they are taking" (p. 99).

Academic authors use different types of rhetorical strategies to present their authorial stance. Among these strategies, the use of metadiscourse is known as a successful way which can achieve the disciplinary and culturally constructed norms of academic genres. Sanderson (2008) labels metadiscourse as "the rhetorical strategy authors use when they talk about their own text. It is a way of organizing discourse and explaining this organization to readers and helps structure and guide author-reader interaction with the text" (p. 165).

In spite of extensive research into the use of metadiscourse in academic genres, investigations exploring how metadicourse features contribute to stance-taking are still scarce (Hyland, 1999; Lafuente-Milan, 2010; Akbaş, 2012a). Hyland (1999) examined the ways that writers employ to present themselves and their readers in their texts in a corpus of research articles in eight disciplines. He reported that the social practices of an academic discipline that a writer belongs to have an influence on his/her stance. Thus, metadiscourse reflects the rhetorical knowledge of different disciplines and the expression of stance is an important aspect of academic writing.

Literature on the text studies shows that one major issue in a written text is its coherence (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Hyland, 2000). Based on Hyland's (2000) taxonomy which focuses on reader-based writing, coherence is to a great extent achieved by means of metadiscourse elements. In Hyland's view, writing is considered as a communicative practice between the reader and the writer who employs metadiscourse elements "to project himself into his work to signal his communicative intentions to the reader" (Hyland, 1998, p. 437). That is, writers should consider who their readers are, what their purpose in writing, and what tone can help them accomplish that purpose for those readers to create a friendly interactional atmosphere.

A number of studies have been conducted to particularly examine the effect of metadiscourse awareness on the writing performance of L2 learners (Dastjerdi & Shirzad, 2010; Jalilifar & Alipour, 2007; Simin & Tavangar, 2009; Tavakoli & Amirian, 2012). Simin and Tavangar (2009) investigated EFL learners' writing

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products focusing on the use of metadiscourse elements. 90 Iranian L2 learners took an Oxford Placement Test (OPT) and based on their scores were divided into three groups of lower-intermediate, upper-intermediate, and intermediate. They then were instructed to write essays on argumentative topics for one semester. At the end of the term, their sample essays were collected and marked based on Vande Kopple's (1985) classification of metadiscourse and the correct use of metadiscourse markers. The results showed that there were significant differences in metadiscourse use for different levels of proficiency. That is, more proficient learners made more use of metadiscoure items in their writing. The findings also revealed that the instruction of metadiscourse markers had a facilitative effect on the writing quality and the correct use of metadiscourse items.

In a very recent study, Tavakoli and Amirian (2012) investigated how and to what extent metadiscourse knowledge in Iranian learners' writing developed after receiving the treatment in this regard. First, 86 university students in a composition course were given an OPT test to be homogenized in terms of their language proficiency Then, 60 participants were selected and divided into two control and experimental groups. Portfolio assessment as a teaching technique was employed for the experimental group while control group received the traditional method of teaching during the semester. Two samples of writing on argumentative topics were collected from the participants in both groups. Then, the number of appropriate metadiscourse items was counted. The data analysis showed more correct and efficient use of metdiscourse markers by L2 learners in the experimental group than in the control group. The findings also revealed that participants in experimental group performed better than those in control group. Another recent study (Taghizadeh et al, 2013) investigated the impact of metadiscourse training on the L2 learners' writing ability concluded that learners performed better in post-test of writing than that of pre-test. The findings of this study revealed that the metadiscourse instruction was effective in helping the language learners perform better in essay writing. Broadly speaking, explicit training in the use of metadiscourse markers makes difference. It enhances the students' writing.

METHOD

Instrument

The instrument used for collecting data is a survey of academic documents. The selected documents are theses of MATESOL students (class 2016/2017 and 2017/2018) of the Department of English, University of Khartoum. The selected papers are representative and amended to detailed analyses in order to make certain

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deductions based on the questions of the study. The analysis takes place in the introduction chapter, particularly, in the background and the statement of the problem sections. As document analysis requires that data be examined and interpreted, the study the employs quantitative approach as a means of triangulation since it contains the data analysis through statistics.

Materials

The materials used for this study are research papers written by MATESOL students at university of Khartoum randomly selected. The research papers were written in partial fulfilment of the MA in TESOL. The total number of the papers is 40 papers selected from among 70 papers. 20 papers are chosen from (class 2016-2017) and the other 20 are selected from (class 2017-2018). Each paper consists of 5 chapters which are the introduction, the background, the methodology, data analysis and discussion, and conclusion and recommendations. They were written during a whole term of about 16 weeks. Each paper was supervised by one the faculty members at the faculty of English. However, each paper was assessed by three faculty members.

Data

The data of this study consist of metadiscourse markers as developed by Hyland (2004). Table 1 above details these markers. All of these markers were part of writing that the study participants have received.

Procedure

Firstly, the permission was taken from the Department of English at university of Khartoum to select some research papers as for the purpose of this study. Then 40 research papers were collected. The papers were carefully worked to detect and list all the uses of metadiscourse which were then classified according to the section where they were used. The markers were highlighted, counted and analyzed using Hyland's model of metadiscourse markers (2015). Then, 40 tables were designed for each student to analyze the usage of metadiscourse in their writing. Finally, in the light of the analysis, three groups were established in accordance with the questions of the study. The whole process was done by the researcher alone without any help of statistical consultation. However, with the help of the supervisor who transformed the right information, the data was collected, summarized, interpreted and analyzed.

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Data Analysis

The collected data was examined and then analyzed in percentage terms to enable data with different totals to be compared. By converting different totals to percentage, it would be easier to compare the results obtained. To calculate the percentage, the difference between the total use of the marker and the one that is compared to it was calculated through the most basic formula which is (X/Y = P x 100). This is the standard way to calculate the percentage.

RESULTS

This section presents the results of the study. It organises the results around the three study questions as detailed below:

Q1: How does explicit training enhance the students' use of metadiscourse markers in writing?

Table 3 provides an analysis for the participants' responses.

Table 3. Use of Metadiscourse markers based on training

		Training received		Untrained	
Metadiscourse	Total	No.	%	No.	%
Interactive categories					
Transitions	407	253	62. 2%	154	37. 8%
Frame markers	20	5	25%	15	75%
Endophoric markers	14	12	85. 7%	2	14. 3%
Evidentials	340	237	69. 7%	103	30. 3%
Code glosses	52	33	63. 5%	19	36. 5%
Interactional categories					
Hedges	37	19	51. 4%	18	48. 6%
Boosters	10	3	30%	7	70%
Attitude markers	159	118	74. 2%	41	25. 8%
Engagement markers	0	0	0%	0	0%
Self-mentions	10	4	40%	6	60%
Total	1049	666	63. 5%	383	36. 5%

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Table 4. Metadiscourse across genres (background vs. statement of the problem)

	Background			Problem statement	
Metadiscourse	Total	No.	%	No.	%
Interactive categories					
Transitions	407	244	60%	163	40%
Frame markers	20	17	85%	3	15%
Endophoric markers	14	3	21. 4%	11	78. 6%
Evidentials	340	281	82. 6%	59	17. 4%
Code glosses	52	41	78. 8%	11	21. 2%
Interactional categories					
Hedges	37	25	67. 6%	12	32. 4%
Boosters	10	6	60%	4	40%
Attitude markers	159	107	67. 3%	52	32. 7%
Engagement markers	0	0	0%	0	0%
Self-mentions	10	9	90%	1	1%
Total	1049	733	69. 9%	316	30. 1%

Table 3 shows the use of metadiscourse markers as used by training received and untrained participants. According to the table, participants who received instruction in metadiscourse outperform the untrained participants (63. 6% vs. 36. 5% respectively). As shown in the table, participants who received explicit training used more transitions (62. 2%), endophoric markers (85. 7%), evidentials (69. 7%), code glosses (63. 5%), hedges (51. 4%) and attitude markers (74. 2%) as compared to the untrained participants. However, the untrained participants employed more metadiscourse markers only in the use of three markers which are frame markers (75%), boosters (70%) and self-mentions (60%).

Q2: How are metadiscourse markers distributed across different writing sections?

Table 4 presents an analysis of the participants' responses which answer this question.

Table 4 shows the use of metadiscourse markers across genres, particularly in the subsections of the background and the statement of the problem. As can be seen, there is relatively significant variation across the two genres. That is, participants used more markers in the background (69. 9%) than in the statement of the problem section (30%). All metadiscourse markers were heavily used in the background section rather than the problem statement section except for the endophoric markers and the

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Table 5. Metadiscourse markers across two types

		Males		Females	
Metadiscourse	**Total**	**No.**	**%**	**No.**	**%**
Interactive categories					
Transitions	407	185	45. 5%	222	54. 5%
Frame markers	20	10	50%	10	50%
Endophoric markers	14	4	28. 6%	10	71. 4%
Evidentials	340	177	52. 1%	163	47. 9%
Code glosses	52	32	61. 5%	20	38. 5%
Interactional categories					
Hedges	37	12	32. 4%	25	67. 6%
Boosters	10	4	40%	6	60%
Attitude markers	159	61	38. 4%	98	61. 6%
Engagement markers	0	0	0%	0	0%
Self-mentions	10	6	60%	4	40%
Total	1049	491	46. 8%	558	53. 2%

engagement markers. Participants used more endophoric markers in the statement of the problem (78. 6%) than in the background (21. 4%). As for the engagement markers, participants did not use any in their writing attempts (0%) in both sections. The frame markers were heavily employed in the background section (58%) than in the statement of the problem section (15%). There is also a remarkable difference in the use of evidentials which were more used in the background (82%) than in the problem statement (17%). As can be spotted in the table, participants used more interactive markers than interactional markers in both sections.

Q3: Does gender affect the frequency of use of metadiscourse markers?

Table 5 presents an analysis of the participants' responses which answer this question.

Table 5 presents the use of metadiscourse across gender. As can been seen, there is a slight variation across the two gender. Female participants used more markers (53. 2%) than male participants (46. 8%). As illustrated in the table, female participants used more transitions (54. 5%), endophoric markers (71. 4%), hedges (67. 6%), boosters (60%), and attitude markers (61. 6%). While male participants used more evidentials (52. 1%), code glosses (61. 5%), and self-mentions (60%).

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Nevertheless, both male and female participants employed more interactive markers than interactional markers in their writing.

DISCUSSION

Based on the above mentioned tables, this section interprets the findings in the light of the research questions being investigated. Moreover, the discussion explains the data obtained and critically discusses the discrepancies between the actual findings and the expected ones. In addition, this discussion explains why these unexpected results occurred by bringing the problem out in the open and tries to figure out the reason behind its occurrence.

How Does Explicit Training Enhance The Students' Use of Metadiscourse Markers in Writing?

As can be seen in Table 3 above, participants who received instructions in metadiscourse used more metadiscourse markers than the untrained participants. In other words, the training received participants overpassed the untrained participants in the use of metadiscourse markers in the writing of MA theses by more than approximately a quarter increments in usage. One of the important skills that graduate students need to acquire to write effective theses is audience awareness. Participants who received training in metadiscourse employed a greater use of hedges and attitude marker. These uses reflect the role of the explicit personal interpretation where the writer work harder to build a relationship with audience to persuade them of interpretations in the absence of reliable empirical proofs or trusted quantitative methods. However, the untrained participants employed more metadiscourse markers only in the use of three markers which are frame markers, boosters and self-mentions. That means trained students "project themselves into their texts to communicate their integrity, credibility, involvement, and a relationship to their subject matter and their readers" (Hyland, 1999). They tried to construct their own persona and position themselves in their texts. The following are examples of trained students' use of hedges and boosters**:**

Hedges

1. "Locals who are not fluent in English <u>could</u> find difficulties in…"
2. "… <u>might</u> facilitate the second language learning "
3. "…reading takes more time and <u>might</u> even affect learners' comprehension"
4. "the English medium universities <u>did not seem</u> to need …"

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These are good examples that show the writer's personality for or positioning in which "writers withhold their full commitment to the information". This interpretation comes from (Hyland, 2015)

Boosters

The following extracts are examples of untrained students' use of boosters:

1. "In fact, there are many factors that affect students reading"
2. "Definitely, this kind of problem was investigated by …"
3. "It is clear that around 177 languages are …"

Unlike hedges, boosters emphasize force or writer's certainty in preposition. Training received participants used fewer boosters than the untrained participants. By avoiding the use of boosters in writing, training received participants consequently leaned to hedge instead. They implicitly told the readers their personal opinions without being subjective, which is an example for a good academic writing. That is, the training received participants used more hedges as to convey a cautious approach to the material being presented, which in turn, helps students gain acceptance for their work. Thus, participants who rendered training about the use of metadiscourse have the ability to use hedges properly and this can provide them with the opportunity of withdrawing the statement at a later time. This interpretation is supported by Hyland (2005) who considers hedging to be a great important for all academic writers.

With regard to frame markers, the variants found in the essays are *first, second, third*, *finally* and *next*. For example:

*"*first of all*, the study discusses…"*

"*first of all*" is used here as a reader-engagement technique to actually influence readers' interpretations and understanding. This means that the untrained participants are aware of the fact that the use of frame markers can "show the relation between sentences or group of sentences" (Hyland, 2015).

As for self-mentions, the untrained participants used more of them in their writing attempts than those who received instructions in metadiscourse markers. Self-mentions feature refers to the degree of explicit author presence by using the first person pronouns (*I, my*, and *me*) and first person plural pronouns (*we, us* and *ours*). This feature, according to Hyland (2005), serves several functions such as strengthening the writer's presence, including personal narrative or experience, and promoting solidarity. Nevertheless, it is not recommended in academic writing to insert this feature into students' texts in an expert-like manner; at least in this stage

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of their educational life. One possible reason of the use of this feature could be for the lack of training. If they rendered training, they would rather favour a more passive tone. For example *"we cannot ignore the fact that …"* As clearly, there is a need to provide students with instructions about the use of metadiscourse markers to avoid such mistakes.

Another notable result is that the untrained participants did not use many endophoric markers as compared to the training received participants. For example:

*"*As mentioned above*, this study attempts to investigate …."*

This marker was used to refer to information in other part of the text which helps in connecting parts of the texts. That means the untrained participants did not connect their texts appropriately. The following are examples from the statement of the problem section. In this section, the writer needs to connect what he/she already stated in the literature to identify a gab which has never been addressed before to be introduced as a problem of his/her research. The first example was taken from a trained participant writing, while the second example was taken from an untrained participant essay.

1. "*As noted above, a considerable amount of research has been conducted on … As mentioned earlier, the purpose of this study is to investigate…"*
2. "*Many studies identified the role of ….. The purpose of the study is ….."*

It is also worthy to mention that both participants did not use engagement marker. That is to say, both participants did not involve features that address the discourse participants or the readers in an explicit way by using pronouns indicating first person plural (*we, our, us*) or second person pronoun (*you, your)*.

How are Metadiscourse Markers Distributed Across Different Writing Sections?

As appears in table 5 above, there is a significant difference in the use of metadiscourse markers based on the genres of the study. Participants utilized more metadiscourse markers in the background in comparison to the statement of the problem. All metadiscourse markers were heavily used in the background section rather than the problem statement section except for the endophoric markers and engagement markers.

Regarding the interactive markers, participants put on more markers in the background section, except for the endophoric markers. They used more endophoric markers in the statement of the problem than in the background. This is actually due

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to the need for the writers to introduce other parts of the text as they turn from the background of the study to state the problem of the study. For example*:*

*"*As mentioned above*, the last decades have witnessed a number of Sudanese researches conducted in…however, researchers did not address …"*

Moreover, the difference though is more marked in the use of frame markers. This is probably due to the fact that, the background section is a more productive section and the writer's goal here is to mediate unfamiliar material for novices in a clear and organized way, which requires the use of frame markers. For example:

"Firstly, Senna (2012) suggested that teachers should take a more finely adapted approach to corrective feedback … Secondly, Rezaei (2011) discovered that the corrective feedback is useful in methodological issues related to … Thirdly, Truscott (2008) concluded that correction does help students reduce their errors on the writing …"

Evidentials are the second preferred used markers in the background section. In fact, evidences from authorities to support their ideas to make the paper more substantial and worth reading which can only be achieved through the use of evidential. Also, the lower frequency of evidentials in the statement of the problem section could be due to the removal of citation, where statements are presented as problems or hypotheses rather than claims grounded in the literature. The following are examples for evidentials used in the background section:

1. "Tuskamoto (2012) found that the mother tongue was not welcomed in the target language classroom in Japan. "
2. According to Chapin (1991)"
3. "(Popham, 1975; Jarvis, 1979)"

Furthermore, code glosses carry the third position in term of the most used markers in the background section. Participants used various markers such as (*for example, for instance, such as, namely, in other words* and *like*). This can be due to the fact that the background section contains descriptions that provide more information in order for the topic to be understood fully which can be achieved through the use of code glosses. For example:

1. "*newly introduced subjects such as Arabic and Islamic studies…"*
2. "In other words, students do not need to …"
3. "… e. g. conferences, seminars, mission, etc. "

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4. "… namely, master degree students of TESOL …"

Does Gender Affect The Frequency of Use of Metadiscourse Markers?

As can be seen in table 5 above, slightly, female participants used more metadiscourse markers that male participants. Both genders were heavy users of transition markers that help in connecting ideas in the discourse. These uses can be attributed to the fact that candidates need to make connections between ideas far more explicit for readers to ensure that they are able to recover the intended meanings. However, female participants used more transitions than male participants such as *in addition, and, however, moreover, but, yet,* and *although*.. This difference might be explained by the female tendency to use much longer sentences even in spoken communication that need to be coordinated by additive markers. This interpretation can be supported by (Oaks, 1997)) who mentioned that "*girls tend to play with a single best friend or in small groups, and they spend a lot of time talking. They use language to negotiate how close they are…"* (p. 245). He also stated that women and men have different habitual ways of saying what they mean. Participants tended to use additional markers For example:

1. *"The use of new teaching tools has not only increasingly developed, but has also become the focal point of …"*
2. *"Therefore, untrained teachers must…"*

Furthermore, although female participants employed more stance features, male participants used more markers in the interactional categories. That is, female participants used more hedges, boosters and attitude markers than their male counterparts. This reveals that female participants are thoughtful and careful in their writings as argued by Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi (2015). While male participants focus on guiding the readers through the text.

Regarding hedges, the variants that found in the essays are *may, might, could, seem, and maybe*. For example*:*

1. *"the status of language could be affected by …"*
2. *" this tendency seems to have …"*
3. *"This kind of problem may hinder the language learning …"*

Hyland (2005) mentions that this feature emphasizes the writer's subjectivity. This feature also shows the degree of confidence and certainty. This reveals that female participants are more careful in presenting their opinions or arguments. This

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interpretation comes from (Oaks, 1997) when he said that women tend to speak in a way that save faces for others.

Different from hedges, boosters highlight certainty that demonstrate confident image. The variants of boosters found in the papers are *in fact*, and *it is clear that*. For instance*:*

1. *"In fact, the use of instructional technology involves many changes…"*
2. *"It is clear that the national official language is …"*

The findings show that female participants were more likely to use boosters than their counterparts. This suggests that female participants were more inclined to present higher degree of assurance. This result contradicts Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi (2014), who found out that males tended to use more boosters. Further, female participants were significantly more disposed to use more attitude markers than their male counterparts. That is, female participants were more likely to convey their attitude towards information and ideas presented in their texts through the use of markers like: *unfortunately, strong, weak, important, essential, crucial, interestingly* and *outstanding.* For example:

1. *"Interestingly, there are many studies conducted to …"*
2. *"the learner's mother tongue plays an important role in …"*
3. *" policy has played a crucial role in …"*

Moreover, although it is assumed that women prefer more personalized style, male participants employ more self-mention features than female. This means that, male participants tend to invest personal stake in their arguments and desire to gain credit for claims (Oaks, 1997) in their writing compared with female participants. For example:

1. *"what has been in our understanding is that …"*
2. *"I think that …"*

The result of having females used more markers than male participants can be due to the fact that women have the tendency to use more discourse markers in spoken communication.

In conclusion, the analysis showed that participants who received instruction in metadiscourse used more metadiscourse markers than the untrained participants in their writing as shown in table (3). Furthermore, there is a significant difference based on the genres of the study as plotted in table (4). Additionally, there is a

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difference in the use of metadiscourse markers based on the gender of the study as provided in table (5).

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

Future research is needed in a number of areas. To start with, more research is required to examine the influence of training in students' writing. Additionally, more work must be done in the area of interaction between the use of metadiscourse markers and gender because the influence of gender is an important source of discourse variation. While the result of the study provides slight evidence that female use more metadiscourse markers than male students, far more analyses need to be conducted in academic texts to confirm it.

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This paper set out to investigate the use of metadiscourse markers in research papers produced by MATESOL students, class (2016/2017) and (2017/2018) at University of Khartoum following Hyland (2004) taxonomy to answer three question: The first one was concerned about role of training in helping the students to write with a communicative intent. The second question measures how are metadiscourse markers distributed across different writing sections. Finally, the last question was tried to determine whether the gender affect the frequency of use of metadiscourse markers. After the data was collected, analyzed and interpreted, the study concluded that instruction in metadiscourse helps students to use metadiscourse markers in their writing. That is, participants who received instruction in metadiscourse used more metadiscourse markers than the untrained participant. Furthermore, participants utilized more metadiscourse markers in the background section in comparison to the statement of the problem section. Moreover, the findings reveal that female participants used more metadiscourse markers in their writing attempts than their male counterparts. Also, female participants are more thoughtful and careful in their writing attempts than male participants.

The present study firstly provides an overview about the topic of the study. Then, it explores the main topics which are related to use of metadiscourse in academic writing. Finally, it offers a critical discussion that explains the findings. However, this research has its own limitations. For example, the sample of the study is limited to 40 theses; so, it is suggested for future research in dissertations written by more students and in all sections of the dissertation, so the more comprehensive data will reached.

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According to the above mentioned findings, teachers are recommended to provide explicit instruction in metadiscourse markers to enhance the students' text construction skills. The training that trained participant went through started in the first term in which student rendered a pedagogical course about academic writing using Swales and Christine's book. Students learned about understanding the intended audience, the purpose of the paper, and academic genres. Their training included task-based methodology, analytic group discussion, summary writing, and the use of rhetoric devices. Since Metadiscourse markers are considered as one of the tools to help writers to communicate better with readers in a written form, students used Hyland's (2005) model of metadiscourse in academic texts to help students to learn about the categories of metadiscourse markers and their functions.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Boosters: Boosters express certainty and emphasise the force of propositions.

Gender: Gender refers to the socially constructed characteristics of women and men.

Genres: Genres mean the type of the academic text including essays, research papers, book review, textual analysis, literature review, project reports, proposals, and theses or dissertations.

Hedges: Hedging refers to words or phrases whose job is to make things fuzzier, implying that the writer is less than fully committed to the certainty of the referential informative given.

Metadiscourse: Metadiscourse is a concept used by writers to structure their text and engage readers in their interpretations of these same texts.

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Chapter 8
A Genre-Based Study of Algerian EFL Writers' Academic Texts:
Move Structure in Research Article Abstracts

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ABSTRACT

To disseminate academic knowledge, scholars publish their research in the form of journal articles, whose content is sketched in an abstract with a conventional rhetorical organization. This chapter reports a study that aims to examine and assess the organization of research article abstracts in terms of move units. The move structure of 42 abstracts of English research papers written by Algerian researchers and published in one of the Algerian language journals was scrutinized. The study follows Hyland's analytic model, comprising five rhetorical moves: introduction, purpose, method, product, and conclusion. The findings of the study indicate that the writers predominantly employ the pattern introduction-purpose, with some inconsistencies in using the other moves. On the basis of identifying the existing deviations from the predictable generic arrangement of abstracts, the importance of raising genre awareness among EFL writers has been highlighted as a means to enhance the quality of published discourse.

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INTRODUCTION

Effective participation in scholarly work requires a good command of writing various genres. Amidst the bulk of scholastic activities, academics are compelled to participate efficiently in the discourse community of their disciplinary fields via writing. This can be attained through the diffusion of their research to wider readerships by publishing articles in international journals of authority. Research article abstracts, an autonomous academic genre, constitute central elements of published papers. Skillfulness in producing forceful research paper abstracts of conventionally recognized formats has now become a crucial means of access to the world of publishing and of establishing the writers' status in the academy. However, writing abstracts in English has been found to constitute a thorny task for graduate and international students, researchers and even experienced authors based on the firm norms governing their construction (Swales & Feak, 2000; 2009). Writers often fail to observe such constraints, producing inconsistent texts for their readers. This has intrigued interest in researching the distinctive characteristics of the abstract genre for application in English writing classes either in a second language (SL) or a foreign language (FL) as part of writing pedagogy. Although a substantial amount of research has been devoted to the exploration of the structural and rhetorical tendencies in disciplinary abstract writing in a variety of ESL and EFL contexts, scant research in Algerian academic circles has been undertaken to study the issue of conformity of abstracts to international conventionalized genre formats. It would be thus of interest to investigate current practices in the immediate context to gain insights into precise difficulties and contribute to enhancing the quality of abstract writing, which targets international readerships. Detecting inconsistencies may even upgrade editorial work. The study reported in this chapter follows this perspective. It generally addresses the question of research paper abstract writing proficiency in the Algerian university context from the perspective of genre theory. The objective is to explore EFL writers' rhetorical propensities in terms of text staging and to measure their conformity with the conventional organizational patterns of the specified genre.

BACKGROUND

The Notion of Genre

The concept of *genre* is gaining increasing recognition in academic writing discussions. The origin of this concept can be traced back to Aristotelian thought, but it has significantly been refined in contemporary research. In essence, this concept signifies categorization. In traditional works, its sense was confined to literary

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writing classifications; however, in recent research the meaning of the term has been broadened to other spheres of knowledge, such as media studies, anthropology, pragmatics, cultural communication, text theory and linguistics, keeping its central sense of categorization (Flowerdew, 2013; Ongstad, 2005; Richards & Schmidt, 2002). Recently, the concept has been revived in applied and educational linguistics as a rhetorical construct. Genre theory emerged in the fields of second language (SL) writing and English for specific purposes (ESP) in the 1980s (Paltridge, 2014), and has proved to be of great usefulness in language learning and teaching contexts (Bhatia, 2001). Three scholarly perspectives are usually highlighted in the modern literature on genre. These lines of research have differently characterized the concept of genre and, therefore, have offered divergent perspectives on the way genres are to be taught. For the purposes of this study, the ESP perspective is chosen, given the analytical tools and instructional outcomes of this outlook for the teaching of writing.

In Swale's (1990) model, genres are taken as communicative events (or speech events) with idiosyncratic communicative purposes and typical rhetorical patterning, content, and target audience. Seeing genres as speech events or combinations of functional units has roots in the Speech Act Theory. As laid by this theory's initiators, speech acts constitute the smallest units of communication (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969). When positioned within a broader level of discourse, speech acts become the cardinal components of speech events. The notions of speech act and speech event have been exploited in describing written genres. Genres, being speech events, are seen as highly patterned combinations of speech acts (Drid, 2018). In the same vein, Bazerman (2004) considers genre a conventionalized frame in which the sequencing of speech act is strictly restricted. He states, "Each successful text produces for its readers a social fact. The social facts consist of meaningful social actions being accomplished through language, or speech acts. These acts are carried out in patterned, typical and therefore intelligible textual forms or genres" (p.223). On the basis of this argument, genre and highly regulated speech act combinations seem to be representations of the same reality.

Essential in defining genres from this perspective is the notion of discourse community itself.

A discourse community, as Borg (2003) explains, refers to a collection of people who aim at the same goal in communication. Commonness of goals leads to the development of a distinctive and conventional way of using language resources, including vocabulary, grammatical structures and discourse conventions. Communities can be academic disciplines or social groups (Martín-Martín, 2003). Language use in the group reflects a social behaviour. Discourse both keeps and broadens a community's knowledge and permits new members to be integrated within the group. When delineating the characteristics of discourse communities, genres are regarded as a key defining feature (Swales, 1990).

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Because of the shared nature of genre representations within the same discourse community, discourse producers are required to comply with the conventional linguistic and rhetorical characteristics of the genre. In the same way, discourse receivers within the same community anticipate well-defined features of text resulting from genre expectations. Therefore, membership in discourse communities is tied to proficiency in genre production, and educational and professional success depends on skilfulness in using genres (Clark, 2012).

Genres and Move Analysis

Following his original model for the analysis of research article introductions, Swales (1990) suggests that the analysis of any genre uses the units of *moves*. The generic rhetorical patterning of a genre is dubbed the *schematic structure*, or staging, and the moves represent its constitutive parts. Hyland (2002) clarifies that "move analysis" involves the definition of the sequence of stages composing a genre by means of analyzing a representative exemplar of texts. Each move represents a constituent communicative act that contributes to the fulfilment of the principal communicative function of the entire text. The size of a move ranges between one finite clause and a series of paragraphs simply because it is a functional rather than a formal entity (Swales & Feak, 2000). Moves are divisible into *steps*. Both moves and steps are rigorously constricted by the sequence in which they occur, and they may be embedded and reiterated. Flowerdew (2013) points out that the moves of a given genre have conventionalized formal exponents, which are also, to varying degrees, expected per se within the discourse community. For writers, genre awareness involves both knowledge of the schematic structure and an understanding of the peculiar form-function correspondences for each stage. Failing to manoeuvre either of these aspects signals a lack of competence and may even indicate that someone is an outsider in the community. The pedagogical use of this analytical framework takes such a two-sided knowledge of genre as a key principle in teaching the language and the rhetorical patterns of the genres relevant to specific discourse communities (Bruce, 2008).

Genres in Academia

The notion of "genre" has gained increasing importance in academic circles. Among the many competencies recommended for university students and academics is the ability to generate an extensive range of English spoken and written genres to fulfil communicative goals within their disciplinary discourse communities (Hyland, 2004). Knowledge of writing genres is a central prerequisite for the academic community members and a determinant of their effective contribution to the disciplinary

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research world. Thus SL or FL students and researchers are required to be familiar with genre conventions of their disciplinary fields. According to Björk (2003), the norms referred to in identifying genres are fixed by the conventions approved by the community in which a genre is used. That is to say, the presence of given moves and steps and their organization are strictly governed by the rules established in specific academic or professional discourse circles and even wider writing cultures. On these grounds, genres are believed to be discipline- and culture-bound.

In English for Academic Purposes (EAP) contexts, awareness of the conventions of genres is necessary for writing appropriately. In this regard, Yakhontova (2003) considers genre learning the core of learning to write. Silva (1990) argues that students learn about and attempt to get closer to community expectations. Writers seek academic success and, therefore, have to conform to the norms, while readers, who are experienced members of the academic community, have unambiguous schemata for academic discourse, which shape their expectations of what is textually most appropriate. Texts are seen as expected responses to a specific task type linked to a particular genre, while the context is the academic community and its related characteristic tasks. Some researchers go even farther by stating that writing in academia is delineated in the light of predetermined textual conventions (Hinkel, 2004). Given such restrictions, teaching writing in academic contexts has to begin with demarcating the entirety of genres that students have to know about within specified disciplines. In this regard, researchers mention some common academic genres, which students ought to have knowledge of. They encompass scholarly books, edited volumes, book chapters, journal articles, book reviews, essays, textbooks, grant proposals, action research projects, dissertations, master's degree theses, letters, syllabi, course materials, reports, case studies, projects, exam answers, research papers / articles, summaries, notes, abstracts, exercises, lab reports, reflective accounts and critiques (Bailey, 2011; Gillett, Hammond & Martala, 2009; Jordan, 1999; Moore & Morton, 1999; Rankin, 2001; Richards & Miller, 2005; Yakhontova, 2003). This huge array of academic genres places veritable challenges and substantial writing demands on students while they are completing their degrees (Richards & Miller, 2005). On this basis, Hewings (2001) demonstrates, several new approaches to academic writing take consciousness of the grammatical and rhetorical features of the various genres as the core of their objectives, and this has led to designing many academic writing courses whose sole purpose is the teaching of particular genres, such as theses, dissertations, essays, experimental research reports and so on.

Research Article Abstracts

Producing and publishing well-written research articles, one method of knowledge construction and dissemination in academia, has become a sign of active scholarly

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performance. Therefore, increasing the SL or FL learners and writers' concern with observing its rhetorical patterns appears to be essential. The abstract section of a research paper is an independent genre. Targeting larger audiences, it is generally perceived as a miniature representation of one's article (Young, 2006). For Bhatia (1993), an abstract abridges the knowledge which the full article provides. In the literature, in spite of the diversity of related terminology, the summarizing function of abstracts is highlighted, but it is stressed that, despite being chiefly a representation of a larger work, this genre differs markedly from it in its communicative purpose, rhetorical structure and persuasive goal (Hyland, 2004). The importance of abstracts in academic writing cannot be overlooked. According to Huckin (2001), abstracts are believed to have four main uses: (1) to stand as mini-texts giving a shortened account of the paper, (2) to act as a screening device, which promotes article reading, (3) to assist in previewing the whole paper, and (4) to aid indexing for large database services. Hyland (2009) adds that through the abstract, researchers can project news and promote their articles. This is achieved thanks to their structure, which highlights the paper's central information and which permits readers to have effortless access to the paper's content, in addition to their peculiar grammatical characteristics, which stress freshness and immediacy. In the same vein, Lorés (2004) argues that paper abstracts operate as a doorway to article selection and a passport for admission to academic seminars or conferences.

Move Structure in Research Article Abstracts

Given the role that abstracts play in encapsulating the whole research paper and in influencing the readers' approval of claims raised in the associated work, abstracts have become one of the highly investigated genres in the academy and have stimulated a vast number of studies exploring their formal and rhetorical features across disciplines. In applied linguistics, several models have been elaborated to depict the move structure of this genre, yielding functional insights for writing instruction in ESL / EFL contexts. Most models borrowed Swales's CARS (create a research space) sequence for the analysis of article introductions. The influential works which have examined the move structure of abstracts point to some fixed staging. Bhatia's (1993) model, for example, encompasses four moves: (1) Introducing the purpose, (2) Describing the method, (3) Summarizing the results and (4) Presenting the conclusions. Santos (1996) adds the preliminary move of contextualization. His framework includes the following generic stages: Situating the research, Presenting the research, Describing the methodology, Summarizing the results, and Discussing the research.Another relatively similar five-move model, which has been utilized in many subsequent analyses, is the one proposed by Hyland (2000), including the move chain: (1) Introduction, (2) Purpose, (3) Method, (4) Product, and (5) Conclusion.

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Hyland (2000) explains the functional role as well as the steps of every move. He elaborates on the function of each move and demonstrates how writers exploit them to supply briefly the essential information of the related paper. According to him, the Introduction move creates the context of the study and uses some relevant issues as an impetus for the discussion. The Purpose move represents an explicit verbalization of author's aim. The Methodology move provides information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach and data. The Product move summarizes the principal findings and outcomes. The Conclusion move broadens the conception of results further than the span of the paper. It is the section where researchers make use of their findings to recommend applications or make implications based on sound argumentation and evidence. Such a model provides clear parameters against which writing abstracts can be assessed.

METHODOLOGY

The present study explores the structure of a sample of English research article abstracts published in one of the Algerian university journals written by Algerian researchers on English language studies. The following research questions have been formulated to guide it: (1) What moves do the writers of the research article abstracts use in the construction of their texts? (2) In what ways are the observed tendencies of text structure different from the conventionalized move structure in the discipline?

Corpus

The analysis was conducted on English research articles' abstracts appearing in twenty-four issues from 2004 to 2016 of *Al-Athar*, a trilingual, bi-annual peer-reviewed print journal published by Kasdi Merbah University, Algeria. This journal aims at disseminating research in language studies, linguistics, literature and literary theory. The criterion on which the journal has been selected relates to the treatment of the present researcher's immediate academic context as a way to contribute to the quality of its published material. Another consideration is that the journal is available in print and online versions and attracts writers from various universities in the country. Its papers are written in Arabic, French, and English by Algerian university teachers and Ph.D. students. All writers of its English papers are non-native speakers of English from Algeria, where English is taught as a foreign language. The corpus for this study comprises the abstracts of 42 papers written in English in the field of English language studies. They include research in theoretical and applied linguistics, literature, civilization and translation studies.

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Table 1. A classification of rhetorical moves in article abstracts

Move	Function
Introduction	Establishes context of the paper and motivates the research or discussion.
Purpose	Indicates purpose, thesis or hypothesis, outlines the intention behind the paper
Method	Provides information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.
Product	States main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished.
Conclusion	Interprets or extends results beyond scope of paper, draws inferences, points of application or wider implications.

Source: Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing (p. 67), by K. Hyland, 2000, Harlow, England: Longman.

Procedure

The collected abstracts were sorted by their year of publication. Each text was assigned a numerical code (from 1 to 42). Move identification is based on the model elaborated by Hyland (2000). The conventional rhetorical structure presented in the model consists of five moves with distinct communicative functions: Introduction (M1), Purpose (M2), Method (M3), Product (M4) and Conclusion (M5). Table 1 displays the anatomy of abstracts according to the selected analytical framework.

The initial stage of the analysis consisted in examining the whole papers' content as a preliminary step to fathom the whole documents' contributions. The second stage was the identification of all moves appearing in each text using the suggested notations. Operationally, the process of demarcating existing moves was based on the content of text sections as well as the formal exponents that text writers' employ to signal transition from one division to another. Every sentence was scrutinized and allotted to a move. Sections of the text whose content falls beyond the move categories of the analytical framework were assigned descriptive move labels reflecting the functions they seemed to fulfil. Disordered moves were also signalled. No external raters apart from the researcher were involved in the analysis.

Results

General Results

The application of the analytical framework to the data yielded informative results. As Table 2 demonstrates, the most significant fact is that 21.42% of research articles in the corpus lacked an abstract. These are found in the sub-disciplines of literature and civilization. None of the abstracts contained the five moves of the model together. Instead, the use of the five moves was found to be variable in frequency. Additionally,

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Table 2. General results

Text	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	Ad	Dis	No Abs
1.	-	+	-	+	-	-	-	
2.	-	+		+	+	+	-	
3.								+
4.								+
5.	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	
6.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
7.	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	
8.								+
9.	-	+	-	-	+	-	-	
10.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
11.								+
12.								+
13.	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	
14.								+
15.	-	-	+	+	+	-	-	
16.	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	
17.	+	+	-	-	-	-	+	
18.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
19.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
20.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
21.	+	+	-	-	-	+	-	
22.	+	+	+	-	-	-	-	
23.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
24.	-	+	+	-	-	-	+	
25.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
26.	-	+	-	-	+	+	-	
27.	-	+	-	-	-	+	-	
28.								+
29.	-	+	-	-	-	-	-	
30.								+
31.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
32.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
33.								+
34.	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	
35.	-	+	+	-	-	-	-	
36.	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	
37.	-	+	+	-	+	-	-	
38.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
39.	+	+	+	-	-	-	+	
40.	-	+	+	+	-	-	-	
41.	+	+	-	-	-	-	-	
42.	-	+	+	+	+	-	-	

Note. M1= move 1; M2= move 2; M3= move 3; M4= move 4; M5= move 5; Ad= additional move; Dis= disordered moves; Abs= abstract

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anomalous tendencies appeared in the form of non-conventional moves or distorted order of conventional ones.

The frequency counts of the move structure tendencies are graphically represented in Table 3. The data signify that the most recurrent move is M2 (Purpose), appearing in 96.96% of the abstracts. Second in incidence comes M1 (Introduction) with a percentage of 48.48% and then M3 (Method) with a percentage of 42.42%. The least frequent moves are M4 (Product) and M5 (Conclusion) with a percentage of 24.24%. Non-conventional moves appeared in 12.12% of the texts, and a similar rate is found in the case of distorted move order.

The results also point towards the abstract writers' predisposition to use more frequently the pattern Introduction-Purpose (28.57%), with the Purpose move as a central component. Further consideration of the data demonstrates that while only 18.18% of the abstracts use four moves simultaneously, most of the abstracts use a random grouping of two or three moves, or even reduce the whole text structure to one move. These general results signal significant inconsistencies in the abstracts' generic staging.

Analysis of Move Configuration

A close examination of the internal arrangement of every move in the corpus and its formal realization points to typicality in some abstracts but with perceptible variance in others. The levels at which irregular phenomena are identified encompass the relative length of moves, the use of typical steps in each move, (in)directness of expression and overlapping moves. The following is a detailed account of the construction of the five moves.

1. The Introduction Move

The observed tendencies in structuring the Introduction move show generally that the writers prefer to locate their contributions in a broader context, which constitutes a good terrain for their own contributions to the specified field. In conformity with Hyland's (2000) model, some writers succeed in realizing Move 1. They set the scene by supplying the reader with background information as a way to demonstrate

Table 3. Move frequency

	M1	M2	M3	M4	M5	Ad.	Dis.	No Abs.
Total N°	16	32	14	8	8	4	4	9
%	48.48	96.96	42.42	24.24	24.24	12.12	12.12	21.42

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their responsiveness to the problems involved and to highlight the importance of the subject under discussion. An illustration of this typical construction is found in text 19 and text 41:

- *Despite the ever-increasing amount of work on developing and testing FL learners' communicative competence, there remain, nevertheless, some constraints enshrouding assessing types of competence coming under this general concept. This is accounted for by the fact that the very nature of the concept does not lend itself as easily as it may appear to those modes of measurement that are applicable to formal aspects of language*. (19)
- *Argumentation has a broad, multi-disciplinary scope. Being a point of overlap of diverse spheres of knowledge and sciences makes the study of argumentation so complex an enterprise, which still seeks to determine in precise terms what its object is and how it should be addressed.* (41)

However, some evidence is found showing the ineffective exploitation of contextual information in some introductory sections because the broad description is not fitted within the prospective study, as found in text (17), where the writer does not try to link the background information to what follows:

- *Metaphor obscures its literal meaning while allowing a new understanding to emerge. Also, it can give concrete illustrations of objects. Most readers find abstractions alien to them that they need a concrete statement such as the one the analogy provides. In fact, metaphor is considered as a powerful device whenever one describes a new situation in terms of what has been described before.* (17)

An added uncharacteristic tendency appears in extending the length of Move 1 to more than half of the abstract. The result is a circuitous discussion that postpones the main topic until the very end of the move, an atypical practice in English writing at large. Text 32 and text 23 below are examples:

- *One of the most crucial issues in literature course is the choice of text. Text choice is regarded by many teachers as a mechanical matter as long as some titles and authors are provided within the programme content. Thus, they never bother about that, only when the works are not available in the local library, but nowadays most of these works are available on the internet. Some teachers also choose texts that they find more easily comprehensible and appealing to their readers or those which may go with the linguistic abilities of their students. Others also choose texts according to their length*

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or brevity taking into consideration load and time allotted to reading sessions **[Introduction]**. */ The present paper presents some elaborated techniques and measures to help teachers select and evaluate reading texts appropriately* **[Purpose]**. (32)

- *The proliferation of approaches, methods, and techniques in foreign language teaching contexts, is more and more viewed as an urgent need to remedy the low achievement of our EFL learners. Traditionally speaking, much more emphasis has been put on writing and reading at the expense of speaking skills, which is in fact a pre-requisite in a modern approach to language learning, particularly in the field of modern ELT where great attentions are, nowadays, oriented towards the communicative properties of the target language (Introduction). In this context, this article explores into the main difficulties our EFL learners encounter; and thus, the core attempt of this contribution is to alleviate these difficulties by introducing some alternative activities that can enhance their oral practice in a safe environment* **[Purpose]**. (23)

It is emphasized that a good text in the English writing culture favours a communication style that addresses the text producer's main topic early in the text. Failure to observe this constraint would be perceived as a roundabout flow of ideas for English readerships.

2. The Purpose Move

In the selected analytical framework, the second move of an abstract is the section through which the intention of the author unfolds. The expression of the researchers' intents in the data points to the authors' tendency to focus on theoretical analyses of available literature. Only 39.39% of the abstracts indicate that the associated studies are empirical in perspective. Considering the formal layout of Purpose moves in the corpus, most of them have a moderate length and express the goal of the study in a reasonably concise manner using proper signals and reflecting the writers' grasp of the functional role of this stage. The authors employ a variety of verbal exponents to hint at their intents. The following extracts illustrate this proficient use (exponents underlined):

- *<u>In this paper I will consider</u> the issue of skill-integration within a communicative model of teaching at the tertiary level.* (2)
- *<u>This paper explores</u> the main points where form and function, as two decisive facets of discourse analysis, interact to serve communication as a whole and written communication in particular.* (5)

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- *In this article, we suggest a consistent definition of the reading process and explore the major points in the skill of reading comprehension for advanced learners.* (10)
- *The general thrust of the present article is to investigate the effects of raising students' discoursal awareness in their learning of grammar.* (16)
- *The present article strives to find out how culture incorporation in language teaching may enhance language teaching.* (22)

On the other hand, what is observed is that length and content in the Purpose move exhibit internal differences. Also, some abstracts display perceptible incongruities. A lengthy purpose appears in texts 9, 27, 29 and 37. In the following extract, the writer expounds on her objective and exploits this prolonged discussion to increase the persuasiveness of her claims in the absence of the first move.

- *This article explores the current directions of adaptation studies, in particular, the use of methods that read adaptations as components of cultural discourse. Intended to extend and contextualize the debate engendered by the different works on adaptation, the present paper demonstrates the necessity for adaptation scholarship to address more fully than it has the implications of adaptation studies. In doing so, the paper does not propose a rejection of the current foci or methodologies of the field—in fact, far from it. In building on existing approaches, it offers a framework through which to expand the theoretical methods they already embrace. (27)*

In other abstracts, three additional practices were detected: (1) fusing the structure of the paper within the purpose move, and (3) indirect expression of purpose, as seen below in texts 41, 24, and 20 respectively:

- *This paper is meant to offer a concise overview of argumentation and its various approaches. Focus is laid on the fundamental concepts that bear some relevance to the study of argumentation. Further, attempt is made to draw a sketch of its history and an outline of its modern theoretical distinctions* **[fused purpose]**. (41)
- *The present paper tries to shed light on the interface between the Victorian novel and sociolinguistics,/ taking as a case-study Charles Dickens's Hard Times* **[method]**. *It aims at showing that the influence of both the linguistic and the social structures is bi-directional: society and language may affect each other* **[reiterated purpose]**. (24)
- *The globalisation of the world is systematic process pushed by Anglo-American strategies. Accordingly the English language becomes the most*

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taught foreign language all over the world. In the Arab world, English has become the language of higher communication in the field of science and technology; post-graduate education; economic affairs; international banking and trade. Thus, the language is getting entranced in the Arab world especially after the second Gulf War and the defeat of Iraq. In the Arab region, English is occupying more and more a room in language use. It is gaining more and more territory from the native language. The international status of English, makes it necessary utilize English in a range of social and thematic areas **[Introduction].** *The main concern of the linguist is to try to describe the 'special Englishes' at all levels of language, including both its diachronic and synchronic dimensions* **[indirect purpose]**. (20)

3. The Method Move

Third in the frequency of occurrence, the Method move, which is meant according to Hyland's (2000) analytical model to sketch the methodological aspects of the related study, exhibits some disparities. Only abstract 34 could provide ample information on approach, participants, and procedures, as seen in this extract:

- *The investigation was carried out in the English Department at Abderrahmane Mira University of Bejaia. Participants were first year level students inscribed in the Licence/Master/Doctorat system (LMD). The methodological approach is the ethnographic case study based on observation, then arithmetic based on the questionnaire as a tool for data collection. The authors identified factors such as communication apprehension, Fear of Negative Evaluation (FNE) and test anxiety as prominent elements in the generation of FLA. Besides, researchers classified many types of anxieties with their diversified causes and effects on not only the individual but on the learning process as well.* (34)

In the remainder of abstracts, a method section appears to diverge in its constituents and in its length, ranging from a single clause to a couple of sentences. Such practices reflect the authors' tendency to be inexplicit and their lack of consistency in structuring the method move. This reduces the credibility of the findings presented in the abstract section of the paper. These tendencies appear in the following extracts:

- *This potential increases if it is conceived of within a discourse analysis framework* **[approach].** (5)
- *The two areas of discourse analysis, cohesion and coherence, are attended to as two main requirements in building up learners' discourse competence. The key point in this methodology is to have students engage interactively in communicative activities and scenarios likely to raise their grammatical*

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awareness without there being a focus on grammatical items as an end in themselves. Rather, students will be taught how these items are employed to develop discourse competence **[approach & its justification]**. (16)

- *By comparing James Joyce's Ulysses and Wole Soyinka's The Interpreters, we aim at redefining European and African Modernism through taking the colonial and postcolonial contexts into account and employing a neo-Marxist critical approach to assess the political implications of the Modernist mode of writing* **[data & design]**. (13)
- *Taking as a case-study Charles Dickens's Hard Times . . .* **[approach & data]**. (24)
- *To achieve this, a case study was held at Tafna secondary school in Ain Temouchent Algeria on First year EFL pupils* **[approach & population]**. (39)
- *From the findings of two questionnaires delivered in two Algerian universities,* **[procedure, setting]**, *we noticed that . . .* (15)

4. The Product Move

The Product move aims at encapsulating the research findings and stating the study's achievements. Half of the abstracts containing a Product stage in the corpus demonstrate the writer's awareness of the need to announce one's findings in the preliminary subdivision of the paper, making it possible for readerships to see the accomplishment and even cite it without going further in the paper. Text 42 is an instance of such a skillful practice:

- *The results revealed that major learners' inadequacies appeared in displaying thematic progression, resulting in poor flow of the information; the fact that made them focus on transitions, references and key words repetition as an attempt to get logical relations between sentences and paragraphs. This finding can be attributed to the differences between the rhetorical patterns of the learners' mother-tongue, Arabic, and the target language, English.* (42)

However, in the rest of texts, where the concern is only the scrutiny of some theoretical constructs and their assumed suitability for given contexts, the fourth move appears in the form of a hypothesized product which is not supported by empirical evidence:

- *Actually, defining political discourse on the basis of contextual features blocks the rise of ambiguities and confusions.* (1)
- *The purpose of such a model of analysis is to prepare students at this level of study to process spoken and written discourse in order to develop co-*

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operatively their receptive skills. They will, thus, be guided towards using the linguistic and non-linguistic elements to deal understandably with what they listen to and read. Lying at the heart of discourse processing is the notion of interpreting, common to both skills. As a process it refers to giving linguistic items their appropriate contextual values. Put another way it consists in reconciling usage and use. (2)

5. The Conclusion Move

Although abstracts with conclusions are the least frequent in the corpus, the writers' exploit this move to achieve the goals of an abstract conclusion. With the exception of one abstract, which takes the form of a summary of findings, all conclusions go beyond the results, putting them in a wider perspective. The extracts below demonstrate various uses of the conclusion:

- *As the paper evinces, "Sweeny Erect" is one of the most misogynistic poems Eliot had written* **[summary of findings].** (36)
- *A specially adopted methodology is suggested, presenting learners with relevant discourse and pragmatic input through ad hoc materials and activities, and providing them with instances highlighting features of language use. Once the input is sufficiently provided, students are expected to understand and produce discourse elements and routines on a pragmatic basis* **[application]**. (9)
- *Arguably, handling discourse at these two levels is expected to enhance learners' formal and functional awareness* **[implication].** (5)
- *In order to reconsider the effective role of literary reading in EFL classes, it is highly worthwhile to know first the literary text itself and its characteristics; and second how it should be processed. Opting for intensive-extensive reading within the reader-response approach seems to be a very eminent way to help students fully understand and appreciate literary texts with certain autonomy, far away from the authority of the teacher* **[inference]**. (15)

Non-Conventional Moves and Distorted Order

According to the findings of abstract analyses, it has been found that few texts included an additional non-predictable move. The authors present a summary of the structure of the accompanying paper. While it is typical to find this step in a paper's introduction, the models explained earlier in the literature show that this rhetorical strategy is not essential in an abstract. The following extracts constitute a move which gives abridged summaries of the associated papers:

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- *To do so, it surveys three theoretically informed categories: appropriation, intertextuality, and authorship, each of which is proving influential in pushing the field of adaptation studies forward. These categories provide us with widely used language that addresses adaptation as a cultural force.* (27)
- *First, I shall state some disadvantages of the mono-skill model of learning. Then, I shall review some advantages of the skill-integration model. An attempt will, then, be made at integrating the two skills of listening and reading through a discourse-processing model of analysis.* (2)

The second noticed practice is to reverse the conventional order of the five rhetorical stages. In all its instances of occurrence, the writers reverse the Introduction and the Purpose moves. This is illustrated below:

- *The general thrust of the present article is to investigate the effects of raising students' discoursal awareness in their learning of grammar* **[Purpose]** *It is argued that teaching grammar through discourse analysis is expected to promote learners' cognitive and contextual involvement in the learning process* **[Introduction]**. (16)
- *This paper aims at shedding light on some theories and views behind meaning transference in metaphor. The main motive behind handling this article is to show the complexity and pervasiveness of this linguistic device* **[Purpose]**. *Metaphor obscures its literal meaning while allowing a new understanding to emerge. Also, it can give concrete illustrations of objects. Most readers find abstractions alien to them that they need a concrete statement such as the one the analogy provides. In fact, metaphor is considered as a powerful device whenever one describes a new situation in terms of what has been described before* **[Introduction]**. (17)

DISCUSSION

By and large, the analysis of the tendencies of the Algerian EFL writers in the composition of the target genre of research article abstracts yielded informative findings. Unpredictably, abstracts are lacking in 21.24% of the papers. Current inquiries on the rhetorical structure of research papers highlight the abstract section of each, with regard to the functional role it plays in 'selling' the paper. On account of its condensed content, this mini-text serves as an easily accessible format of the same work, and it may enhance its reading through its persuasive force. Notwithstanding, the writers of some papers in the corpus failed to increase the readability of their works by omitting abstracts.

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The examination of move frequency and layout in the existing abstracts is revealing. In the first place, it demonstrates that the five generic stages proposed in Hyland's (2000) analytical framework do not appear together in any of the examined texts. Only 18.18% of the texts use four moves jointly. In addition, the writers have the general tendency to predominantly use the Introduction-Purpose move pattern in 33.33% of the abstracts, with the Purpose move highest in proportion (96.96%). This propensity reflects a rhetorical inclination to relatively contextualize research in the Introduction move and indicates that writers regard the purpose as a fundamental element. Inclusion of this move shows the prevailing concern with the expression of intents of the authors, a fact signalling their responsiveness to the magnitude of this move in an abstract. For the abstracts written without a clear purpose, the reader only vaguely perceives the goal behind the associated work. This may discourage readers from selecting the abstract as it may mistakenly seem to fall outside their areas of interest because of its concealed point. The Method, Product, and Conclusion moves have the lowest rates of occurrence in the corpus (42.42%, 24.24%, and 24.24%, respectively). This is an indication of not considering the worth of these sections in the text and hence diminishing the abstracts' representativeness of its accompanying paper. Such empirical evidence on move frequency demonstrates marked deficiencies in the generic structure of the examined texts. In the second place, the scrutiny of move layout signals that many abstracts do show their writers' proficiency in realizing many but not all of the five moves. The issue, however, is that such practices are for the most part only occasional and do not cover the entirety of moves in the same text. Additionally, the examination of the texts points to observed non-conventional forms in realizing single moves. These encompass a range of phenomena covering move length, move overlap, move reiteration, indirect expression, inconsistent internal structuring, hypothesized products, non-conventional summarizing moves and move reversal. The implication of this is that some writers of abstracts do not seem to respect a well-defined generic structure and fail to abide by conciseness, a key feature in a research article abstracts.

Overall, the results of the study have provided evidence on the strenuous demands facing EFL writers in generating abstracts of a conventionally recognized move structure. The observed inconsistencies reflect a relatively deficient conception of the functionality of abstracts as a genre through which writers can abbreviate their papers for easy information access and for promoting the value of their works.

CONCLUSION

In the present chapter, emphasis was placed on examining the structure of research article abstracts, using move analysis, an apparatus which is gaining mounting

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popularity in genre studies and discourse analysis at large. The objective was to investigate Algerian EFL writers' rhetorical tendencies and to assess their compliance with the patterns of organizing abstracts expected in the language studies discourse community. Through the application of Hyland's (2000) five-move model to the data, it was possible to pinpoint common practices and to detect strengths and failings in manipulating the functional moves of the abstract genre by the article authors. Evidence in this study has shown that abstracts, which are conceived as well-written in lexico-grammatical terms, often miss the point for a specialized reader expecting a fixed patterning in the text. Authors' success in academia is tied to achieving well-defined communicative goals by conforming to standards and requirements in text staging. These per se form the schemata of academic discourse by stating what is required in an abstract. Thus, it is stressed that the research article abstract is seen as a self-contained genre with a dissimilar function and structure from its related paper. Writers have to perceive that these mini-texts, if efficiently structured, have the potential to introduce research works to vast readerships and hence to establish the researchers' firm status in their disciplinary community. This communicative purpose cannot be attained unless writers succeed in organizing these texts well.

Generally in the world of international publishing, it is essential that the conventionalized forms of research genres, which materialize in an appropriate textual move structure, are attended to for a good configuration of knowledge. Indeed, abiding by the typical rhetorical moves of research genres permits EFL writers to affirm their affiliations to international research communities by pursuing precise communication practices. Therefore, in the context of teaching writing in EFL or ESL contexts, genre pedagogy ought to be maximized given the necessity of knowing about genres and their internal structuring in today's research world. Writing materials and pedagogies have to move one step beyond teaching formal aspects of texts to teaching functional aspects. To achieve this pedagogical goal in teaching abstracts, for example, writing instructors can, for example, expose learners to texts which exemplify the five moves of Hyland's (2000) model. At this level, it seems essential to explicitly present an array of formal exponents which serve as indicators of particular moves. Such linguistic tools may even be practiced separately to enhance their use in real texts. Further, the canonical five-part sequence within abstracts should be highlighted and linked to the expectations of readers within the academic discourse community. Foregrounding such expectations may lead the learners to structure texts carefully to achieve well-defined communicative purposes, in the case of research article abstracts, the purpose being to present a mini picture of the original paper. Texts ought to be regarded as entities fully situated in the contexts of their use. It is only by broadening the conception of competence to the layer of discourse that writing instruction can meet the needs of English language users in the academy and beyond. At last, comparative strategies with texts in the

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learners' native language may also serve as an effective way to enhance new writing practices among EFL learners.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

The objective of this book is to describe how disciplinary practices create very clear-cut conventions of writing in the variety of scholarly areas, leading to discipline-specific features of texts. The latter cover well-defined textual organization, discourse characteristics and stylistic tendencies, all reflecting conventions in a given discourse community. In this chapter the focus was placed on writing research article abstracts in the discipline of language studies by Algerian academics. To substantiate the present findings about academic writing among Algerian scholars, confining research to language studies and to the abstract genre seems to be too narrow in conception as it provides only a partial indicator of difficulties faced by writers in the various disciplines. On these grounds, further investigations are needed on a whole array of discipline-related genres and sub-genres. The implications of this study fall far beyond the boundaries of the abstract genre. The hypothesized view that learning writing in the academy is learning about genres is endorsed. On the other hand, to implant discipline-specific writing traditions among scholars, the integration of genre awareness into the objectives of writing programmes is cardinal. For advanced writers, teaching writing would seem irrelevant. Thus, in the case of published texts, it is the editors' task to outline the disciplinary communities' textual exigencies clearly. This is thought to be an alternative which can lead writers to observe the disciplinary requirements of writing.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Communicative Purpose: The language user's intention when projecting a piece of discourse.

Discourse Community: A group of people who have the same interests, which determine their discourses.

Genre: An instance of a text (spoken or written) with a characteristic communicative purpose and a distinctive textual organization and lexico-grammatical features.

Genre Pedagogy: The teaching of the wide range of language genres following fixed methodologies.

Move Structure: The sequencing of all the constituent moves of a text.

Research Article Abstract: The summary which appears at the beginning of a research article and whose role is to represent the complete paper in a concise and an engaging manner.

Step: One of the functional constitutive stages of a move in a given genre.

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Chapter 9
Wikipedia Practices, Quick Facts, and Plagiarism in Higher Education

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ABSTRACT

Plagiarism has been a sensitive issue in higher education in Sweden, as many cases were reported during the last years. It depends partly on resources that are devoted to have efficient detection systems, but it is deeply related to how students are prepared for academic exercises. Many freshmen and sophomores are not familiar with academic requirements and can get used to plagiarizing instead of developing critical thinking. The first step in academic writing is to present guidelines to search relevant sources. The chapter is based on an experimentation on sources made at the University of Stockholm with students enrolled in a course in "Culture and Society in France." By inviting students to work with second hand sources such as Wikipedia and evaluate their validity, it is possible to analyze their learning strategies. The result of the study shows a paradox: if students acknowledge that Wikipedia sources are inappropriate in an academic context, they confirm that they use these sources to have access to other references. A reflection on the quick access to sources is then necessary.

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INTRODUCTION

In June 2017, the government of Sweden proposed a digital strategy in order to make Sweden "the world leader in harnessing the opportunities of digital transformation" (Ministry of Enterprise and Innovation N2017.23). One of the objectives was to increase the digital skills in public sector and develop a digital culture. The universities are concerned by this evolution with a lot of digital services that support learning strategies. In fact, plagiarism has increased in Swedish universities in the recent years. For instance, in 2016, the universities had 103 more cases of suspension than in 2015[1]. In 2017, the Swedish Higher Education Authority made a complete report on warnings and suspension cases in ten universities: 248 cases of suspension out of 373 (66%) and 48 warnings out of 117 (41%) were caused by plagiarism[2]. The digitization of many sources may explain this increase (Flowerdew & Li, 2007, p. 163) but at the same time all universities in Sweden use efficient antiplagiarism systems such as *Urkund* or *Turnitin* which can easily detect possible cases of plagiarism (Vilhelmsson, 2010).

Plagiarism is defined as a way of stealing the other's production and covers different cheating strategies such as non-attribution or patchwriting (Howard, 2000; Pecorari, 2016, p. 97), "textual borrowing, textual plagiarism, language re-use and transgressive/non-transgressive intertextuality" (Flowerdew & Li, 2007, p. 164). Most of the students are not always aware of the problem (Power, 2009). Other researchers proposed an accurate definition of what plagiarism is. "This is text that is taken and used without appropriate attribution to its original source. Using text without proper attribution with the intention to deceive is called prototypical plagiarism, whereas in cases where such an intention is irrelevant – textual plagiarism is also used as an umbrella term, covering both prototypical plagiarism and patchwriting" (Chankova, 2014, p. 2). The attention paid to prototypical plagiarism and patchwriting is not only due to ethical aspects but also to methodological precautions in academic writing. The chapter focuses on the hypothesis that the first step in academic writing should cover a discussion on how to find and quote relevant sources in order to produce an academic text. The research will not include oral cases of plagiarism where students read fragments of texts without mentioning the proper sources (Robillard, 2015, p. 202).

Critical thinking is more and more promoted in higher education as an idealistic attitude where students can build an analysis based on knowledge (Wisdom & Leavitt, 2015). The objective of the higher education system is to make the difference between belief, knowledge and ideology in order to create critical citizens (Bowell & Kemp, 2015, p. 267). This attitude implies to find out relevant learning strategies to develop this critical perspective to "minimize the risk of plagiarism or cheating, to ensure that at least part of the response to tasks is entirely the individual's own

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work" (James, 2018, p. 44). There is a cognitive dilemma as critical thinking is an attitude based on facts that students should know in order to be able to discuss a specific topic. The students have to secure a common path where they can discuss more complicated questions in the field (Premat, 2019a). The first step is to help students to memorize and recall facts that will be reused in elaborated discussions. To some extent, memorizing is similar to plagiarizing, but it depends on how we define facts. The problem is to help students to learn these basic facts and evaluate the sources. The first level of critical thinking consists in securing these basic facts as well as the sources. In Sweden, the notion of source criticism is very important as it is highlighted in the high school but the challenge is to make students conscious about the quick access to facts that they can have with Internet. There are several platforms and systems that serve facts that everybody can read such as *Wikipedia* and *Nationalencyklopedi*. The students know that these platforms are not always reliable and that they should not be included in an academic essay. This is one of the reasons that can cause plagiarism as they might use some of these sources without daring citing them. The chapter presents an experimentation that was made in course of French ("Culture and Society in France") during three semesters between Spring 2018 and Spring 2019 at Stockholm University. The objective is to help students to use Wikipedia in a critical way in order to support source criticism in academic writing in French (Premat, 2018b, p. 4)[3].

BACKGROUND

Wikipedia presents itself as an online community that aims to share knowledge with an open and free access to anonymous articles on almost everything (actors, concepts, theories, phenomena and so on) (Jemielniak, 2014). Wikipedia is built on the principle of permanent evaluation and update of contents (Andrew, 2009), which is a challenge for academic knowledge that is based upon stability of facts and arguments. For teachers, it is a real pedagogical problem as the content of an article can evolve quite rapidly (Tkacz, 2015) and prevent a synchronized relation between what students learn and what is written in these articles. This is why the choice of articles in Wikipedia is important considering the course and the level of the students. The difficulty here is that students have to learn a new foreign language as well as academic practices. It is sometimes the dissociation of both aspects that make them repeat and plagiarize contents in a foreign language without being aware of that. The claim here is that plagiarism prevention cannot be efficient if there is no reflection on the different learning strategies. It is impossible to discuss if there are no minimal common facts that are shared by the participants. Sometimes, these facts can be ideologically validated in the discourse but the objective is to build

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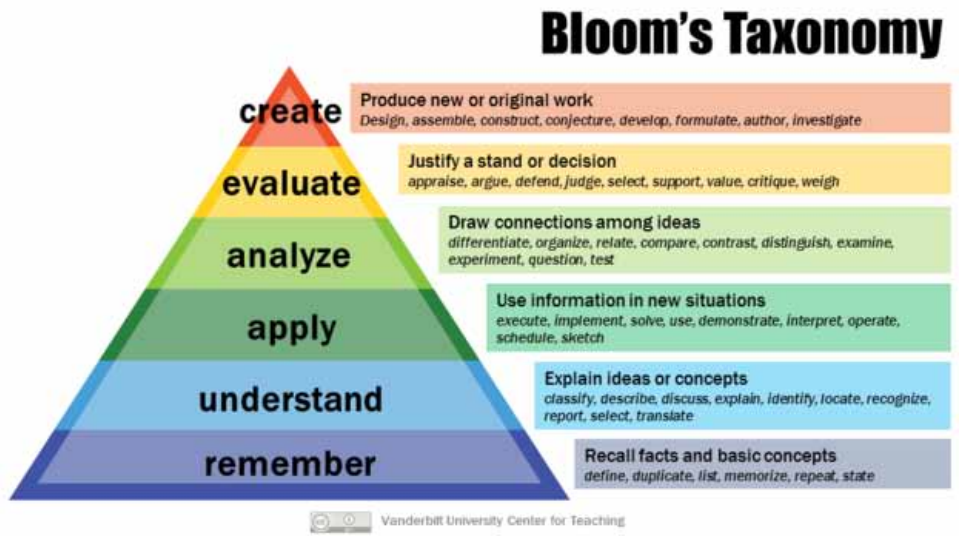
Figure 1. Presentation of the principles of Bloom's taxonomy updated with the digital revolution

Source: https://cft.vanderbilt.edu/guides-sub-pages/blooms-taxonomy/ (Armstrong, 2018, retrieved from 20 June 2019). The image is reusable under Common Creative Licence.



basic facts as well as a critical attitude in the beginning. Fairclough prefers to deal with the notion of "background knowledge" to analyze how participants interact in a discussion by validating a common reference framework (Fairclough, 2013, p. 31). In academic practices, the facts depend on a common knowledge that require students' ability to memorize them in order to sustain critical thinking. Figure 1 summarizes the last update of Bloom's taxonomy concerning the process of knowledge acquisition.

In the analysis of the learning path, there are several important steps and the first one is constituted by remembering procedures. Students catch some basic facts, memorize and repeat them (Bloom, 1956). Repeating facts is not exactly similar to plagiarizing them but the student remembers in an active way whereas plagiarizing is just copying and editing a content. In Bloom's taxonomy, all the steps are related to each other as students remember facts and begin to analyze how they would reuse these concepts in a discussion.

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MAIN FOCUS OF THE CHAPTER

In the course "Culture and society in France", we introduced some basic facts about French culture and society to establish a common reference framework. The students had to mobilize the two first steps of Bloom's taxonomy, remembering and understanding. There were other presentations of Bloom's taxonomy (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001) and other scholars discuss the necessity of establishing factual knowledge before reaching a higher order learning (Agarwal, 2019, p. 191). Some researchers contest the efficiency of using Bloom's taxonomy to facilitate learning strategies as many verbs can describe a wide range of strategies of acquisition (Stanny, 2016, p. 5). In the present study, the best plagiarism prevention is to use the taxonomy and explain the difference between remembering basic facts and reproducing something that is neither understood in a context nor defined. A discussion on sources is one of the keys to address the cognitive dilemma between reproductive strategies (the student imitates in order to acquire basic facts) and plagiarism issues (the student copies and edits contents without proper control on the sources).

State of the Art

Many researchers decided to analyze the students' perceptions in order to understand how to build efficient strategies of plagiarism prevention (Carroll, 2003; McGowan, 2005; East, 2009; Fish & Hura, 2013) whereas others think that teacher in higher education should anticipate more this problem as plagiarism occurs more often than we believe (Eret & Gokmenoglu, 2010, p. 3305). It is also necessary to distinguish the different kinds of knowledge in order to deepen the discussion on the learning strategies: there are "the factual knowledge", "the conceptual knowledge", "the procedural knowledge" and "the metacognitive knowledge" (Krathwohl, 2002, p. 217). The factual knowledge is linked to the remembering process where the students have to learn basic facts that are necessary for other types of knowledge. In the factual knowledge, it is possible to focus on the "terminology" and the "specific details and elements" (Armstrong, 2018) of the field. At this point, the student positions himself/herself in the field and knows the first elements of an academic discourse. For students' practices, the acquisition of the terminology requires a new way of expressing ideas (Hyland, 2009, p. 126) and this level is more difficult for students that have to learn a foreign language. The notion of basic facts should be defined in a more accurate way as they are related to the common nouns and verbs of the field (Premat, 2018a). In the field of cultural studies in French, the basic facts include historical dates, actors and structures (main ideas, symbols) that build a framework of common references (Premat, 2019a). In the first level of factual knowledge, the critical attitude on sources can be trained as an important modality

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of academic writing. Recent research points out the possibilities of reinforcing collaborative writing that would influence the content of Wikipedia as well as the practices in higher education (Bordel, Pilar, & Mareca, 2017). The students' habits with Wikipedia are also empirically studied with surveys and are analyzed with cognitive approaches (Blikstad-Balas, 2016).

METHOD

The analysis of students' reactions to platforms of quick facts such as Wikipedia can be seen as a part of research made on literacy practices (Blikstad-Balas, 2016, p. 596). Literary practices refers to how people proceed to learn facts and reflect about them. The study of students' learning strategies is also a component of an adequate scholarship of teaching and learning (Bozalek et al., 2017) as it helps scholars and students to feel part of the same academic community.

It is always a challenge to collect the students' perceptions through a survey or interviews. As the frequency of responses is generally quite low, we decided to adopt a new method which would affect the course and the learning strategies of the students. The course "Culture and Society in France" is given at the first level for 7.5 credits at Stockholm University inside a program of 30 credits (French I). According to the European Framework of Reference for Foreign Languages, the students are expected to have a B1 level in French with basic literary and cultural references. The course "Culture and Society in France" aimed at securing the acquisition of minimal cultural references so that the students understand the contexts where the French language is spoken. They have to know historical facts on the emergence of France as a nation, the important events in the modern history, the symbols, the actors and some key concepts (secularization). The previous research showed that there could be cultural bias in the texts regarding famous persons (Callahan & Herring, 2011). In the course description, we can find the following sentences: "Cultural knowledge addresses historical, social and geographical factors that characterize French society and are essential for understanding the country's institutions, cultural expressions and mentalities. By acquiring knowledge about societal factors and socio-cultural expressions, conditions are provided for taking advantage of and in a broader perspective anchoring the skills in literature and language proficiency that other French-speaking courses aim at"[4]. The list of expected learning outcomes reveals a mixture of factual knowledge and conceptual knowledge. According to these outcomes, the student has to "1) demonstrate knowledge of culture, history, geography and social relations mainly concerning France in modern times 2) identify issues relating to modern French society from a cultural science perspective 3) account for important French cultural expressions in an international perspective 4)

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develop source criticism 5) demonstrate knowledge of culture and social relations in France"[5]. The course includes a document presenting the basic facts to memorize and a plan of thematic lessons concerning the presentation of France.

The experiment was made during three semesters between Spring 2018 and Spring 2019 and the course literature included six Wikipedia links on basic facts that were selected by the teacher[6]. Some students were a little bit surprised to see the inclusion of Wikipedia articles as a part of the course literature. The links were followed by a series of questions that the students had to prepare. The adoption of a flipped classroom method allowed to focus on the difficulties that the students encountered during the preparation. The course included written examinations on these basic facts where a question in English was included on the Wikipedia sources: "To prepare this exam, you had to read different Wikipedia articles. What can you say about these sources? Would you quote a Wikipedia source in an academic essay? Why? Answer this question in Swedish or in English and take concrete examples (2 points)". The idea was to analyze the students' perceptions on sources such as Wikipedia and train their metacognitive knowledge by examining the given sources for the class. The second answer on Wikipedia and academic practices is essential as the students had to pronounce themselves on the way they used these references and whether they would dare citing them in an academic essay.

The answers were completed by three semi-structured interviews conducted during Spring 2018 with students on their academic writing as well as one interview with a professional from Wikimedia Sweden that was made earlier during January 2018. Some parts of the course evaluation (Fall 2018) will also be taken to control the analysis of the students' reactions on the use of Wikipedia sources in an academic context. Regarding the ethical aspects on the students' answers, they were anonymized and only used in a perspective research according to the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). The GDPR reminds in its article 5 that "personal data shall be collected for specified, explicit and legitimate purposes and not further processed in a manner that is incompatible with those purposes"[7]. Table 1 shows the gender of the students that took part in the experimentation.

Table 1. Gender of the students who took part in the experimentation

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Women	47	62.7
Men	28	37.3
Total	75	100

Source: own sample

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Furthermore, 69% of the students had a Swedish background whereas 31% had a multicultural background and 52% of the students were born after 1993 (the average birth date for the sample was 1988). The answers of the students were encoded in order to be analyzed statistically. The use of quantitative methods is here necessary to see whether the students' discourse on Wikipedia articles depends on other factors such as the age, the gender, the nationality and the grade for the exam. The age, the gender, the nationality and the grade were taken here as the independent variables whereas the students' discourse was the dependent variable.

RESULTS

It was possible to classify the answers produced by the students in five categories, the ones who had a negative discourse (they absolutely refuse to use Wikipedia sources in an academic essay), the ones who had a relatively negative discourse (they often balance their answer with a consideration on Wikipedia as a useful tool), the ones who had a neutral attitude (they might hesitate to quote a Wikipedia source but they acknowledge its validity to search information), the ones who had a relatively positive discourse (they would maybe cite a Wikipedia source but they would double-check the information) and finally the ones who had a positive attitude. Table 2 summarizes the different categories of answers (4 students out of 75 did not answer the question on Wikipedia sources).

It is worth noting that students tend to develop a negative discourse on Wikipedia sources as 73% of them have either a negative or neutral approach by not citing any Wikipedia source. Almost 24% of the students have a negative discourse as if they were taught that Wikipedia sources and academic writing were not compatible. Of course,

Table 2. Categorization of students' discourses on Wikipedia sources

Discourse on Wikipedia sources	Frequency	Percentage	Cumulated percentage
Negative discourse	17	23.9	23.9
Relatively negative discourse	20	28.2	52.1
Neutral discourse	15	21.1	73.2
Relatively positive discourse	12	16.9	90.1
Positive discourse	7	9.9	100
Total	71	100	

Source: own work obtained with the Stata software

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the students narratives can also be commented in order to identify what a negative discourse on Wikipedia practices means. For instance, one student answered the question in the following manner: "1 – some hotly contested articles can be sabotaged by 'trolls' (usually they can only be modified by trusted moderators). 2- Wikipedia is not a primary source of information and articles may show the personal bases of the writers. Better to check the sources yourself"[8]. Here, there is no discussion about the Wikipedia sources given in the course but rather a rejection of Wikipedia as a global format. It is not "a primary source" and according to the student, an academic essay should include primary sources. These findings corroborate previous studies and surveys made on the "credibility issues" (Blikstad-Balas, 2016, p. 600).

The student is aware of how Wikipedia works but perceives that as an ongoing manipulation of facts and concepts (the word 'trolls" is very negative in that perspective). Another classical negative discourse on Wikipedia sources mentions the constant possibility of changing the content of an article. "Wikipedia is not a good source because anyone can edit anything on these. One can write something without citing their sources. If you want to use Wikipedia you should always go to the main source and use that one instead"[9]. The term "anyone" refers to the anonymous process as there is no visible author that writes an article. Here, the teacher can help the students to cite website material where the author does not explicitly appear.

It is commented in that way by another negative discourse: "Wikipedia is not always considered as a trustful source as it is controlled by several people and it is not always accurate. Therefore, it is not beneficial for a student to use it as a source in an academic work"[10]. The claim here is really important as it is not possible to trace the authorship and as a matter of fact, it can be difficult to cite an article without knowing anything on the profile of the author. Wikipedia is built as a form of informal and horizontal community (O'Sullivan, 2009) where the contributors are anonymous and can have different roles (reviewers, moderators and sometimes censors). Most of the answers refer to the anonymity argument with a suspicion on the legitimacy of the Wikipedia sources. A relative positive answer modifies the argument and focuses on the strategy: "I read them [Wikipedia sources] in a clear and cautious manner, especially for the details that I was interested in. A Wikipedia source can be cited and referred to, even if you do not who the author is. A source is better than nothing"[11]. In this remark, the student referred to the specific Wikipedia sources that had to be read in the course. According to him, Wikipedia offers the possibilities to deepen the reflection on specific facts and a Wikipedia source is not optimal for an academic essay, but a Wikipedia source can be a default source when no other sources are mentioned. Even in a relatively positive discourse, the student is not really confident in the content of Wikipedia articles. It explains why only 9.9% of the respondents have a positive discourse.

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In other negative discourses, the students detail their learning strategies in the course. "I have read Wikipedia with great attention given how they are written. In some cases, I have been looking for other types of sources to 'double check'. Usually, I would NEVER quote nor use Wikipedia as a source but in this course I understand the point because there is a lot of information on relatively little and easy-to-read text. However, I try to be extremely source critical and if the opportunity exists, I find another source to refer to"[12]. This student is convinced that Wikipedia sources are illegitimate and was compelled to refer to other sources to double check the information present in Wikipedia. At the same time, she mentioned the language and the utility of having some readable texts to have access to basic facts. Nevertheless, other discourses revealed a form of dissonance on that point, confirming the complexity of the question that was revealed in previous studies (Blikstad-Balas, 2016, p. 601). It is a good strategy to use a Wikipedia source in order to evaluate the conceptual landscape linked to a notion or a fact but it is not acceptable to cite a Wikipedia source in an academic context. This is a very important result as it tends to illustrate the learning strategies that could to some extent lead to plagiarism habits.

Most of the students go through Wikipedia articles to have access to other sources, they are influenced by Wikipedia articles but they seem to have learnt an academic hostility towards Wikipedia which is more judged in its format. The students reproduce an academic position but they recognize that Wikipedia could be helpful to have an idea on a new question. This is why the discussion is important as Wikipedia could be used as a pedagogical tool to simplify some problems and help the students to memorize basic facts. The contrast between the habit to look Wikipedia articles and the negative discourse on the citation of Wikipedia articles in an academic context reveals a strong dilemma that students already have in a digital culture where it is easy to have a quick access to facts. A student that has a relative positive discourse on the use of Wikipedia confirmed that contrast: "I would not quote Wikipedia in an academic essay because I was taught it was not a credible source, but I would use it as a starting point to get a better understanding of the subject and have some guidelines. However, for this civilization course, I think Wikipedia is helpful because of the reasons stated above, but also because the information is offered in multiple languages. I especially used Wikipedia to find out more about the political parties in France and the duties of the President"[13]. This student makes a difference between the reception of a negative academic discourse and the concrete way she used Wikipedia to get more factual information about politics in France. In other words, she botanized in Wikipedia to reinforce her factual knowledge and have more details on the context. At this level, the use of secondary sources is enough as the goal is to secure the acquisition of basic facts. Furthermore, the mixture of Wikipedia articles in different languages helped the student to compare contents and understand these facts. In an academic course in a foreign language, Wikipedia

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offers real opportunities to improve the acquisition of the terminology (Hyland, 2009, p. 126). During a half-structured interview with a student using Wikipedia, the question of contents of multiple languages was dealt with. The student said that she compared the articles on a specific person in different languages and noticed that there was more information in the target language[14]. Another student compared the use of Wikipedia with googling practices. It is as easy to google information as to use Wikipedia, it is an unavoidable starting point to have a first summary and synopsis on what is going to be studied[15]. This empirical finding confirms previous research made on Wikipedia practices (Blikstad-Balas, 2016, p. 599).

Some students also pointed out the fact that Wikipedia articles were not adapted to a pedagogical acquisition of facts. As the articles are written in a cumulative way, most of the facts are aggregated with many links and it can be difficult to select the appropriate information for the course. One student said that reading practices are not linear as the information is presented in different elements on a Wikipedia page. The student can have a quick look on the information but there is no clear pedagogical layout. The argument often comes back among students that have a negative discourse on Wikipedia as a whole. The factual knowledge is all the more difficult to get with Wikipedia articles as the content is never static. On the contrary, most of the students that have a positive attitude towards Wikipedia use the sources that are referenced at the end of the articles. They would not necessarily quote a Wikipedia article but they would learn basic facts and check the references that are indicated at the end. The use of sources has also been evolved in Wikipedia as the professional of Wikimedia Sweden told us in a half-structured interview[16]. According to the professional, Wikipedia has developed a critical attitude on the sources to avoid more ideological contents. She also mentioned the fact that it would be soon possible to have primary sources with Wikipedia. The Creative Common policies are important to share knowledge and help people to learn more about contexts, facts, concepts and research (Lamlert, 2014). The half-structured interview showed the presentation of an idealistic discourse on Wikipedia which can be a seen as a support to communicate the research results that are obtained in the Academy. Some Wikipedia articles are written by researchers and Wikimedia Sweden encourages students to produce contents. The question of the Creative Commons is really interesting as many students might think that it is acceptable to reuse the content of Wikipedia as the articles are anonymous. It is important here to discuss about the authorship and what the Creative Common policies imply. This is why it could be important to show students how they could cite important Wikipedia articles for the field in a proper manner.

Even though the number of observations was quite limited (71 observations), we tested a logistic regression to see whether some factors might explain the rejection of Wikipedia in an academic context. Table 3 illustrates the evolution of the variables

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Table 3. The explanatory factors for the academic rejection of Wikipedia sources

Probit regression **Log likelihood = -31.454114**			**Number of observations = 71** Likelihood Ration chi2 (4) = 15.25 Prob > chi2 = 0.0042 **Pseudo R2 = 0.1951**			
Discourse	**Coefficient**	**Standard**	**z**	**P> |z|**	**[95% Conf. Interval]**	**Interval**
Gender	-.6638592	.3856492	-1.72	0.085 (*)	-1.419718	.0919993
Nationality	.3836987	.4320753	0.89	0.375	-.4631532	1.230551
Grade	-.5919712	.222973	-2.65	0.008 (**)	-1.02899	-.1549522
Birth date	-.0308625	.0169196	-1.82	0.068 (*)	-.0640243	.0022994
-Const.	64.81564	33.93238	1.91	0.056	-1.690612	131.3219

For the significative results P<0.01 (**) / P<0.1 (*)

Source: predictive model obtained with the Stata software

but the result is to be interpreted in a cautious way as the model is valid for less than 20% of the cases (Pseudo R2).

The women seem to tend a little bit more towards a positive discourse on the use of Wikipedia in an academic context (52.2% of them rejected the possible use of Wikipedia) but the gender does not affect the appropriation of an academic discourse. The age has an influence on the discourse on Wikipedia as the more positive the discourse is, the elder the student is. It can illustrate the fact that freshmen and sophomore have learnt to reject Wikipedia from the possible sources to quote in an academic essay. In the Swedish high school, the notion of source criticism (*källkritik* in Swedish) is important in the different course syllabi[17]. Not surprisingly, the performance of the students is the most significant variable for the propension to have a positive discourse on Wikipedia. The better the grade, the more negative the discourse is. 63% of the students that had the grade A for the exam had a negative discourse whereas 7 students out of 9 who got a D were neutral or positive towards Wikipedia sources. The students who performed well feel more secured about the facts to learn and therefore do not need to limit themselves to Wikipedia sources. They use Wikipedia as a starting point but do not stay longer with those references whereas other students who did not perform so well can find some utility with those sources. Once again, this model has to be tested with more cases during a few years to see if the model can predict a critical distance when the student succeeds with the different academic exercises. The cultural background does not have any effect on the production of the discourse in this sample.

This investigation is important to know the attitude that teachers can have on these kinds of sources that give a quick access to facts. If the students perform well, they might neglect to cite those kinds of sources as they feel secured with other

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sources. However, they are influenced by the series of references that are present in Wikipedia articles. It could be important to invite them to select one or two references to cite so that they give an accurate summary of their research. For other students who have difficulties with the contents, the teacher can help them to identify the information in these articles. These students will be invited to quote Wikipedia articles to learn how to quote and how to make research. It is important to have discussions on sources in the classroom so that these students develop real learning strategies. The strongest risk for plagiarism is when students naturalize Wikipedia practices without questioning how they had an access to the information. The course evaluation included a question on the sources with the following question: "Do you think that you have control on the sources that you use at the university? How do you prepare an essay? What kind of sources do you use?"[18]. Most of the students make the difference between primary and secondary sources, they recognize the necessity of travelling in different sources (YouTube short movies, documentaries…) to have an idea about a topic and then they use just academic sources to write an academic text. One of the answers describes a pragmatic strategy: "Yes, mostly. Why one always has to work within the parameters set by existing sources (unless one conducts scientific experiments which may constitute new, unique sources), in the end the author of a paper is the one that ultimately selects the sources. When I prepare an essay, I gather as much pertinent information as I can about the subject and then I try to find the root sources of these pieces of information. Afterwards, I attempt to assess the level of reliability of these root sources, considering who wrote them, what their credentials are, what their biases may be, and how respected they are within their field"[19]. The description is here interesting as the student is conscious about the contrast between the access to many sources and the selection of relevant sources for the final production. "In the end the author is the one that ultimately selects the sources" insists on the responsibility of each author. If it is not possible to cite all the used sources, the selection is important so that the student has more knowledge about the context and the key concepts. During the class, the teacher might take more time to talk about the relation between the phase 1 (quick access to facts) and the phase 2 (selection of relevant sources for the final production). If the students have a quick access to facts, they should diversify the research possibilities to make sure that they can choose the most relevant sources. In academic exercises at a basic level, the consequences may not be important, but it is the opportunity for the teachers to help students to make these choices. In advanced levels, the relation between phases 1 and 2 is identified to the state of the art where the student is supposed to know the existing debates before taking a scientific position.

The result of the current investigation enlightens the learning strategies of the students and it is therefore necessary to introduce more discussions in class around sources without transmitting an academic discourse on the legitimate sources.

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Wikipedia practices illustrate the fact that the students have a quick access to secondary sources and it is almost impossible to avoid this contact. By stimulating a metacognitive discussion (De Backer et al, 2017, p. 618) with students, the teacher can reinforce source criticism which is the first step to succeed in academic writing. The teacher can come back to these platforms of quick facts (which is similar to a quick access to basic facts) after the class to let the students the possibility to evaluate the content of the Wikipedia articles. Sometimes, they can realize the contrast between the sources, sometimes they can recognize that the secondary source was well presented and useful to learn the basic facts. From this investigation, we would like to make a few recommendations to facilitate a discussion on source criticism which is the most efficient manner to way to avoid the development of a culture of plagiarism among students.

SOLUTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is necessary for teacher in higher education to know the content of specific Wikipedia articles related to the field of the course.

1. Do not take the first access to facts for granted. The students have to be aware that there is a plurality of platforms that standardize the access to knowledge. Googling a concept or something else might be natural but this practice should also be questioned in order to awake a critical attitude.
2. The teacher should introduce a discussion on learning strategies and sources. Source criticism is linked to the metacognitive knowledge where students are able to question the way they learn new facts.
3. Use metacognitive questions in exams to have metadata that are really useful to know more about the students' learning strategies.
4. Introduce an active discussion on plagiarism and citation. By being aware of the gap between the use of Wikipedia articles and the interiorization of a negative discourse on their citation, the students can avoid problems of plagiarism.
5. Encourage students to diversify the nature of sources in academic writing (digital sources, books, interviews…).
6. Remind the difference between primary and secondary sources.
7. Do not have a discourse on Wikipedia as a global standard. Let the students make their opinion on specific articles. Try to take some articles and point out the difference between the presentation of facts and possible ideological discourses.
8. Introduce discussions with students on the difference between popular facts and basic facts.

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9. Show the students how they can quote a Wikipedia article in a proper way (content, date of consultation, language).
10. Use the guidelines edited by Academic libraries that give tips to students on how to make an efficient research.

FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

It is important to have more research on Wikipedia articles that influence the knowledge acquisition. The relation between other primary and secondary sources is determined by the consultation of Wikipedia articles. The relation between academic writing and Wikipedia should be deepened to see whether teachers and students relate popular facts to scientific facts. Some researchers write in Wikipedia to influence the perception of some scientific problems in a synthetic way but the objectives of Wikipedia differ from the academic goals. The emergence of an Open Access culture (Weller, 2014) would maybe avoid the clash between Wikipedia and the academic discourse as the students would have a direct access to research articles. For advanced levels, it might be problematic to use Wikipedia articles as primary sources have to be privileged. In the Open Access culture, the feedback is really important to improve the quality of academic writing. Wikipedia is an online community that promotes constant feedback to improve the quality of articles in order to affect the common knowledge of people. Some researchers work on the conception of assignments based on Wikipedia. The students are required to write and can benefit from feedbacks coming outside the academic community (Wannemacher, 2009; Vetter et al., 2019). The discussion should be made to see if these practices empower students' knowledge acquisition or if they might encourage cheating and plagiarism attitudes. Some researchers perceive Wikipedia as an opportunity to learn peer review habits among students (Black, 2008).

Other research is made on the conception of Wikipedia articles to see whether the ideological contents tend to influence the reception of contents (Greenstein & Zhu, 2012, p. 347). The so-called neutrality of Wikipedia should be discussed in details so that teachers can help students to select the most appropriate articles for the course. The profile of Wikipedia authors should also be studied in order to see how the Wikipedia communities work and regulate the edition of contents (Lanamäki & Lindman, 2017). It could be interesting to analyze Wikipedia authors' perceptions on the academic discourse to cross the perspectives and discuss the relation between popular and basic facts. Popular facts can include propositions that people tend to believe whereas basic facts refer to common facts that were checked.

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CONCLUSION

By analyzing in a systematic way the students' perceptions on contents that they immediately find on the internet, it is possible to awake critical discussions about an adequate use of sources. It is really important to encourage these pedagogical discussions as most of the time plagiarism is often dealt with as an administrative issue at the beginning of a course. If the consequences are presented to the students (disciplinary board), not much is said about how to avoid plagiarism especially when all of them have access to digital sources. The experimentation made on Wikipedia practices reveal a problematic gap between consulted sources and quoted sources. To some extent, students might be more affected by the presentation of primary sources in Wikipedia articles than the real content of these primary sources. If it is not possible to cite all used sources, a concrete selection of sources is necessary to work with an academic assignment. The gap might also indicate that students are unconsciously more subject to adopt plagiarism habits. This is why the first step of critical thinking is source criticism in order to reach a decent factual knowledge that would help students to progress. The paradox is that students who perform well are more disposed to have a negative discourse on Wikipedia articles even if they use these references to have access to other sources. They would never dare quoting a Wikipedia article but they are influenced by the content of these articles. This is why there is a need to explain what the access to quick facts implies. For students who do not perform well, the critical distance to the content of these articles is necessary and can be done with a textual comparison with other sources.

As a consequence of the experimentation, a short movie in Swedish was created to alert the students of the temptation to have access to quick facts[20]. If there are many resources available for students at the library, it is important to introduce regular metacognitive discussions on sources so that they improve their ability of criticizing sources. Critical thinking is a generic competency that is trained in different academic courses, it is not dependent on specific fields (Davies, 2013). The teachers have a certain responsibility in helping students to develop academic practices. It does not mean that they have to adopt a global suspicious discourse on the incompatibility between Wikipedia and the academic goals. It is impossible to have this attitude as it depends on the entries. We can make Wikipedia enter the classroom even if it is not sufficient to botanize Wikipedia articles to reach an advanced level. These articles can be a support for the acquisition of factual knowledge. In this perspective, it would be easy to have a "constructive alignment" (Hunt & Chalmers, 2012) between the teacher and his/her students where they have the impression to share some common references.

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KEY TERMS AND DEFINITIONS

Basic Facts: Facts that are necessary to have a discussion on common references. The historical events are an example of basic facts that students can acquire in a course of cultural studies.

Factual Knowledge: Acquisition process of basic facts.

Patchwriting Strategies: Practices that borrow and mix fragments of texts without making proper citations.

Popular Facts: Facts that are mixed with beliefs and that can be used in ideological discourses.

Prototypical Plagiarism: Use of a text without a proper attribution.

Quick Facts: It refers here to the quick access to facts that everyone can have with platforms such as Wikipedia or the Swedish National Encyclopedia.

Source Criticism: Attitude that consists in questioning and investigating sources. Source criticism is a part of critical thinking.

ENDNOTES

1 https://www.thelocal.se/20170606/record-number-of-swedish-university-students-caught-cheating (Accessed on 22 June 2019).

2 https://www.uka.se/download/18.a8c22c2167c579aee5b60e/1549380166662/tillsyns-pm-2019-02-05-disciplinarenden-kvinnor-och-man.pdf (Accessed on 22 June 2019).

3 The present study was conducted within the role of pedagogical ambassador in 2018 for the Centre for the Advancement of University Teaching of Stockholm University.

4 Course description ”Culture and Society in France”, Fall 2018, Stockholm University. See https://sisu.it.su.se/pdf_creator/28224/40803 (Accessed on 25 June 2019).

5 Course description ”Culture and Society in France”, Fall 2018, Stockholm University.

6 https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Emblèmes_de_la_France; (https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Histoire_de_France; https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cinquième_République_(France); https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Discrimination_des_femmes_en_France; https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Histoire_de_la_laïcité_en_France (Accessed on 26 June 2019)

7 https://gdpr-info.eu/art-5-gdpr/ (Accessed on 26 June 2019).

8 Student’s answer (Fall 2018).

9 Student’s answer (Fall 2018).

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10 Student's answer (Spring 2018).

11 Student's answer (Spring 2018), translated from Swedish into English.

12 Student's answer (Spring 2018), translated from Swedish into English. The student wrote NEVER in big capitals to accentuate the rejection of Wikipedia articles in academic sources.

13 Student's answer (Spring 2018).

14 Interview with student 3, 18 May 2018.

15 Interview with student 2, 25 April 2018. The interview with student 1 (6 April 2018) showed a translation strategy where the student prefers to read a Wikipedia article in English to be able to select the most important information in French. Then, she used the articles in French to have the adequate terminology.

16 Interview with a professional working in Wikimedia Sweden, 22 January 2018.

17 https://www.skolverket.se/skolutveckling/inspiration-och-stod-i-arbetet/stod-i-arbetet/kallkritik-i-gymnasieskolan#h-Forskningomkallkritik (Accessed on 27 June 2019). There is an information from the Swedish National Agency for Education on how to develop source criticism at school.

18 Course evaluation, Spring 2019 ("Culture and Society in France"). 13 anonymous evaluations were received and analyzed.

19 One of the answers in the course evaluation (Spring 2019, "Culture and Society in France").

20 https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pCd0oAJlxyI (Accessed on 26 June 2019). Video production, Jonas Collin.

21 http://www.privacy-regulation.eu/en/article-6-lawfulness-of-processing-GDPR.htm (Last visit, 20 July 2019).

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Conclusion

It was stated in the introductory section of this volume that academic writing is not uniform. It follows a set of conventions that develop from repeated practices in the disciplines. For this reason, when writing academically, one has to abide by fixed standards and has to observe the demands of the discourse community of each discipline. *Teaching Academic Writing as a Discipline-Specific Skill in Higher Education* is intended to be a book which surveys the "ways of writing" in higher education in a variety of scholarly environments. In line with this conception of disciplinarity in academic writing, the major goals of this book were (1) to depict the way disciplinary practices provide a framework for writing in the various scholastic areas, creating discipline-specific features of texts, (2) to explore the particular difficulties that confront writers in the disciplines, and (3) to shed some light on the endeavors of educational institutions to develop discipline-specific writing traditions among practicing and novice scholars. In the light of these goals, the chapters in this volume have covered a range of issues related to academic writing in the disciplines in higher education. As Prof. LeTourneau noted in the preface section, what characterizes the studies in this collection is also the diversity in the methodological frameworks.

Chapter 1 served as a resource which broadly clarified how writing varies from one discipline to another and highlighted, through empirical evidence, the significance of its teaching in higher education institutions. In addition to this inclusive introductory chapter, some authors in this collection have tried, using a medley of analytical tools, to demonstrate discipline-specific features of various types of academic texts. Chapter 2, for instance, examined the use of engagement resources in applied linguistics academic genres. In Chapter 6, the focus was on the rhetorical organization of letters of application in the discipline of accounting and finance, while in Chapter 7 it was placed on the use of metadiscourse markers in dissertations by MATESOL students. Finally, Chapter 8 highlighted move structure in the genre of research article abstracts in English studies. Taken together, these studies have supported the idea that disciplines exert a shaping force on texts, but most importantly they have demonstrated that students and academics in ESL/EFL

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contexts do encounter difficulties in using such discipline-specific features when writing academic texts.

In addition to the previous set of chapters, three chapters have explored subjects related to the third goal of the book. The author of Chapter 3, for example, has innovatively attempted to underscore the benefit of teaching students to write extremely short stories (ESS) in bridging some aspects of academic writing. In Chapter 4, the authors paid special attention to how university librarians can provide information resources to support academic writing endeavors at the tertiary level. Chapter 5 has particularly stressed the utility of discipline-specific revision practices in the writing process and in the formation of scholarly identity. Finally, Chapter 9 discussed the issue of plagiarism in higher education contexts with a practical set of implications for undergraduate students when using research resources.

The editors of *Teaching Academic Writing as a Discipline-Specific Skill in Higher Education* find this collection of papers a very concrete illustration of the perspectives of research on disciplinary academic writing. The book targets in the first place practicing scholars in various contexts whose concern is to fathom the levels at which academic writing conventions diverge across the disciplines. Additionally, the book provides further input to researchers on academic writing as it adds fresh evidence from real contexts to the rapidly growing body of knowledge on disciplinarity in writing. The recommendations offered by the chapter authors also could serve as down-to-earth solutions to some current challenges in teaching academic writing in the disciplines. At the end, future research directions appear at the end of every paper, giving prospects to other researchers in the field to build a larger edifice of knowledge on the book theme, which is certainly the concern of many other scholars in the world.

The editors

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Index

A

academic discipline 20, 158
academic genres 7, 24, 129, 132, 146, 153, 158, 171, 180
academic librarians 80, 82, 84-85, 88, 92
academic libraries 82-84, 90
academic writing 1-4, 7, 9-16, 21, 24, 27, 48, 55-57, 59-60, 62-63, 68, 70, 72-73, 80, 83-84, 86-89, 91-92, 96, 100, 102, 129-130, 138, 152, 157-158, 165, 170-171, 177, 180-181, 195, 200-202, 205-207, 213-214
Accounting and Finance 129-130, 133-135, 138-139, 144, 146, 148
anaphora 69, 78
Appraisal Theory 23, 25-27, 31, 33, 49, 54

B

basic facts 202-204, 206, 209-210, 213-214, 221
Bloom's taxonomy 203-204
boosters 6-7, 31, 155, 162-165, 168-169, 175

C

cataphora 70, 78
cognitive dilemma 202, 204
cohesion 32, 57, 69-70, 78, 135
communicative purpose 20, 181, 194, 199
Conceptual Thinking 78
concise 56, 78-79, 187, 199
contrastive rhetoric 23-24, 32, 47, 54, 131-132
Contrastive Rhetoric Hypothesis 23-24, 47, 54
corpus 34-35, 38-39, 41-44, 72, 78, 158, 182-183, 185, 187, 190-193
cultural differences 131-132

D

disciplinary writing 3, 13, 15, 20, 99, 101-102, 109, 111-112, 114-115, 123, 128
discipline 7-8, 13, 20, 24-25, 48, 56, 60, 73, 99-103, 107, 109, 111-113, 115-118, 120, 123-124, 128, 130, 135, 152-153, 157-158, 182, 195
discourse community 4, 20, 24, 39, 45-47, 102, 112, 121, 128, 152, 177-179, 194-195, 199

E

EAP 2, 16, 20, 48, 130, 132, 180
EFL discourse 32, 39, 47-48
emerging scholars 100-102, 104, 107, 124
Enculturation/Acculturation/Initiation 20
Endophora 69, 78
English for Academic Purposes (EAP) 2, 20, 48, 130, 132, 180
ESP 2, 130, 144, 146, 178
evaluation 7, 26, 202, 206, 212
Exophoric Reference 79
extremely short stories 55, 57, 59-61, 70-73

F

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factual knowledge 204-205, 209-210, 215, 221
features of academic writing 55, 57, 63, 68
feedback 61-62, 100-101, 104-107, 109, 112-113, 116, 119-124, 128, 140, 167, 214
feedback loop 100, 122-123, 128
Feedforward 122, 128
Fossilized Errors 79

G

gender 63, 68, 71, 163, 168, 170, 175, 206-207, 211
Genre Analysis 135
Genre Pedagogy 194, 199
genres 7-8, 24, 102, 129, 132, 134-136, 146, 153, 157-158, 162, 166, 169, 171, 175, 177-181, 194-195, 199

H

hard science 1, 4, 6-7, 14, 20, 152
hedges 6-7, 31-32, 46, 155, 162-165, 168-169, 175
Heteroglossia 27, 35-36, 40, 42

I

imposter syndrome 103, 118, 128
information literacy 81, 83-84, 88, 90-91, 96
interpersonal dimension 23, 31, 54

J

Jordan 55, 62, 71-72, 180

K

Kasdi Merbah University 182

L

letter of application 129, 135, 137-144, 146
library services 84, 86
literary elements 55-56, 63, 71

M

metadiscourse 31-32, 151-154, 157-160, 162-166, 168-171, 175
Monoglossia 35, 45, 47-48
move 3, 6, 14, 31, 72, 139, 176, 179, 181-183, 185-191, 193-194, 199
move structure 176, 181-182, 185, 193-194, 199

N

negative discourse 207-211, 215

P

Patchwriting Strategies 221
persuasion 48, 135
plagiarism 56, 62, 88, 91, 200-202, 204, 209, 212-215, 221
Popular Facts 214, 221
Prototypical Plagiarism 201, 221
Pseudonym 59, 79

Q

quick facts 200, 205, 213, 215, 221

R

readable texts 60, 209
Reader Positioning 54
Reiterate 79
remembering 203-204
research article 31, 176-177, 179-182, 192-195, 199
Research Article Abstract 194, 199
research data management 82-83, 88, 91, 96
research support 82-85, 87-90, 96
revision process 99-101, 104-107, 109, 111-117, 119-123, 128
Rhetorical Patterns of Organisation 129-134, 138-140, 143, 146
rhetorical strategies 24, 48, 158
Rhetoricity in Academic Discourse 54

S

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scholarly identity 99, 101, 103-104, 117-118, 120, 122-123, 128
Soft Science 20
source criticism 202, 206, 211, 213, 215, 221
step 88, 105-106, 183, 191, 194, 199-202, 213, 215
story 55-56, 58-59, 61-63, 68-73

U

University Librarian 96
university libraries 81, 83, 86, 89, 91

V

Vigorous Writing 56, 79
voice 4, 7, 23, 28-30, 38, 41-42, 45, 47, 54, 56-57, 60, 63, 68, 72-73, 103

W

writer-reader interaction 24, 35, 54
Writing Academic Genres 129, 146
Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) 7, 20
writing challenges 9, 13, 15-16
writing conventions 1-4, 6-7, 12-15, 20, 60, 102, 128

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