



HAL
open science

Negotiating Ownership when Incorporating Outside Sources: A Qualitative Study with Multilingual Undergraduate Students

Miki Mori

► **To cite this version:**

Miki Mori. Negotiating Ownership when Incorporating Outside Sources: A Qualitative Study with Multilingual Undergraduate Students. Linguistics. University of California Davis, 2014. English. NNT: . tel-02910315

HAL Id: tel-02910315

<https://hal.science/tel-02910315>

Submitted on 16 Aug 2020

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.

Page de garde : Le diplôme du « Doctor of Philosophy » a été accordé le 14 décembre 2014 à Miki Mori de l'University of California, Davis en Linguistics.

En conformité avec l'école doctorat qui régleme les études doctorales en linguistique, il n'y avait pas une soutenance de thèse.

Les membres du comité de la thèse sont : Dr. Julia Menard-Warwick, Dr. Vaidehi Ramanathan et Dr. Dana Ferris.

Negotiating Ownership when Incorporating Outside Sources: A Qualitative Study with
Multilingual Undergraduate Students

By

MIKI SUEKO MORI

B.S. (University of California, Los Angeles) 2006

M.A. (California State University, Long Beach) 2008

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Linguistics

in the

OFFICE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

of the

UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

DAVIS

Approved:

Dr. Julia Menard-Warwick, Chair

Dr. Dana Ferris

Dr. Vaidehi Ramanathan

Committee in Charge

2014

Copyright Miki Mori 2014

Abstract

The academic community relies heavily on written discourse for transmitting new theories and research findings. Written academic discourse is constantly (re)constructed as writers participate in a dialogue with past researchers and current readers. Thus, a central feature of academic discourse is incorporating outside sources. Undergraduate students must develop the related academic literacy skills, as numerous and complex as they are.

This dissertation addresses how individuals interact with source authors when writing academic texts and seeks to understand how this might be a learning process. The study also focuses on the notion of ownership—of words, of ideas, of evidence—and how students negotiate boundaries when incorporating outside sources. Specifically, this dissertation investigates how multilingual, upper division students develop their academic writing skills in a writing class for future educators. Using case study methodology of eight focal participants from a variety of linguistic and cultural backgrounds, it draws on ethnographic data from classroom observations, textual artifacts, and interviews.

Three areas are addressed where students might build upon their skillsets: source incorporation practices, paraphrasing practices, and the use of past experiences for evidence in a writing project. The overarching theme connecting these three areas is the relationship with ownership, and subsequently, the process of acquisition or appropriation (Bakhtin, 1981).

Acknowledgments

This dissertation has been a process many years in the making and has only been possible because of the support of many. First, I would like to thank Dr. Julia Menard-Warwick for the mentorship that helped me grow as a researcher and individual, and ultimately earn my PhD. She has provided me with invaluable amounts of support, knowledge, direction, insight... her devotion to her mentees and call for excellence in their work have been integral to my success(es). Thank you to Dr. Dana Ferris for providing the space that inspired this dissertation and for her insightful and meaningful feedback that helped me grow as a researcher. Thank you to Dr. Vaidehi Ramanathan for her wise guidance on sociolinguistics and encouragement during my time at UC Davis. Special thanks to Dr. Robert Bayley for encouraging me to consider writing studies and publish my work, and offering advice on how to succeed in academia.

I would like to thank all my peer colleagues at UC Davis who motivated me with their research interests and helped me along the way. Thank you to Katie Evans for her engaging conversations and help with filing my dissertation. Thank you to Ariel Loring and Serena Williams for being peer mentors and offering me informed opinions. Also, thank you to Anna Reznik and Daniel Moglen for listening to me discuss my research and posing useful questions.

I would like to thank my friends and family for their support as well. They know who they are. (Yes, you, mom and dad. I dedicate this work to you two.) A special thank you to Thomas, who served as my biggest (if not toughest) cheerleader-coach without whom I would not have been able to complete my dissertation. Your support has been indispensable. You are a role model and inspiration for what it looks like to pursue one's passions in research and develop a career in the academy, despite the odds.

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	ii
Acknowledgments.....	iii
Table of Contents.....	iv
List of Figures	vii
List of Tables	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction to the dissertation topic and starting point.....	1
1.1 Placement within the established dialogue: Context and needs	5
1.1.1 Three broad areas of inquiry.....	5
1.1.2 Writing as “gold standard”	8
1.1.3 Diverse student populations.....	9
1.2 Establishing a focus and design	12
1.2.1 Researcher interest and purpose of the study	14
1.2.2 Research design: Participants, instrumentation, and procedure	15
1.3 Key terms and placement of research	16
1.3.1 No utterance is an island: Dialogue, heteroglossia, and intertextuality.....	16
1.3.1.3 Use of key terms in the dissertation	26
1.4 Dissertation chapter topics and content	26
1.4.1 Chapter 2: Review of literature.....	27
1.4.2 Chapter 3: Methods	27
1.4.3 Chapter 4: Engagement, dialogue, and vocalization	27
1.4.4 Chapter 5: Paraphrasing, language use, and appropriation	27
1.4.5 Chapter 6: Heteroglossia, constraint agency, and researching the self	28
1.4.6 Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations, and implications.....	28
Chapter 2: Literature Review	28
2.1 Theoretical framework and literature	28
2.2 Bakhtinian approaches of language, writing, and source use	29
2.3 Response and talking about others	32
2.4 Other’s words and “tastes” of a discipline and ownership.....	36
2.4.1 Ownership of language, lexical bundles, and patchwriting	41
2.5 Language appropriation and authoritative discourse.....	45
2.5.1 Paraphrasing: Definitions and analyses	47
2.6 Identity creation, agency, and heteroglossia.....	53

2.6.1 Writing as way to transform worlds: Agency and capital	59
2.7 Summary and areas for further research.....	63
2.7.1 Research questions	68
Chapter 3: Methods	69
3.1 Methodology: Classroom ethnography and case study	69
3.2 Site selection narrative: Contact, pilot study, and classes observed.....	73
3.2.1 UC Davis and the University Writing Program	73
3.2.2 Preliminary observations and pilot study	75
3.2.3 Class selection process.....	76
3.3 Participant selection: Subjects: Descriptions of background.....	78
3.3.1 Martin	82
3.3.2 Mara	83
3.3.3 Candace.....	83
3.3.4 Wes	84
3.3.5 Raquel	85
3.3.6 Claudia.....	87
3.3.7 Patrick	87
3.3.8 Becky	88
3.3.9 Academic language proficiencies	89
3.4 Researcher role	93
3.4.1 Family background.....	93
3.4.2 Geographic location and social groups	94
3.4.3 Education and teaching.....	94
3.4.4 Interviews.....	95
3.5 Data collection:	96
3.5.1 Observations	96
3.5.2 Interview and tutoring/feedback sessions.....	97
3.5.3 Texts	100
3.6 Data analysis	102
3.6.1 Chapter 4: Analysis of texts using Appraisal Theory	105
3.6.2 Chapter 5: Perspectives on paraphrasing and analysis of paraphrased texts	108
3.6.3 Chapter 6: Observing heteroglossia and constraint agency in student writing.....	109
3.7 Connection to data chapters.....	110

Chapter 4: Engagement, dialogue, and vocalization	111
4.1 Introduction: Decisions on source incorporation and their influences on dialogue, endorsement, and stance	111
4.2 Appraisal Theory: Categorizing texts according to Engagement and intertextual considerations.	112
4.2.1 Engagement: Dialogic expansion and contraction.....	113
4.2.2 Categories for analyzing intertextuality: Integration and vocalization.....	114
4.3 Textual integration: Quotations and alternative ways to express endorsement and opinion.....	119
4.3.1 Candace: Short quotes, scare quotes: Paraphrasing and quoting.....	121
4.3.2 Becky and Patrick: Block quotes and rhetorical clues for endorsement	124
4.4 Author integration: Contractive and expansive dialogue with source authors.....	129
4.4.1 Claudia, Wes, and Becky: Appealing to authority and discussing the source author	131
4.4.2 Martin, Patrick, and Raquel: Ambiguous vocalization and non-integrated source authors....	134
4.4.3 Mara: Expansive acknowledgment and orchestrating a dialogue	137
4.5 The drafting process: Changes in integration and dialogic voicing.....	140
4.5.1 Wes: Non-integrated paraphrases and creating dialogue	140
4.5.2 Mara: Negotiating author integration and identifying one’s opinions.....	145
4.6 Conclusion: Beyond paraphrasing, quoting, and summarizing	150
Chapter 5: Paraphrasing, language use, and appropriation	151
5.1 Understanding paraphrasing: A default choice, a "dangerous" choice	151
5.1.1 One of three options: Preferences to paraphrase and reasons why.....	153
5.1.2 Display understanding: Do some work and "really think"	154
5.1.3 Preferable...but dangerous	157
5.2 Response by paraphrasing: Typology of paraphrases and what students actually do.....	165
5.2.1 Constellation of changes.....	169
5.2.2 Inferred meaning, added meaning: Beyond a close paraphrase	178
5.2.3 I guess you're always paraphrasing: Candace and appropriation of ideas and language	184
5.3 Conclusion: Paraphrasing as “the biggest challenge and constraint”	188
Chapter 6: Heteroglossia, constraint agency, and researching the self	191
6.1 Introduction: Incorporating student experiences in research assignments.....	191
6.2 Constraint agency narratives and symbolic capital: Diverging paths to success in college.....	195
6.2.1 Martin: Individualism, boot-strapping, and rejection of culture	198
6.2.2 Raquel: Mentoring, social connections, and own culture as capital	202
6.2.3 Success narratives and research assignment as an act of agency	205

6.3 Dialogic voicing, heteroglossia, and approaches to source use.....	206
6.3.1 Martin: Individualism in research process and experience as covert evidence	207
6.3.2 Stance, personal experience, and evidence: Draft 1	212
6.4 Raquel: Social support and approaches to source use	222
6.4.1 Receiving mentorship, promoting mentorship.....	223
6.4.2 Draft revision: Vocalization from source author to authorial voice	226
6.5 Conclusion: Expressing a story and identity	231
Chapter 7: Conclusion	234
7.1 Research questions	236
7.1.1 Question 1.....	236
7.1.2 Question 2.....	240
7.1.3 Question 3.....	244
7.1.4 Limitations.....	247
7.2 Research and theory: Implications	248
7.2.1 Paraphrasing parameters: Pluralizing paraphrasing.....	250
7.2.2 Features of source use: Source integration and vocalization.....	253
7.2.3 Student voice: Constraint agency and discussing the self.....	256
7.3 Pedagogy: Implications	257
7.3.1 Appraisal theory and discourse appropriation: Participating in academic communities.....	257
7.3.2 Focused practice and paraphrasing: Patchwriting and formulaic language.....	260
7.3.3 Dialogic practices: Annotated bibliographies	261
7.4 Final thoughts	263
Appendix A.....	265
Appendix B.....	266
References	266

List of Figures

Figure 1	167
Figure 2	168

List of Tables

Table 1.....	81
Table 2.....	90

Table 3.....	91
Table 4.....	102
Table 5.....	104
Table 6.....	105
Table 7.....	114
Table 8.....	115
Table 9.....	118
Table 10.....	120
Table 11.....	129
Table 12.....	141
Table 13.....	146
Table 14.....	170
Table 15.....	172
Table 16.....	175
Table 17.....	177

Chapter 1: Introduction to the dissertation topic and starting point

“There have been many attempts by different artists to ‘remix’ Beethoven to be creative... I think almost everyone will agree that the original is the best of all.”

— Patrick (focal student)

The comment on classical music and remixes above comes from a focal participant of this study—Patrick¹— who was writing in response to questions I had been asking him about aspects completely unrelated to music: the Christian bible, the reverence of texts, and quotations and paraphrasing. The context for *that* discussion originally stemmed from observations I had made two and a half years earlier while taking Dr. Dana Ferris’ course on second language writing as part of my doctoral studies. In one part of the class we were discussing controversies in the field, drawing from Christine Casanave’s book on contested areas in writing, “*Controversies in Second Language Writing*” (2004). I wrote a literature review on one of the topics: plagiarism. The phenomena was discussed in a variety of ways, such as the role of intentionality when plagiarism occurs, and I soon realized the complexity of a topic which, after years of education in a Western setting, had previously seemed straight-forward and clear cut to me. For one, I was surprised by the lack of consensus on defining a phenomenon that has serious consequences in academic settings. Also, I was struck by all the issues to consider when researching plagiarism, including factors of institutional policy, educational and cultural backgrounds, language proficiency, and the learning process. One aspect that has been contested is the role of cultural backgrounds on plagiarism, specifically those in Western versus Eastern settings.

This debate was demonstrated in articles written twenty years ago in the *Journal of Second Language Writing* on the topic of plagiarism, by researchers Glenn Deckert and Alastair

¹ All the names of the participants have been changed to pseudonyms.

Pennycook, both of whom were working at academic institutions in Hong Kong. Deckert (1993) published a research article on the topic of plagiarism as understood by Chinese undergraduate students. At one point in the article, Deckert discussed issues of educational culture as related to Confucianism and the emphasis on rote memorization, which could be interpreted as seeing Chinese ESL (English as a Second Language) students as more likely to plagiarize. Pennycook (1994) seemed to have had such an interpretation and responded to Deckert (1993), claiming offense at the supposed implications about Chinese students, essentialization of cultures, and superiority of Western practices. Deckert (1994) wrote back, addressing this claim as well as others that Pennycook put forth. In addition to denying the propositions made, Deckert (1994) stressed the need for mutual understanding between instructors and students, as well as the necessity of teaching all students about plagiarism in Western academic settings.

I found this conversation to be not only insightful but also thought-provoking in its discussion of education and culture, specifically when considering the role of rote memorization in learning. I thought about whether this was true with my own U.S. education and quickly realized I too had an education that valued rote-memorization of texts: For seven years, from middle to high school, I attended a private Christian school, where “bible class” was a required subject of study. During these classes we would memorize large chunks of texts from the bible. Although practitioners at my school would consider this activity to be anything but Confucian, I found these practices to be similar to those described by Deckert (1993, 1994) and Pennycook (1994). It seemed rote memorization had educational value in the West as well, which problematized discussions that drew boundaries between Eastern and Western practices.

More than two years later, I was analyzing my dissertation data and discovered that in one writing assignment Patrick used large chunks of verbatim texts from sources without

quotation marks, citation, or any other indication that these words came from somebody else. Considering potential explanations for this, I thought about another theme found in studies on plagiarism, which is the argument that some people find it difficult to manipulate texts because they find them to be revered and in some ways untouchable, like holy scripture. I thought of my experiences memorizing scripture and remembered that Patrick's father was part of the Christian ministry.

Thinking Patrick may have had an experience similar to mine, I wrote him an email asking what he thought about religious studies and memorizing texts from holy books, and what this had to do with language learning, as I thought maybe some students tended not to paraphrase because of it. I wrote: "I could also see it [using set phrases of verbatim text] as being too reverent of texts and people being reticent to manipulate text and be creative with it...and challenge authors and what they say" (Email Correspondence, 9/12/13). Patrick wrote me, responding to this quote and apparently disagreeing on the assumption that changing an original text was always beneficial (part of this email is from the quote at the beginning of the section):

I think this sentence is similar to saying that performing Beethoven's Ninth Symphony exactly the way Beethoven had written his music- following all of his dynamic marks, slurs and expressions, is uncreative. There have been many attempts by different artists to "remix" Beethoven to be creative, and I think they were made just for the idea to remix it and I think almost everyone will agree that the original is the best of all. I guess my first response when I see something very reverent, whether it be music, text, or art, I focus on its aesthetic rather than trying to manipulate it.

(Email Correspondence, 9/25/13)

Patrick's discussion of Beethoven's Ninth Symphony and remixes contests the notion that copying something such as a text or piece of music lacks thought, energy, and creativity.

Changing a work of another may be an option but is not necessarily optimal. Rather than lacking

an ability to alter a text or considering it too “reverent,” Patrick frames his appreciation for original texts as stemming from an aesthetic angle². This was the answer to my original question regarding Patrick’s copy and pasting practices and lack of citations in his writing.

This anecdote displays the context in which the research project took place in two aspects. For one, conversations with Patrick on copying text verbatim, paraphrasing, and rote memorization reveal the individualized and multifaceted nature of source use. It involves experiences that may seem completely divorced from academic writing, such as memorizing holy scripture and playing classical music. Patrick’s educational experiences demonstrate the particular histories students bring with them to the academy. For instance, he spent about half of his schooling in East Asia and the other half in a Western setting, in addition to spending many years memorizing chunks of the bible³. Also, he was placed in EL (English Learner) courses in the U.S. in middle school but was mainstreamed in high school. Patrick’s route to the university, spanning continents and educational labels, suggests the value in understanding students’ individual experiences with writing, as intricate and specific as they are.

Second, this dissertation is an accumulation of experiences I have had over the last three years on academic writing, plagiarism, and source incorporation. This includes reflecting on my own experiences with texts and language, such as my time spent in a religious school; in addition, my own hybridity as a multi-ethnic person with East Asian and Western backgrounds has drawn me toward understanding spaces with unclear boundaries (such as culture and ethnicity) and grey areas (such as defining plagiarism and ownership of words). Though the

²This perhaps resulted from his passion for music and piano performance; he was studying music at the university and was classically trained in the piano.

³ In the email correspondence discussed, Patrick revealed that he would, like me, memorize scripture from the bible as a child and recite passages in his church congregation during holidays.

project has expanded to look at issues beyond plagiarism, it is still grounded in pursuing research into complex phenomena that are of importance to the academy yet in need of further exploration.

1.1 Placement within the established dialogue: Context and needs

Thinking beyond the narrative discussed above to the realm of academic research, the dissertation project as a whole has (perhaps not coincidentally) come at a time when looking at academic writing and source use is burgeoning, with two landmark journals for writing inquiry recently publishing special issues on the topic of source use in academic writing in second language and general academic contexts (Journal of Second Language Writing, 2012, and Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 2013). Research has come from two decades' worth of steady scholarship asking questions related to source use and the academy, most notably plagiarism (Deckert, 1993; Howard, 1999; Pennycook, 1994; Scollon, 1995; Shi, 2004) and attitude or stance (Hood, 2004; Hu & Wang, 2014; Hyland, 2005; Lee, 2010; Mei & Allison, 2005; Swain, 2009; White, 2003), and source engagement (Swales, 1986). The project also comes at a time when researchers in linguistics and writing inquiry have adopted Bakhtinian (1981, 1986) frameworks for understanding language and knowledge (Swales, 2014), such as issues relating to dialogue and identity (Ball & Freedman, 2004; Halasek, 2005; Ivanič, 1998; Middendorf, 1998; Sowden, 2005). In relation to academic research, this dissertation contributes to an understanding of how sources are used through looking at relationships among student background, classroom practices, and the drafting process, as well as how such relationships might contribute to language learning and academic literacy.

1.1.1 Three broad areas of inquiry

Researchers have been asking questions and carrying out studies on the topic that can be

categorized into three broadly interrelated areas. The most widely addressed area began with plagiarism, plagiarists, and implications for academia. Questions have been asked related to student background such as culture and education as well as language abilities: Is plagiarism a cultural phenomenon? Should there be different approaches to intentional versus unintentional plagiarism? Can students learn language when trying to incorporate or paraphrase a source? And more recently, what does an appropriate paraphrase look like?

The answer to these questions are still being addressed and contested, but in general the literature shows that the concept of plagiarism quickly becomes complicated when considering cases where students appear to not intentionally plagiarize because they are unfamiliar with academic writing conventions and citation practices as well as the linguistic processes that come with quotation and paraphrasing (Gu & Brooks, 2008; Pecorari, 2003; Pecorari, 2008; Pennycook, 1994). The general consensus perceives the process of developing such skills to be difficult and laborious for students and indicates that there are still many ways in which the process can be better understood and pedagogically improved (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Howard, 1999; Howard & Robillard, 2008); (See Chapter 2 for detailed discussion and references on this and the two following topics). Chapter 5 of this dissertation further explores answers to the above questions.

The second area of focus relates to how writers express their attitude and stance toward a source as well as how the source is used within a text such as a student essay or academic journal. Linguists have been asking questions such as: What linguistic features express stance? How are sources being used in written texts, such as their way or being discussed? What is the relationship among the various voices, such as the authors of the cited sources, the intended readers, and the writer him/herself?

Some researchers have approached these questions by looking at patterns of source use in large corpora such as academic journal publications in various disciplines and student writing (Hyland, 2012), including texts that received excellent (e.g. A-letter grades) and average (e.g. C-letter grades) evaluations (Lee, 2010; Petrić, 2012; Swales, 2014). Aspects related to formulaic language and lexical bundles have been considered as well (Biber, 2004; Cortes, 2004). In general, source use and stance vary by discipline and text type, but there are certain features commonly found in exemplary writing. Furthermore, the literature on this topic reports on the sometimes ambiguous nature of source incorporation in terms of stance and identifying the voices in a text. Understanding attitude and source use are topics covered in Chapter 4.

The last broad area of interest on source use relates to student background and experience by looking at the type of writing a person produces and why, including students working on their writing skills and membership in academia. This type of research asks questions such as: What are the connections between student experiences and the ways they interact with writing? Do students find it difficult to adopt a writing style that relies on research for evidence while removing their personal experiences? In consideration of background and educational experiences, how do students approach academic research and writing processes?

Researchers in linguistics and composition studies have approached these questions in a variety of ways but in general reveal the complicated ways in which students understand the role of writing in academia and their personal histories (Ivanic, 1998). In the academy, students struggle to reconcile their position as individuals with lived histories, particularly when their previous educational experiences are not very similar to academic literacies and writing practices (Harklau, McClanahan, & Mendez, 2012; Vargese, 2012). However, given the numerous contextual factors to consider when answering such questions, there are still a variety of avenues

to explore on the topic, some of which are addressed in Chapter 6.

1.1.2 Writing as “gold standard”

The reason for these various avenues of research may come as a response to needs in academia, which while not necessarily new, are still areas to be understood and applied to pedagogy in higher education. For one, academic literacy in terms of effective writing skills is important; writing has become a “gold standard” for the academy and serves as an important medium for exchanging information, ideas, research findings, etc. (Brockman, Taylor, Kreth, & Crawford, 2011; “Program history,” n.d.). Professors and other members of academia such as post-doctoral scholars are required to write for publication, as are graduate students for assignments, theses, and dissertations. In light of mandated writing requirements across institutions of higher education, it is clear that students are expected to write well in order to effectively communicate understanding, analyses, and application of content knowledge and theory.

In addition, today's undergraduates are tomorrow's work force and graduate students, and there has been an identified need for these individuals to write effectively, such as the California State University's writing proficiency requirement for graduation, which was born out of community reaction to bachelor-degree holding employees who could not write well (“Background of the GEAR,” n.d.). To complicate matters, standardized testing and No Child Left Behind (“Public law 107-110,” 2002) policies in the primary and secondary school systems have resulted in decreased critical writing skills development for students before entering university (McCarthy, 2008) despite its importance in schooling (National Writing Project & Nagin, 2003). Undergraduate students are tasked with developing academic writing not only for their bachelor's degree but also for the workforce or post-baccalaureate education.

Writing serves as one of the more important ways research is disseminated, debated, and responded to. Academic texts involve referencing a variety of already established if controversial theories, methods, and findings in a given discipline, resulting in a chain (or web) of citations and discussions of others in the academy. In addition to this common feature of academic writing across disciplines, academic writing contains certain linguistic and rhetorical qualities (Hyland, 2001), such as jargon, expressions, presentation of ideas, and ways of contesting (Cao & Hu, 2014). Undergraduate students trying to communicate effectively in their field need to develop skills for incorporating outside sources as well as the language and organization. They must also pay attention to plagiarism related issues, as even unintentional plagiarism can lead to serious outcomes, such as failing a class or expulsion from school.

In effect, students may struggle not only with effectively incorporating outside texts, but also developing academic language abilities (Zhang, 2013). However, it is not clear when or how they learn this, and given the diversity of students at universities, it is not enough to assume that they have received an effective, homogenous education or assume similar cultural backgrounds and understanding. This is particularly pressing given the fact that U.S. universities are seeing more diverse student enrollment, including considerations of nationality, language background, culture and ethnicity, and socio-economic status.

1.1.3 Diverse student populations

Much of the literature on source use comes from second language writing studies, in recognition of the need to understand how students from different backgrounds approach source use, argumentation, and language development. Considerations have mostly been on language proficiency and student background concerning education and writing. However, there has been recognition that viewing student writers as either L1 or L2 for English is an insufficient

categorization system (Ferris, 2009; Ferris & Thaiss, 2011) as there are a multitude of multilingual individuals with various skills, experiences and needs. Students classified as L2 can include those who arrived to the U.S. in high school or university and those who started using English in school at the age of 4 or 5 years; the two ends of the spectrum are quite different in terms of English language abilities, educational backgrounds and perhaps other factors relating to family life, geographic location, social spheres, etc.

Furthermore, in describing the undergraduate student population at their institution of the University of California in Davis,⁴ Ferris and Thaiss (2011) explain that nearly half of students surveyed in first year writing composition courses were multilingual in terms of coming from households where English was not the primary language. They note, however, that nearly all of these individuals graduated from a U.S. high school. Another survey found that over half of the students at the university were either themselves or at least one of their parents born outside of the U.S. (Davis & Butler, 2009). Seeing this context as an example of changing populations at universities in the U.S., heterogeneity and diverse skill sets have become more like a norm rather than an exception. Thus, more research has been focusing on understanding academic literacy and writing development in the context of a student population that is highly diverse. Furthermore, international student population has been rising at UC Davis, following the university's "2020 Initiative," which has a goal of adding to the number of international undergraduate students by the year 2020 ("The 2020 initiative," n.d.).

Considering the academic experiences of such a diverse set of students, Ferris and Thaiss (2011) also found that the range of students labeled L2 (those who did not speak English as a first language at home) tended to have a much less positive experience with writing and

⁴ The university is also the research site of this dissertation.

perceived themselves as having poorer writing skills when compared to students who only spoke English. Low perceptions of abilities and negative experiences in writing most likely do not help students in college. Given that the label “L2” is placed on a variety of individuals, it seems important to further address such students and their needs. Matsuda and Duran (2013) address issues of labeling, particularly with the term *multilingual* and they argue that *multilingual* students seem to be largely understudied and too narrowly defined despite their diversity.

The terminology *ESL*, *non-native speaker*, *L2*, *generation 1.5*, and *multilingual* for identifying students have been critiqued for their (not so) hidden messages and negative associations, such as being euphemisms for individuals who are “not-yet-legitimate college students” (Benesch, 2008), do not write well in English (or in general), are “remedial” and in general *lack* abilities rather than *having* certain skills (Benesch, 2008; Canagarajah, 2003; Ortmeir-Hooper, 2008; Shapiro, 2011; Tardy, 2011). Besides being an explanation for why students labeled L2 have negative experiences with writing (Ferris and Thais, 2011), these critiques demonstrate the difficult task researchers and practitioners have when recognizing and addressing diverse student needs in ways that do not stifle their development or devalue their backgrounds.

Undergraduate students can speak a language other than English at home and still write proficiently in English. Moreover, like many monolingual English speakers, they may still be in the process of developing academic writing literacies, including those related to language. This is not to say that there are no differences among undergraduate students in U.S. schools; rather, the ways in which research on academic writing development is approached needs to come from this problematized framework and proceed carefully when discussing student groups.

1.2 Establishing a focus and design

Researchers in linguistics and writing studies have been addressing how specific fields and groups of people write academic texts such as class essays and academic journals, in order to understand how particular social spheres communicate in terms of rhetoric and language. Patterns of formulaic language, plagiarism and patchwriting, and source use have been looked at specifically. Interests in these topics stem from general inquiry to pedagogically identified needs observed in student work. There are multiple areas in the research yet to be explored, including issues related to interaction of personal histories with writing, paraphrasing and learning, and ways in which writers have outside sources interact in a text.

These areas merit further research, especially considering the importance given to writing in the academy and its varied forms across contexts, such as writing texts (a journal article versus an essay) and disciplines (biology versus history). For example, there are tensions between taking a stance on an issue while also recognizing the limitations of proof; also, students may struggle between avoiding narrative writing or using personal experience while still writing on their own interests. In addition, undergraduates at universities are becoming more diverse culturally, linguistically, and nationally, all with varying skill sets and needs. There are still many different contexts and questions that need to be addressed, including the writing skills of students at the end of their undergraduate careers.

Just as Patrick's educational and linguistic experience makes it hard to categorize him, language learning and writing development involve activities that are difficult to classify and sometimes contested, such as identifying clear parameters of a paraphrase or distinguishing one's ideas when incorporating outside sources. My research looks at how students navigate through such "grey areas" while creating texts and developing academic literacies, with full consideration

of their educational and linguistic backgrounds and skillsets.

Specifically, I investigate how multilingual, upper division students develop their academic writing skills in a writing class for future educators. I address this broad question by focusing on three different yet related avenues that constitute my research questions and data chapters. For language development and incorporation of outside sources, my research looks at how students appropriate language “owned” by others as well as display shared ownership of ideas and language. I address how students develop language and literacy skills while composing texts populated with other people’s words. Moreover, I believe that drafting processes can reveal information on learning and development, including how students incorporate outside sources. Two activities where response in learning occurs are expressing stance on an outside source’s ideas and paraphrasing. Changes in use of outside sources during the drafting process can involve response and appropriation of writing skills, which may occur when receiving written or oral feedback from an instructor or peer. My focus also turns to student experiences and how aspects of identity and personal history become involved during the process of drafting research-based texts.

In sum, the three areas of focus form three data chapters which address concepts related to ownership and the corollary activity of how something becomes acquired. For Chapter 4, the focus is on interaction with sources, ownership of ideas and using academic language for source incorporation. Chapter 5 looks at relationships of paraphrasing and acquiring language during the process of paraphrasing a text. Chapter 6 addresses ownership as it relates to experiences and evidence and how this gets negotiated in writing. Thus how words become one’s own (Bakhtin, 1986) is the overarching framework that ties together the data chapters

1.2.1 Researcher interest and purpose of the study

My interest in this topic and research comes from my background in teaching English as a Second and Foreign Language and more importantly from teaching writing to incoming freshman who, through a written exam, placed into my advanced reading and composition classes for non-native speakers of English. Having also taken classes on second language writing, I became interested in issues related to language learning, plagiarism, and culture for pedagogical and theoretical reasons. A mixture of these factors led me to trying to understand how students express argument and evidence while developing academic rhetoric and language. I want to know this in order to help students excel in their undergraduate education and beyond in the workforce or graduate school; this includes the type of students assigned in the freshman writing classes I taught.

After working with the students in my classes and reviewing the literature, I saw not only *areas* that I had further questions about but also *particular groups* of students. Specifically, there has been a lack in looking at a wide range of multilingual students who have varying linguistic and academic skills, something I saw in my classes between my international or recently immigrated students versus those who were born and raised in California. Furthermore, because plagiarism and related issues have been heavily addressed in L2 contexts with international and recently immigrated students from East Asia, I noticed that other multilingual students such as Latinos have not been focused on. This was also fairly representative of my writing classes, in which Latinos represented about 1/5 of the class, the rest mostly East Asian. However, I still wanted to focus on multilingual students from a variety of backgrounds. Another aspect of student populations was the lack of research on upper division undergraduate students.

1.2.2 Research design: Participants, instrumentation, and procedure

As for how to approach ways for answering my research questions, there are a variety of frameworks, methods, and tools of analyses that can be used to study source use and academic writing. After reading studies and considering theoretical framework, I decided that the most optimal and feasible way to address my questions would be through case studies via classroom ethnographic methods. The ethnographic methods have allowed me to collect various types of data and triangulate analyses in order to understand my research in a more holistic manner. Since one of my questions regards textual analysis, I knew it was important to collect drafts of student produced texts. I wanted to address learning and development, and observing a writing class would give me insight on how source use might be taught. In addition, I was somewhat surprised to find a lack of studies that focus on classroom interactions and discussion of source use in university and college settings. Though ethnographic methods with triangulation of data is one way this area has been researched (as discussed by Shaw & Pecorari, 2013), studies that analyze classroom observations are limited (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Starfield, 2002).

Last, I wanted to know more about student histories and identities, and a useful way to approach those issues is through interviews. Working with students on their writing assignments would also give me insight on their thoughts, processes, and approaches to source use. Furthermore, since there are often differences between what people say and what they do, I thought interviews and textual analyses would be an interesting intersection to examine.

Indeed, case study and ethnography have been used by researchers in the past (see Duff, 2008), and in many ways I model my study methodologically on Ivanič's (1998) case study work with mature native speakers of English adults studying at the university-level in the U.K. In addition, various sections of my data analyses have extended focus on one participant, like a

casestudy. For example, Chapter 6 is devoted to analysis of two students and in Chapter 4 I include extended examples of two participants. Although the small number of students worked with and relatively short period of time limits this study in what it might reflect on other groups of people or the phenomenon of source use, my ethnographic approach allows me to focus on understanding the perspectives, writing, and processes of a small group of individuals based on observations, interviews, and analyses of data.

1.3 Key terms and placement of research

When trying to understand and discuss the ways in which students learn how to write academic texts and use outside sources effectively, I use some terms that have various meanings and uses. These terms have been adopted from the literature on this topic and I will describe their meaning and provide anecdotes in order to have a clearer framework for the following chapters. In order to make the terms more tangible and tied to the data, I have adopted a method from Menard-Warwick's dissertation(2004)in which I use data from a focal participant when explaining the terms.

1.3.1 No utterance is an island: Dialogue, heteroglossia, and intertextuality

Dialogue often refers to the act of conversation between individuals, such as a discussion in a class, over coffee, or through a written form such as text messaging or email chains. However, the term *dialogue* applied to academic writing may not seem to fit what a writer writes and a reader later reads. Reading and writing activities seem to lack a key element to a dialogue: response. While this may be true in the sense that a writer cannot "hear" a reader's response or thoughts, reading, and writing actually do involve a response Bakhtin (1986). This is because as writing is a form of communication, it involves language; and everything people say whether in a term paper or on television *responds* to a previous idea, conversation, and interaction with

otherswhile *anticipating* future responses from others.

How someone writes involves an interaction with the past, present, or future and some think of this in terms of audience awareness and also the function of a piece of writing. To illustrate, a grant proposal essentially is a document that tries to demonstrate a need or merit for some sort of monetary or material resource. Grant writers consider the reviewers of the proposals and what kinds of criteria demonstrate merit of a grant. Key terms or concepts indicate to the reader participation in a dialogue with previous research, findings, or future projects and implications. This creates a *heteroglossic*, or multi-voiced document, where various points of view are incorporated into a single text.

Heteroglossia in general means when there are multiple voices, points of view, or languages that exist in one particular social context. Originally coined to refer to the various voices that exist within a novel, such as those of characters and the narrator (Bakhtin, 1981), heteroglossia can also refer to the various types of speech that exist in a classroom; students may speak to one another in a particular language, dialect, or register, but change to a formal academic register with their instructor. A speech given at a commencement ceremony may be heteroglossic if the speaker quotes various well-known educators or visionaries because the speech then consists of multiple people's voices. Thus a written text that incorporates outside sources is heteroglossic in that it contains multiple points of view and language from various individuals, all in one document.

In addition, any citation to outside sources creates an *intertextual* text because various documents are being referenced. Perhaps the writers think about some potential questions or objections a grant committee might raise about research design. In that case, they might address this by providing detailed explanations or citations of previous research that demonstrates the

efficacy of such a design. This is a response and is much like a dialogue.

Researchers who use this interpretation of dialogue note that "no utterance is an island" ("Engagement- a Bakhtinian perspective," 2012, para. 4). Language, whether a word or a genre, is situated in previously existing events and conversations. The framework for language as dialogic is grounded in theories from Russian writer and theorist Mikhail Bakhtin (1981, 1986), whose ideas and writings will be further discussed in Chapter 2. In terms of importance for considering language and writing as a *dialogue*, the ways in which a writer expresses audience awareness has consequences, such as whether or not a grant committee gives a group of researchers money to fund a project. Various practical and applicable uses can be drawn from looking at writing and reading (and really all of language) as involving a response, a social event, or a conversation whether real or imagined, in the future or the past.

To further illustrate, I will discuss the research proposal written by Patrick, the 4th year undergraduate student majoring in music and taking a class on writing for the education profession. For the assignment, Patrick had to research an issue in education that interested him and write a formal, research-based proposal to an important figurehead in an educational setting, specifically addressing a policy that needed to be changed. Patrick's text is a formal letter written to a school superintendent in an effort to persuade him to re-instate or maintain music programs and understand the value of music education for primary schools. Writing a letter to a specific individual in itself demonstrates a written text that is a conversation.

In his text, Patrick writes from a stance that the superintendent is reluctant to save or restore music programs due to financial reasons and the low value of music education. Studies and examples are given that support Patrick's argument for the reader to see empirical evidence in order to comply. Quoted texts from respected authoritative sources provide a presence of

voices and dialogue in the text. Furthermore, since the issue is financial, Patrick also provides statistics on budgeting. These decisions were made in light of a dialogue with outside sources on how programs have worked in the past, and what future programs could look like.

Patrick also shows an anticipated response when he discusses potential counter arguments the superintendent might say:

I understand that our district has undergone many financial difficulties but I assure you to reconsider how our current budget gets distributed needs rethinking.

Patrick positions himself in this part of the letter as thinking the superintendent does not believe in the feasibility of the proposals.

Other aspects of the letter that demonstrate dialogic voicing is the use of pronouns and referencing. Patrick refers to the superintendent as *you*, indicating that the reader is a real person in dialogue with him. Patrick also uses a number of first person plural pronouns such as *we* and *our*, which are ambiguously understood; they could include the superintendent, supporters and community members, or both. Examples include *our children, we can restore music programs* and *we'll survey families within district*. With reference to Patrick and supporters, Patrick creates a multi-voiced (heteroglossic) document in that he is not the only one involved or taking a supportive stance towards music education. These are just a few ways in which a dialogue in a text can be demonstrated.

1.3.1.1 Engagement: Stance, dialogic expansion & contraction, and vocalization

Response and dialogue involve another key activity, which is termed *engagement*.

Generally speaking, engagement means having some sort of active interaction with a person, group or written text, such as finding a particular book and writing style to be engaging. A class discussion of a controversial topic may result in students being particularly involved in their

peers' responses, which is an activity that could be considered engaging. However, *engagement* has also been interpreted to indicate a person's opinion, stance, or attitude towards an idea or person (Martin & White, 2005). I adapt this definition in this study.

For example, in a review of previous research on a topic, a writer may only partially agree with the conclusions drawn from a particular study. In this case, use of particular epistemic (degree of certainty regarding what is) and deontic (propositional) modals would indicate the degree to which the writer endorses the proposals, such as *the implications may only be partially accurate* or *the design should have considered*. In these expressions, the writer works to partially limit the conclusions made about the study by stressing his/her opinion as the more valid one. Researchers understand this activity to be a part of engagement in which a particular piece of text recognizes other possibilities or narrows down the options, a concept termed *dialogic expansion* and *dialogic contraction* (White, 2003). Speakers use language to express their stance toward others in ways that are dialogically expansive and contractive, which is a useful measure for understanding expression of attitude.

Furthermore, expressing an opinion involves a multitude of linguistic forms and possibilities. One form used by writers in academic settings is to involve other people's ideas and findings in order to validate opinions and stances. A perspective on a particular topic is often seen as more plausible and credible when research supports it or when respected individuals have similar conclusions. To illustrate, an undergraduate student writer needs to find past research whose findings support an idea being made. In this case, the student would discuss this in his/her writing and cite the source and researchers. This interaction in a text such as a research report can be termed intra- or extra-vocalization (White, 2012). *Intra-vocalization* means the student is presented as the one proposing ideas, whereas *extra-vocalization* signals another speaker's voice

being heard. Notably, all texts that have cited sources are by default intertextual and dialogic, in that there is a representation of multiple voices. However, this does not necessarily equate to neutrality or even much of a dialogue. The writer and cited sources may express strong views on ideas and limit opportunities for others to be considered.

Again, students can “engage in” meaningful writing assignments through researching topics of particular interest, drafting texts and receiving feedback. However, I use *engagement* mainly in terms of how writers respond to ideas, readers, and the authors from outside sources; useful related key terms note someone’s stance (dialogic expansion and contraction) (White, 2003) and identify the speaker (vocalization) (Martin & White, 2005).

Considering Patrick again, in his research-based writing assignment he takes a clear and strong stance on music education in public schools. He demonstrates his attitude in a variety of ways, including forms that dialogically contract the conversation, making his propositions seem the most important and viable. In terms of effectiveness, there may be times when dialogic contraction can be valuable, such as when trying to convince someone to take a particular action. Attempts to evaluate "effectiveness" of a stance in a writing assignment must take in consideration the speakers involved and their power differentials, as well as any social-contextual issues such as the history of a topic or assignment prompts in the class⁵. For example, Patrick demonstrates his stance and dialogically contracts the conversation when he states,

It is universal agreement that arts education is most effective for young children and it greatly contributes to their development. [Italics added]

His use of the bare assertion "it is universal agreement" portrays this proposition as a fact rather than an idea or tendency. Since “facts” cannot be argued with, Patrick contracts the space for the

⁵ It is beyond the scope of this dissertation study to evaluate the effectiveness of the stances taken and ways of incorporating texts by my students, but I do consider social context and the writing course in my analyses.

superintendent to object to such claims. Moreover, if everyone agrees with something, it is threatening for the superintendent to question it. Patrick also demonstrates his support for music education and highlights his certainty with "greatly". It should be noted that this claim is not cited, positioning it as a piece of common knowledge and the entire sentence as intra-vocalized. However, were he to cite a source, quote someone or paraphrase, this statement would be considered to have *extra-vocalization* since an external voice would be mentioned.

Distinguishing between these two types of vocalization is useful for understanding rhetorical patterns of source use and their relationship to effective argumentations. For example, perhaps Patrick's bare assertion would have been more convincing to the superintendent had a respected educator or researcher made that statement and Patrick indicated agreement with it. In that case, Patrick's use of extra-vocalization would have served to strengthen his claims.

In fact, later in his letter Patrick uses extra-vocalization in this way a few times by quoting a music professor. He began a paragraph with the following quote from the professor:

'Nearly everyone agrees that arts education is central to intellectual preparation, mental stimulation, and psychological orientation that leads to success in later life!' [Italics added]

While not a bare assertion, the music professor makes a strong claim with "nearly everyone agrees" and contracts dialogic space for others to disagree with him, especially considering his expertise as a music professor.

As to what type of stance Patrick made on this statement, he did not use reporting verbs that could indicate his opinion on the professor's comments, such as in *he proves* or *he shows*. Lack of evidence to the contrary suggests Patrick's *endorsement* of the professor, in that he agreed with the ideas. Another possible way in which Patrick signaled agreement was by directly inserting entire sentences and then proceeding in the next (non-cited) sentence to elaborate on the

validity of the topic. For example, the sentence following the professor's quote was:

Although music education varies from city to city and brain development depends on the child and many other factors, music has proven to positively affect child's learning experience.

This sentence elaborates on the proposition made by the professor, suggesting a stance that aligns with the professor's opinion. To clarify, Patrick indicated his opinion of the topic being discussed and outside sources in other ways, such as using the language *fortunately, the research have shown that, it was undeniably a good thing and I believe that.*

These examples illustrate the ways in which Patrick engages the outside sources, including his use of dialogic contraction, extra-vocalization and expression of attitude towards the extra-vocalized content and/or the argument of the proposal.

1.3.1.2 Appropriation and learning: Copying, language manipulation, and paraphrasing

The last key term involves understanding the meaning of two words that carry various meanings across various disciplines in and outside of education. The first is *learning* and the second is *appropriation*. Both are similar in that they involve some sort of acquiring, such as ideas, skills, words, language, or material goods. However, they differ in connotation. The term *appropriate* carries with it a sense of stealing or taking such as of monetary goods, while *learning* is charged with positive or neutral associations such as development and advancement of a skill. However, research and researchers who look at writing and understand the notions of dialogue as defined earlier, often fuse these two terms or at least use them interchangeably.

Importantly, this combined terminology tries to adopt an either neutral or positive framework for appropriation (Bakhtin, 1981). This idea comes from the argument that since language involves a response and belongs to some previous (or future) interaction with people, it

is sometimes difficult to distinguish when language is adopted by a person as something that is taken transgressively (stolen) or non-transgressively (learned). Furthermore, language belongs to a variety of individuals and settings, so that allocating ownership becomes problematic.

To illustrate, when a researcher writes a non-scientific, popular culture text, a different style of writing and language needs to be used. The writer may decide to read published articles on similar topics in magazines or online blogs that discuss scientific research in order to understand the writing style. S/he may then try to emulate the form and incorporate terms and phrases translated from academic jargon. While there is a question of whether or not learning is actually taking place, there is also a question of whether or not the writer is appropriating the language and style in a way that could be considered transgressive theft. Bakhtin(1981) would adopt the stance that language cannot be owned by just one person, such that this writing through modeling and formulaic language would be seen as a non-transgressive type of appropriation. I use these two terms, particularly *appropriation*, when discussing ambiguous or contested situations like learning to write for a general audience. I prefer *appropriation* because it seems to be more narrowly defined (*learning* can be used in a much broader sense) and because it is closely related to Bakhtinian theory on development and use of language. Therefore, I often refer to “language learning” by discussing “language appropriation.”

Analyzing how people appropriate language is illustrated again with Patrick, his proposal letter, and the research process, including an interview with a music professor. Patrick uses the language and ideas of sources in two different ways, one of which would be considered by many people to be a transgressive form of source use. The other use of a source could be interpreted as a place for appropriation and learning. For transgressive use, Patrick's letter had various sections that were copied verbatim from the interview without quotation marks or citation. One paragraph

was entirely verbatim save for one sentence which Patrick had added in later drafts. His use of the source is a clearer example of what plagiarism is since language was appropriated from a source without reference to it. People might argue that learning is not taking place since Patrick is not attempting to break down the text via summary or paraphrase, which would require analysis of the text.

In other parts of his essay, Patrick uses multi-sentence quotes from an interview with a music professor he respected. Patrick provided the transcript (it is not clear if it was closely taken fieldnotes or based on audio recording) of his interview with the professor, and in comparing it to the text I found a section that was similar in propositional idea and language, as seen below, with the professor's text on the left and Patrick's text on the right. The underlined words are those shared between the two; the bolding highlights a phrase.

I would start to **gather a special interest groups** in high schools. Nowadays having music programs drains tons of money because you have to have choir, jazz choir, girls choir, Glee, football band, jazz band, and orchestra. And that's very expensive. If it were for me to decide, I would just have simply choir, band and orchestra in high school and from that money you save, restore elementary level music programs.

We can restore music programs back into elementary schools by reducing excessive music programs in certain high schools such as jazz band, jazz choir, and Glee projects. We will also **gather a special interest group** who support music.

**underline= same words*

Patrick does not cite the interview, but interestingly uses *we*; it is not clear whether Patrick had thought initially that a good way to keep music in schools was to reduce certain programs or if he only came to agree with the professor's idea after the interview. While there is a longer phrase of "gather a special interest group," other identical terms are not particularly unique to the professor's statement, such as Glee, jazz band and music programs. What may

make Patrick's use of these terms questionable to some is the way they are clustered together as in the interview; notably, Patrick's text rearranges the ordering and the text is more like a paraphrase than a verbatim statement.

Patrick may have appropriated the idea of the professor or already have had it or something similar in mind. He also may be in the process of appropriating these key terms and use of words like *gather* to discuss a group formation. This process could prove useful in helping Patrick learn expressions and ways of argumentation done in arts and music disciplines. So in many ways Patrick could learn through this process of paraphrasing and patchwriting, including ways to cite sources appropriately, a skill needed for graduate school and some professions.

1.3.1.3 Use of key terms in the dissertation

Through anecdotal description and analysis of a student text, the key terms of this dissertation have been introduced, including: *dialogue* and *heteroglossia*, *dialogic expansion* and *contraction*, *engagement*, *vocalization*, and *appropriation*. They are terms adopted from Bakhtin (1981, 1986) and Appraisal Theory (Martin & White, 2005), which itself is grounded in Bakhtinian theory. Chapters 2, 4, and 6 will give further instantiations of these terms as well. I will now provide a brief glance of the topic and purpose of the remaining chapters.

1.4 Dissertation chapter topics and content

This dissertation is organized into seven distinct yet interrelated chapters. This chapter has served to initiate conversation on the topic and identify important issues related to it, as well as situate the reader into the context and terminology of the study. The three data chapters, which are Chapters 4, 5, and 6, could be thought of as approaching writing development and source use from various perspectives but all of which relate to the topic of ownership of words.

1.4.1 Chapter 2: Review of literature

Chapter 2 discusses past research related to my study, which is organized by various theoretical propositions from Bakhtinian theory (1981, 1986) that are useful for addressing my research questions. During the literature review, I will discuss past research on engagement, source incorporation across genres, paraphrasing, identity, and agency. I will also draw the reader's attention to important aspects of literature that still need to be addressed and researched.

1.4.2 Chapter 3: Methods

Chapter three serves to give the reader details on the research process I participated in as well as the rationale for doing so. I focus on methodology and methods including information on the setting and participants, research design, and procedures of analysis. While I discuss all methods of data analysis, I save the detailed explanations of discourse analysis for their respective chapters, Chapters 4 and 5.

1.4.3 Chapter 4: Engagement, dialogue, and vocalization

Chapter 4 looks at engagement, specifically how sources are incorporated and how stance and attitude are displayed, including any sort of dialogue happening between the student writer and source author and/or reader. The chapter takes a close linguistic analysis of texts in consideration of a particular discourse analytic framework, Appraisal Theory.

1.4.4 Chapter 5: Paraphrasing, language use, and appropriation

Placed after the discussion of engagement and ways of incorporating outside sources using paraphrases, summaries or quotations, Chapter 5 focuses in on paraphrasing in particular, looking at how source incorporation is understood and discussed by the participants and how the student writers paraphrase.

1.4.5 Chapter 6: Heteroglossia, constraint agency, and researching the self

Chapter 6 explores the ways in which two students draw upon their educational experiences in order to create research-based documents. I analyze their educational narratives and texts as well as the conversations I had with them. In the chapter, I look at how past experience influences their approaches to writing and academia as well as their writing itself via their arguments and examples; specifically, I look at how their past experiences inform their arguments and how their past experiences influence their approaches to writing.

1.4.6 Chapter 7: Conclusions, limitations, and implications

Arriving at the end of the data chapters and dissertation, Chapter 7 focuses on re-addressing my research questions in light of the findings from Chapters 4, 5, and 6 as well as limitations of the study. I then synthesize the three data chapters and situate the results back into the discussion of source incorporation, writing development, multilingual students, and academic literacy. Thoughts on what the findings suggest for theory as well as pedagogy will be explored, including possibilities for future research.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

2.1 Theoretical framework and literature

Studying how students develop academic writing skills through incorporating outside sources involves understanding a wide array of areas, as the topic can be approached from a variety of perspectives and research questions. This chapter sets out to situate the study in the context of past and present research and theories on academic writing development and source use. I address studies that focus on language development, citation, and source incorporation, all within the context of particular disciplines, writing tasks, and writers. Because I want to understand the role(s) of student backgrounds and experiences, I also discuss studies that look at

issues of identity, agency, as well as the expression of attitude and opinion.

Understanding the theoretical framework I adopt for this dissertation is needed for understanding approaches, questions, and analyses. Because of this, I discuss theoretical perspectives on language from Mikhail Bakhtin, a 20th century Russian philosopher and writer whose ideas on language have been influential for academic disciplines such as English and Linguistics. I find his theories to be insightful and applicable for investigating writing development because of the way he ties into larger social phenomena. I will orient the reader by discussing the definitions of some key Bakhtinian terms (some of which were described in Chapter 1) and the utility of such concepts in light of my research findings and current issues in the field of applied linguistics.

Furthermore, I discuss past research in order to situate the reader in a dialogue and consider what important questions are being addressed and those that are not but should be; this way the focus of my dissertation is grounded in needed inquiry. At the end of the chapter, I will summarize key points and specify the places in the literature that need further investigation, concluding with my research questions.

2.2 Bakhtinian approaches of language, writing, and source use

Researchers looking into writing development have both called for the incorporation of Bakhtinian frameworks (Middendorf, 1998; Sowden, 2005; White, 2003) and incorporated them into their studies (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Abasi, Akbari, & Graves, 2006; Halasek, 2005; Hu & Wang, 2014; Ivanic, 1998; Lee, 2010; Menard-Warwick, 2006; Swales, 2014) as a way to approach the process of learning to use words—other people's words—in writing. This may be because of the ways in which he discusses language and learning; his theories are even more fitting for analysis of source use in academic writing development. Using such a theoretical

framework allows for researchers to make connections to larger social phenomena and ideologies of language and communication. The specific theoretical concepts that I employ when approaching my research include the role of language, ownership, and social indexes; dialogue and response; and heteroglossia and multiple meanings of words. I address these themes below, in Section 1.3, and throughout the literature review when relevant.

Bakhtin (1981, 1986) believed that language is first and foremost social and born out of interaction. In addition, words and language are multiply indexed, meaning they are constantly referencing other contexts, words, and people. To illustrate, the term *green* is indexed with meanings related to colors (a *green* marker) but also environmental friendliness (going *green* by reducing carbon emissions and pollution). It also can be used to describe a neophyte to a field, such as a new teacher being described as *green*. *Green* really means many things, depending on the context and the speaker, such as a person who does not know the connotation in Western settings it has with environmental consciousness and preservation.

With this understanding comes the argument that "there are no 'neutral' words and forms...that can belong to 'no one'; language has been completely taken over, shot through with intentions and accents" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 293). However, language must be worked at to "become one's own" (p. 293), as with those who struggle while learning a second language or the jargon of their discipline. This understanding of words is important when considering issues related to paraphrasing, patchwriting, and overall academic language development. Multiple people can own the same language while at the same time understand and use it differently. The intentions and accents are the nuanced meanings individuals use a word for, such as in humor. This can be useful when interpreting student expressions of attitudes toward source authors as well as with paraphrasing.

Similarly, academic texts are social and in dialogue with other works or sources through citation. Academic texts often reference other texts, creating an intertextual, and heteroglossic form since multiple pieces of writing and people's ideas are discussed as one text. Heteroglossia in the context of a written text refers to the existence of multiple voices in one text, such as the various researchers cited in a literature review, whose opposing views on a topic may be discussed. Heteroglossia can also refer to types of languages, such as registers related to social contexts; this includes academic English versus informal English spoken outside of academic contexts. Coined by Kristeva (1986) in discussion of Bakhtinian theory (1981), *intertextuality* is closely related to heteroglossia, and it is used to discuss any sort of referencing that might happen in an academic text, such as a citation to reference a research article or discussion of a popular news story discussed in the media. Student writers may also create texts that involve their own voices and experiences, not just those of cited sources, such as when writing about topics related to their pasts.

However, academic texts can be owned via copyright and can be seen as research-based and objective, such as an author's published article in an academic journal such as "Nature" or "Applied Linguistics." And yet, academic texts are made of words. Tensions exist when trying to establish whether words and ideas are owned by a particular person or a "public good" available to anyone to use.

Notably, such tensions have become an important issue given the policies and practices related to plagiarism and academic dishonesty in educational institutions. Bakhtinian theory may help advance this complicated topic by deconstructing how language is used and learned, which may be particularly useful in academic writing contexts. Because Bakhtinian theory centers on the multiple references and voices at play in language, it can be a valuable way to look at how

sources are incorporated and cited in academic texts. The theory's connection to language learning can also help when considering academic writing development.

2.3 Response and talking about others

People use other's words implicitly and explicitly, as in referencing or reported speech. Academia participates in the former activity often, as other's ideas and words take up a significant portion of academic writing. Another important consideration is how another's ideas are discussed and the "degrees of precision and impartiality" that writers bestow on other people's words and ideas (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 339). Reporting speech is not a neutral act; rather, other's words and ideas serve a specific aim and support in arguments. This can be seen with the types of reporting verbs used by writers and their nuanced differences in opinion toward someone else's ideas, such as *prove*, *show*, *demonstrate*, and *claim*. Moreover, preference for use varies across social groups.

For example, one study found that social sciences used more reporting verbs followed by a that-clause, such as *she shows that* than in the natural sciences (Charles, 2006). In addition, in the natural sciences, the subject of the reporting verb tended to not be human, given that the focus was on the research and methods rather than who did them, such as *the results suggest* (Charles, 2006). As for expressing stance toward a source, there have been conflicting arguments regarding student writers' use of evaluative reporting verbs. To illustrate, while neutral reporting verbs might prevent a student writer from taking a stance (Ramoroka, 2014), others have argued that at times using such verbs might be important when trying to avoid criticizing a respected author (Thompson & Ye, 1991). This remains an important topic for academic student writing.

Reporting verbs also reflect one essential characteristic of dialogue and writing: the

notion of response. Response can be seen in the context of a text's audience and the dialogue created between reader and writer. This is partially because of what Bakhtin (1986) calls addressivity: all language is a response to something, whether a person or an idea. A student's essay may be a response to a prompt that asks him/her to reply to a statement, which is often seen in standardized, timed writing tests. The student is not just writing something; s/he is reacting to a prompt and the situation of being in an exam for writing skills. A writer's thoughts are reactions and interactions with others, including readers and source authors. In addition, a writer may include a counter argument in anticipation of a reader's particular skepticism.

Researchers have approached this topic from a variety of viewpoints and focus, such that no one system of analysis or classification can be assumed. Terms such as stance (Biber, 2006; Hyland, 2005), attitude (Martin & White, 2005), engagement (Hyland, 2005; Martin & White, 2005), intertextuality, modality, and voice have been used when addressing such issues. In general, studies have looked at attitude, argument, ratio of citations to author text, and ways of incorporating a text (syntactically and pragmatically, as in quotation, paraphrase, or summary).

Response can also be considered in the context of reviewing past literature on a topic for a research project. Literature reviews and research may serve a purpose beyond knowing what has been done before by helping develop arguments. As a result, a source-based text is a compilation of voices, brought together by the writer with the purpose of engaging in some sort of discussion. During the incorporation process, the writer may have developed his/her thoughts on the issue as well as appropriated some language or rhetorical moves from the source (Bakhtin, 1986). It is what Bakhtin (1981) referred to as an "orchestration of voices."

Discussions of reporting information and expressing (or not) attitude and stance bring to question the notion of neutral statements and objective writing. Though there are ways to

incorporate a source author in a fairly unbiased manner, in the end the source is contributing to the authorial voice's argument as a whole, which includes some sort of stance. It seems that there is always a stance being taken, no matter how subtle (Bakhtin, 1986; "Engagement- a Bakhtinian perspective," 2012), and it is expressed linguistically, including when incorporating outside sources. When taking a stance, a student writer might consider the audience and source author while thinking about his/her agreement with the proposed ideas. In this sense, s/he responds to another person and creates a discussion. That is, the ways student writers incorporate their sources and the ways in which they express attitude contribute to the creation of a dialogue.

White (2003) describes such a dialogue in writing as either inviting readers to think of other various viewpoints or having readers focus only on one viewpoint. As discussed in Chapter 1, the first is called *dialogic expansion*, in which multiple opinions are discussed and the second is *dialogic contraction*, in which the conversation is mostly limited to the authorial voice (the student writer). Notably, dialogic contraction is not always a rhetorically harmful act; in order to make an argument, writers have to dialogically contract the discussion with the reader to focus on the soundness of their argument. Nonetheless, it appears dialogic expansion is an important part of academic writing, since expansion acknowledges other possibilities and findings. However, novice writers have been found to approach the topic of an argument as if their opinion were the sole (correct) one, resulting in a "constriction of negotiation of space" (Mei & Allison, 2005).

Importantly, elements of effective texts are not just based on ratios or a binary of dialogic expansion or contraction. How students employ their sources matters, such as whether they discuss background information in an introduction or talk about a source before providing their counterargument to its claim. To illustrate, Mei's (2007) study of undergraduate geography

essays found that how students conversed with their sources correlated with grading and not solely expansive or contractiveness alone. For example, for dialogically expansive texts, those with the higher grade engaged their sources with attribution, which is discussing what others have done; in many respects, the students situated their essays within a previously established academic conversation and they explicitly demonstrated their participation in it by attributing ideas and texts to others. However, low-grade essays that were dialogically expansive tended to entertain ideas and possibilities without reference to other sources.

In addition, for dialogically contractive texts, students who received lower grades tended to close down the conversation by pronouncing their own ideas as true. When high scoring essays were contractive, they closed down the conversation in terms of addressing a claim from others and countering it (Mei, 2007). However, given the various ways in which sources can be dialogically expansive or contractive (Martin & White, 2005), it remains to be seen how a more refined understanding of dialogism may help with categorizing source use.

Response to an outside source can be considered beyond expansion and contraction of dialogue. The response also involves a certain stance, which can range in how assertive it is; the benefit of this range is that it allows for a writer to cater an argument toward specific circumstances such as audience, purpose, evidence, etc. This aspect of source incorporation has been researched as well.

To illustrate, other studies also use the context of high- and low-grade essays to look for patterns in texts. In general, students make their arguments too assertive (Mei & Allison, 2005) without evidence to justify their claims (Allison, 1995; Lee, 2010), and this is particularly true of those receiving lower grades regardless of L1 or L2 English backgrounds. They may also not employ modals in an effective manner (Hyland, 1994) for graduation of claims such as

must versus *may*. Some students fail to show their attitudes toward their research in the introductions of their essays (Hood, 2004). In addition, published articles have used more interaction with sources than undergraduate student essays (Hyland, 2004). The same was true of weak undergraduate freshman essays from both native and non-native speakers of English (Lee, 2010).

In the act of forming an argument in an academic text, student writers need to be able to identify their position on a topic, but as part of an already established discussion. Considerations must be made in relation to whom they are writing as well as how others' findings and ideas relate to their argument. There are many ways to do this and it is a complex web of linguistic and rhetorical moves to indicate attitude to a reader about a topic and other people's thoughts. Across genres, a published academic text "display[s] the writer's awareness of both its readers and its consequences" (Hyland, 2005, p. 5). In this sense, a writer is recognizing the *addressivity* in writing, where an author considers whom s/he is responding to or addressing (Bakhtin, 1986). At the same time, writers must ensure that their "voice is not lost, though the diversity of opinions is acknowledged" (Mei & Allison, 2005, p. 115).

2.4 Other's words and "tastes" of a discipline and ownership

Academia and academic writing, though diverse across and within disciplines, represents a certain view on the world, a particular framework through which to understand phenomena, such as valuing evidence and proof when discussing ideas. Novice writers must acquire such language and views on the world, such as discipline-specific vocabulary and writing styles that highlight the object of study rather than the researcher. In order to become a part of the academic community, novice writers must adapt to viewpoints and linguistic expressions of the academy, since academia and various disciplines have their own terminology, writing style, and framework

for understanding the world. That is, they have “tastes” of a particular group and the words are already embedded in a specific social context (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 293).

These “tastes” can be considered the indexing, or referencing, that happens with language, and how people have used the language in the past. Studies have addressed such specialized language across and within disciplines, such as a contrastive study by Hyland (2005) of journal articles across the social sciences, humanities, engineering, and hard sciences. This study found that across the disciplines, authors used hedges and pronouns the most when expressing stance, such as *our results suggest* and *we should be able to*, respectively (pp. 179 & 183). As for differences, social science fields used questions more often while the hard sciences used more directives such as *one should freeze* and *think about it* (p. 185). Philosophy articles tended overall to express opinion and interaction with readers more often than those in engineering. Others have found this varies depending on language proficiency of the author and where in a text the citation occurs, such as in a literature review versus discussion sections (Rabab'ah & Al-Marshadi, 2013).

Furthermore, Hu and Wang (2014) notably speculate that these differences may occur due to epistemological differences between the domains of sciences and humanities, with positivist approaches in the sciences emphasizing facts and truth while non-positivist approaches in the social sciences and humanities emphasize subjectivity and multiplicity of truths. In addition, they note that the content of the articles may lead to a dialogically contractive or expansive text, such that medical journals discuss findings from experimental research and use reporting verbs such as *show*, *report*, and *find* (p. 24). Applied linguists, however, tended to focus on propositional ideas and evidence, using reporting verbs such as *argues*, *think*, and *point out* (p. 24). Studies on genre and source use can reveal not only the forms used but also address the

functions of such forms. Such an approach allows for textual analyses that address how writers use sources "to establish a persuasive epistemological and social framework for the acceptance of their arguments" (Hyland, 2000, p. 22).

Research has addressed disciplinary differences in language and student background. For example, Hu and Wang's (2014) study also looked at language background of the source authors and found that the native English speakers cited more often than Chinese speaking authors and also discussed the source author more often. Swale's (2014) research found no differences in engagement between final year undergraduate and graduate student writing; moreover, little difference was found in source engagement between evolutionary and molecular biology.

Another way of using outside sources that may vary by discipline is how students integrate sources by paraphrasing, quoting, or summarizing, and whether or not a source author is mentioned in a sentence. Patterns for source integration can also reveal the style of a discipline. By addressing source engagement in student writing, researchers have tried to find the relationship between assignment grade and use of outside sources, partially due to pedagogical concerns. For preference of source incorporation, research on academic texts of undergraduate and graduate students and L1 and L2 English speakers has shown high-grade essays tend to use a variety of types of source incorporation, including use of paraphrases and quotes (Swales, 2014); have an approximate 70:30 ratio of non-integrated citations to integrated ones, meaning end-of-text citation was far more common than mentioning the source author within a sentence (Swales, 2014); use more paraphrases and summaries than quotes (Lee, 2010); use more quotes than paraphrases (Petrić, 2012) vary according to task type (Petrić & Harwood, 2013); and establish more links between sources (Petrić, 2007).

As suggested by Lee (2010) and Petrić's (2012) conflicting findings on frequency of

quotes and paraphrases, source use is understood and valued differently according to context, including location, population, text type, and discipline. While Lee's (2010) study looked at an argumentative essay from first year composition students of English and East Asian L1 backgrounds in Australia, Petric(2012) analyzed masters theses in Gender Studies from students in Eastern Europe, with varying L1 backgrounds. Moreover, Lee (2010)focused mostly on analysis of attitude and less on quoting, but Petric's(2012) study categorized quotes according to length: Shorter fragments of texts, mostly noun phrases, were used by high-grade theses; low-grade theses used verb phrases that could be more easily inserted into a text than a noun phrase, which requires a construction of a clause itself. Despite the small fragments, the high-grade theses still used more quoted words overall than the low-grade ones.

As for discussing a source author within a text, some work has been done comparing writing expertise and experience. One example comes from engineering, where students who had never published academic texts tended to integrate the source author into a text, but those with experience publishing varied between mentioning the author within a text or just as an end of text citation (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). Furthermore, they varied in how the source author was mentioned, such as being the subject of a sentence *Smith (1999) shows* or a noun phrase *Smith's (1999) work shows*, with novice writers tending to only use the former option (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011).

In addition, applied linguistics articles mentioned the author within a sentence five times more than general medicine journals, but both had the same proportion of citations and quoted infrequently (Hu & Wang, 2014). The preference for end of text citations in science-related disciplines could be related to the avoidance of quotes altogether as compared to the social sciences and humanities' usage of direct quotes (Hyland, 2000). However this may not be an

issue of social sciences versus sciences, as Cao and Hu's study (2014) found that applied linguistics journals referenced the source author within a text more often than education journals. Hu and Wang's study (2014) also revealed that applied linguistic articles were more dialogically expansive, in that they offered readers a variety of opinions rather than portraying the writer's opinion as the only (correct) one.

Overall, though variation based on subject matter exists, students received higher marks when they incorporated sources in a more woven manner, including critical analysis and application of the source's arguments to their own. Incorporation and integration may refer to paraphrasing and summarizing (Lee, 2010) or perhaps quoting in ways that require syntactic manipulation of the cited text (Petrić, 2012). Moreover, higher scoring texts that maintained authorial voice were not crowded with other source's ideas or words. The student writers also used sources to advance their own arguments without closing down the conversation with the reader. Student texts receiving low grades (typically Cs or Ds) did not integrate their sources in such a manner and tended to not only populate their texts with more direct quotes but also used sources in a less cohesive, woven manner, which Swales (2014) calls "parenthetical plonking" (p. 135), where a cited source is put in a text but not discussed or framed.

Students struggling with academic writing may lack the ability to use intertextuality as a strategic device and create a woven text (Lee, 2010) and struggle with incorporating other's ideas and words with their own (Gu & Brooks, 2008). Understandings of the use of sources may also be a factor (Hutchings, 2014), which is important considering Hyland's (2000) research findings that the number of references in an academic text has increased and "they have become more focused, pertinent and integrated into the argument" (p. 22). Developing discipline-specific practices for using sources remains essential for students' integration into the academic

community. This is again because language is always a socially embedded practice where a particular group of individuals construct language in a particular fashion, thus creating a specific genre (Bakhtin, 1986). Student writers participate in this social group when they incorporate outside sources in ways similar to their disciplines.

2.4.1 Ownership of language, lexical bundles, and patchwriting

What remains to be determined is how novice writers learn these tastes and interpret the different meanings behind particular language, such as using passive voice to describe methods in order to highlight the method, rather than the performer, such as *The chemicals were mixed* versus *The lab assistant mixed the chemicals*. Supposing that these tastes do get learned and that novice writers begin to incorporate academic language into their writing, there is still the struggle to make the words one's own.

In addition to considerations of epistemology and academic literacy, source incorporation and associated issues such as plagiarism need to be considered in light of textual ownership (Bloch, 2012), in that privatization of language and laws to protect property have been constructed and contested over time. Concerns around ownership of an idea or string of text began around the time of the printing press and continue today with copyright laws on texts and accusations of stealing someone's language (Bloch, 2012). At the same time, ideas and words have been recognized as valuable ways to advance society, such that they should be made common goods.

As a result, there are conflicts in ideologies where on the one hand words and ideas can be privatized and on the other hand are open for anyone to use. Tensions remain over fair use of language and written texts. However, considerations of formulaic language problematize such a debate. Studies in corpus linguistics have revealed patterns in language use, specifically that

there are strings of words and phrasal structures that appear repeatedly in speech and writing. Biber, Conrad and Cortes'(2004) and Biber, Conrad, Reppen, Byrd and Helt's(2002) work has shown that writers often use the same lexical bundles, which are often verb, noun, or prepositional phrases of four or more words. Moreover, they serve particular functions, which are categorized into stance, discourse organizers, and referential expression (Biber et al., 2004). Writers use the same language in their texts, often for similar reasons, making it debatable what texts should be cited or quoted and which should not.

Lexical bundles and formulaic language have been found to vary across academic disciplines (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2012a; Pecorari, 2008b), dialects of English (Liu, 2012), and academic written versus oral English (Biber et al., 2004). Patterns based on genre support Bakhtinian arguments for language as social and having a taste of a field or discipline. For example, Biber et al. (2004) found that spoken academic discourse tended to use more lexical bundles that were verb phrases, whereas academic texts used more noun and prepositional phrases. Classroom conversations consisted of verb phrases such as *it's going to be*, *is based on the*, and *that's one of the* (p. 381). Written texts tended to have noun phrases like *the way in which* and *the end of the*, or prepositional phrases such as *of the things that* and *at the same time* (p. 381).

In addition to lexical bundles, writers appear to also use formulaic sentence structure, such as Pecorari's(2008b) description of biology texts using structural templates, such as *X is Y which causes Z*, and having similar subject types (non-human topics such as a bacteria) and verb types (reporting verbs such as *cause*) (pp. 27-28). Use of *it* as a subject with a complement clause also appears to be a feature of academic writing, such as *it is interesting* or *it is important*(Charles, 2006; Hewings & Hewings, 2002; Pérez-Llantada, 2014). It has also been

argued that there may be more shared language when considering collocations, an aspect of corpus data lexical bundles do not address (Durrant, 2009). Collocations differ from lexical bundles in that they are concerned with words or forms that are most often used together in a text but not necessarily adjacently. For example, the term *app* (short of application) may be frequently used in sentences discussing smartphones, such that the two words are collocated: I downloaded a new *app* for studying on my *smartphone*; *smartphones* are known to be useful due to the conveniences coming from *apps*; this *smartphone app* costs too much money.

As for students and writing, studies suggest that students do not use lexical bundles the way published texts do (Durrant & Mathews-Aydinli, 2011) and L1 speakers use more in their writing than L2 students (Ädel & Erman, 2012; Chen & Baker, 2010). However, they may use stance similarly (Ädel & Erman, 2012). Given this discrepancy and the argument that lexical bundles signal membership in a specific academic community, students would benefit from learning such formulaic phrases and grammatical structures (Pang, 2010).

From lexical bundles to structural templates, students may need to use formulaic language in order to better integrate into their academic community. Concerns over plagiarism, copying, and citation have not addressed this issue and also provide no space for it to be incorporated into a working definition of plagiarism. For various reasons, sometimes language used by other people does not get identified through quotation marks (Bakhtin, 1981). There are certainly transgressive and non-transgressive forms of verbatim copying from texts without quotation marks. There are also certainly times when it is not clear how non-transgressive plagiarism should be viewed and responded to. All the same, plagiarism policies exist and are

practiced in the academy, and individuals must reconcile conflicting beliefs on language use⁶.

Approaches to theorizing plagiarism and understanding academic text use have become more nuanced, perhaps beginning with Howard's (1992) development of the term *patchwriting*, defined as "copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one synonym substitutes" (1992, p. 233). The term refers to intertextual writing that appears to have pieces of source author and authorial voice⁷ language, similar to a quilt composed of various fabrics sewn together in patches. It reframes analysis of student writing and has been used to refer to texts that have strings of words from different authors. However, like quilts, patchwritten texts vary in appearance and characteristics. That is, the extent of seamlessness is variable. Another important element of patchwriting involves how it is used and what it refers to.

Patchwriting has been a topic of debate and inquiry, with some arguing that students attempt to learn language through patchwriting (Gu & Brooks, 2008) and copying strings of text is not transgressive (Flowerdew & Li, 2007; Howard, 1999). Others yet appear to use it as a way to manage stress in academia (Abasi & Akbari, 2008). Nevertheless, students may develop literacy and language abilities differently and gradually (Davis, 2013). In other words, patchwriting draws attention, perhaps due to ambiguity of voices involved and how one's voice is made clear (or occluded) and why (Fairclough, 1992). It is a place where students can develop academic writing skills as well as address the questions of ownership, intertextuality, and

⁶ I recognize that there is an extensive body of literature on plagiarism, patchwriting and language development across disciplines and settings. However, as my dissertation focuses more on paraphrasing than patchwriting or plagiarism, I have chosen to leave out much of the discussion from the literature.

⁷ Because terminology of author, writer and speaker can be ambiguous and confusing when discussing written text and intertextuality, I adopt the two terms used by Appraisal Theory to distinguish between a source author and the person writing a text. "Authorial voice" refers in this study to the student writers. "Source author" refers to the writers of the cited source.

learning (Ivanic, 1998). However, it has only recently been considered in light of formulaic language (Pecorari & Shaw, 2012) and key terms of a text (Keck, 2006), such as whether or not *it remains to be seen* is a lexical bundle or a quotable, ownable phrase. Thus it remains to be known how knowledge of formulaic language might help in understanding patchwriting.

Considerations of formulaic language and patchwriting also illustrate ways in which language belongs to no one person (Bakhtin, 1981), as it is part of a larger social fabric. Given the argument that language exists in social contexts (Bakhtin, 1986), students' use of verbatim text in patchwriting reflects a normal use of language rather than being something unusual. When paraphrasing in this manner, students may engage in the process of appropriating language and making it their own.

2.5 Language appropriation and authoritative discourse

Issues concerning patchwriting and paraphrasing indicate that developing academic literacies remains a challenge. Students may initially struggle to understand how certain words are used, but later reach a point where they feel comfortable using them on their own, in their writing. In the meantime, there may be an ambiguous transition period where a word "lives on the borderline between oneself and the other. The word in language is half someone else's" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 293). That is, there is a time in language development when language exists somewhere in between two people and neither can claim full ownership. This might be seen with a use of a quotation around key words or not, or paraphrasing in a way so that there is a mixture of the source author's words and those of the student writer. Some patchwriting and paraphrasing could represent such a mixture.

Given the subjectivity of this process, it is not always clear how a novice writer goes about using a word with his/her own meaning and for his/her own reasons. It may be possible to

observe such a phenomenon by looking at drafts of student-produced texts that cite sources. One factor to consider when thinking of language appropriation is the role of *authoritative discourse* (Bakhtin, 1981), which is a way of speaking or specific language that someone finds difficult to interact with linguistically, such as complicated jargon of a discipline. Ways of writing can also be an *authoritative discourse*, such as use of outside sources to support arguments over personal experience. Or it may be seen as something that should be left as is, such as a holy book, similar to focal participant Patrick's discussion of Beethoven in the beginning of Chapter 1. A key element of an *authoritative discourse* is that it is used by an authority; for example, higher education has a level of prestige and power over an undergraduate student, such that the way of communicating in academia is a type of authoritative discourse.

Nevertheless, students need to interact with such an authoritative discourse in order to participate in the academy, despite the fact that it is not a straightforward task. Students may struggle to rearrange a text when paraphrasing it, or they may not know how to use the rhetorical features of a specific genre. This may be due to linguistic difficulties such as issues of subordination or vocabulary, or it can be due to a student's belief that a text from a published author should be left as is because of its authority. However, in the process of appropriating academic discourse and literacy practices, students need to make these forms their own. The discourse needs to become *internally persuasive* (Bakhtin, 1981), where the students feel the right to claim the language as their own.

Undergraduate students may come into the academy with discourses (as in language and writing rhetoric) that they are comfortable with because they are *internally persuasive*. A goal of learning to write academically is to use the authoritative discourse of the academy, including jargon, ways of understanding argument, and the role of research for evidence; more than just

using the discourse, it is hoped that students find the ways of writing to be internally persuasive and part of their own discourse rather than someone else's. Considering power dynamics in the academy and novice student writers, struggle with authoritative discourse may be more common than not. However, this may be part of the socialization process students go through when becoming members of the academic community.

2.5.1 Paraphrasing: Definitions and analyses

While paraphrasing is an activity where students may try out language and begin to appropriate words, there is still debate over what paraphrasing entails (Howard & Robillard, 2008; Keck, 2006; Yamada, 2003), such as if meaning always changes, or if it is possible to retell something in one's own words without any traces to the paraphrased text. It may very well be that students are not just transmitting the ideas of texts when paraphrasing; they are also learning the discourse of a specific text genre. Therefore, the act of paraphrasing also serves as a means through which language is learned and academic literacy developed. Bakhtin does not use the term *paraphrase*, but refers to the activity as "double-voiced discourse," arguing for the value of retaining a trace of the paraphrased text:

(in) a double-voiced narration of another's words... "one's own words" must not completely *dilute* the quality that makes another's words unique; a retelling in one's own words should have a *mixed character*, able when necessary to reproduce the *style and expressions* of the transmitted text. (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 341).

The terms *character*, *style* and *expressions* can be interpreted to include linguistic aspects such as word choice and sentence structure. The argument that paraphrasing should have a mixed character aligns with some definitions of paraphrasing (Campbell, 1998; Hirvela & Du, 2013), which reference the words *combination* and *to blend*.

These definitions overlap with Jamieson & Howard's (n.d.) definition of paraphrasing from The Citation Project, which defines paraphrasing to include new sentence structure and vocabulary and not sharing more than 20% of the source's language (and anything above that could be considered plagiarism). These definitions contrast with the academic writing resource website, the Purdue OWL (Online Writing Lab), whose criterion for paraphrasing is for it *not* to be reminiscent of the original text⁸ (Cimasko, 2013). The question of how much resemblance should exist in paraphrasing becomes an important question. For those who propose patchwriting to be a way of learning (Hirvela & Du, 2013), the mixed character is expected and not viewed as a form of plagiarism.

To illustrate the difficulty in distinguishing between plagiarism and paraphrasing, one of the writing instructors for the observed courses noted during a class discussion how "there is a fine line between paraphrasing and plagiarism" (Paula, classroom observation, 1/29/13). This is an example of how paraphrasing, plagiarism, and patchwriting are discussed together, as some may believe the terms patchwriting and plagiarism are synonymous. When defining the parameters and form of paraphrasing, a tension emerges between understanding the interaction with another's text as a form of appropriation and learning versus a form of unintentional theft and plagiarism. Consideration of the earlier discussed topic regarding formulaic language and lexical bundles further complicates the issue.

Debates over paraphrasing and ownership lie in contrasting views of language. On the one hand is the social, dialogic aspect of language and language learning, and on the other hand is the individualistic, monologic aspect of language, both of which may be considered valid

⁸ It should be noted that the popular online writing manual, the Purdue Owl, recognizes tensions students have when writing in the academy, including aspects of language learning and source incorporation (Stolley, Brizee, & Paiz, 2013)

understandings. In academic settings, how paraphrasing, appropriation, and patchwriting occur may vary across disciplines and tasks; language appropriation in writing via paraphrasing and source incorporation occurs in a variety of ways yet to be explored. In classroom settings, this could be through drafts, peer work, feedback, or other activities. However, what remains constant is the fact that at the center of the act is struggle and tension, since "one's *own discourse* is gradually and slowly wrought out of others' words that have been *acknowledged and assimilated*, and the boundaries between the two are at first *scarcely perceptible*." (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 345, italics added). The time-consuming and difficult process of making something one's own words partially arises from finding a way to make authoritative discourse internally persuasive; students may feel incapable of even attempting to unlock an authoritative discourse from its quotation marks and begin to interpret, re-word, and appropriate the language. Nevertheless, even if "acknowledged and assimilated," there remains a point when a student's language may closely resemble that of an incorporated source author such that the differences are "scarcely perceptible." Student writers must balance between joining in on the academic conversation in their writing tasks while also mediating between violating a core aspect of the academy—ownership of texts and ideas—and developing academic language.

Furthermore, while there are recognized ambiguities on what counts as a paraphrase, few studies have analyzed the grammatical features of paraphrasing and patchwriting, such as re-ordering, morphological changes and use of synonyms, save for Keck (2010), who addresses clausal changes and addition and deletions. In fact, research on paraphrasing that addresses grammatical features is found mostly in computational linguistics (Barron-Cedeno, Vila, Martí, & Rosso, 2013; Vila, Martí, & Rodríguez, 2014), who address structural and lexical features (in order to design plagiarism-detecting software programs). An example would be to analyze the

morphological changes in a paraphrase, such as taking the cited text's verb *discovered* and changing it in the paraphrase to a noun, *discovery*. It remains to be seen how student writers do this and under which situations it is considered an appropriate paraphrase.

What much research has focused on are terms such as source use, citation, plagiarism, and patchwriting, all of which talk around the topic of paraphrasing, yet less is known about what researchers, students, professors and administrators think about paraphrasing on its own. To illustrate, Yamada's (2003) study on how university policies discuss plagiarism demonstrates the need to unpack the term *paraphrase*. She found that in official statements, universities often end their discussion of plagiarism with stating the need for students to paraphrase, but that for the most part they did not provide a good definition or example of paraphrasing. Moreover, Yamada (2003) sees administrators characterizing plagiarism as something that can be addressed in a straightforward manner via paraphrasing. However, sample paraphrases were found to be more than just re-phrasing (the common understanding of paraphrasing); the paraphrases involved critical thinking and information adding via inference by the writer (as discussed in Hirvela & Du, 2013). Concerning plagiarism policy, it appears that the term paraphrasing may be used as an (unconsidered) stopgap while having multiple meanings attached to it.

There is also a need for research that looks at paraphrasing as a complex matter to understand on its own. In second language learning contexts, inquiries into paraphrasing have found that the topic involves much more than a re-phrasing and involves more complex issues such as function and knowledge creation. In terms of patchwriting and paraphrasing, Keck (2006) found that while L1 and L2 writers in the study paraphrased the same amount of sources, L2 writers may use many more identical texts than L1 writers (Keck, 2006). Moreover, an L2 writer who performs well at in-class paraphrasing activities may not be able to incorporate

sources via paraphrasing in a written assignment (Hirvela & Du, 2013).

Hirvela and Du (2013) argue that this happened due to issues concerning knowledge retelling versus creating, a topic which has been discussed in source use literature (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Shi, 2012; Yamada, 2003). The student in Hirvela and Du's study was unable to paraphrase because of a perceived inability to transform information from the text. They see this as a two dimensional part of paraphrasing, in that it is at times used to describe knowledge *(re)telling* and at other times knowledge *transforming*, but that overt discussions of paraphrasing fall mostly on the former, a finding that aligns with Yamada's (2003) argument about exemplary paraphrases being transformative. Seeing not only the interaction of information but also power dynamics at play in paraphrasing may also help understand the topic better.

Finally, in the context of paraphrases in essays there may be double-voicedness occurring, which is usually discussed when referencing quoted text, where the authorial voice quotes the source author while adding his/her own stance. Paraphrases are slightly more complicated due to lack of quotation marks and ambiguity of voice. One way to understand dialogic voicing and paraphrasing can come from Bakhtin's discussion of the use of parody in novels and how authors could mimic a writing style in order to mock a group of people. Bakhtin (1981) specifically discusses Charles Dickens' switch between various styles or voices without explicit indication, such as quoting or referencing. Paraphrasing may involve a similar phenomenon. To illustrate, Baynham (1999) discusses double-voicing in student writing that references outside research. However, he does not distinguish between quoted versus paraphrased texts. What a quoted text indicates to a reader is that the words have been said exactly by someone else. Nevertheless, paraphrases are more ambiguous. While intertextual due to a citation, a paraphrase does not clearly identify voices, such that the double-voicedness is not

clear. Bakhtin noted that Dickens used word choice, syntax and other linguistic maneuvers when changing between writing styles to mock the register of a particular class of individuals. His juxtaposition of voices within a text created a parody of certain types of speech, giving it a double-voicedness.

What paraphrased texts (sentences with end of text citation and no quotation marks) might explicitly indicate is the intertextual, heteroglossic “mash-up” of voices within a sentence. However, paraphrases also mark a double-voicedness that comes from the authorial voice using the cited source with a certain intention. In academic writing, this is rarely a parody, but this quality could apply to paraphrased sentences that discuss the source author, such as *Smith (1999) reported that elementary school students tend to...* This could also apply to paraphrases that do not discuss the outside source, such as *Elementary school students tend to...* because the end of text citation indicates automatically a sort of double-voicedness occurring.

While it is more explicit to the reader that another’s ideas and perhaps words are being discussed, what should be assumed is that there is a mix of styles as well. There may be emulation of the source author, perhaps an academic text, via the structural moves, vocabulary and other features. And this emulation may demonstrate knowledge of a genre and membership in the academy. Thus, I argue that paraphrases should be seen as foundationally “double-voiced narration[s] of another’s words” with the narrative involving at times knowledge transformation or refraction of one’s own intentions. (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 341). While the references to “another” in the following quote by Bakhtin is often interpreted to be one and the same, the quote can also be interpreted to index two separate individuals:

This double voicing will lend itself a certain quality to the writing since it "*is another's speech in another's language*, serving to express authorial intentions but in a refracted

way" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 324).

A paraphrase is often the *source author's* speech in the *authorial voice's* language, with varying amounts of refracted interpretations and linguistic changes. Paraphrases involve acknowledgment via citation and assimilation through the modification of someone else's language. Through the process of paraphrasing, discourse is created—one's own discourse. Perhaps the value of paraphrasing is not just about work or proof of understanding. It is the site of production of self-generated discourse and language appropriation. The problem it serves in academic settings is the argument that there is often a "scarcely perceptible" difference between one's own language and that of another. Citation practices and modern notions of ownership of texts are at odds with language learning in this context.

2.6 Identity creation, agency, and heteroglossia

As discussed earlier, becoming a part of a community of speakers, such as engineers or educators, involves not only speaking a particular type of language but also adopting a certain framework for understanding the world. A small scale analysis on the word choice of U.S. Spanish and English medium newspapers illustrates the connection of language and ways of thinking (Loring, 2011). When discussing the topic of immigration in the U.S., the Spanish-medium newspaper tended to use the phrase *trabajador indocumentado* ("undocumented workers") while the English-medium newspaper employed the term *illegal aliens* ("extranjero ilegal" in Spanish) when referencing individuals who are in the U.S. without sanctioned permission. Given that immigration issues often center on Latinos, specifically Mexican peoples, perhaps the Spanish medium newspaper and its readers were sympathetic to the issue. It could be argued that the individuals subscribing and reading such English medium papers adopt or have the view of immigration as something that needs to be limited. Though no

causal relationship is trying to be made, communities reveal their ways of seeing the world with the language they use.

Another way to describe use of language is to understand how words *index* particular attitudes and belief systems (Wodak, 2001; van Dijk, 1985); in the immigration discussion mentioned above, the ways in which individuals are labeled indexes or marks a speaker's way of understanding the issue, in this case immigration. Indexing demonstrates the heteroglossic nature of language and serves as a way to communicate multiple ideas. Phenomena like those observed with the newspapers have been studied elsewhere and also concern matters of stereotypes and racism (Chilton, 1994). For example, Davila (2012) found that teachers indexed their attitudes pertaining to standard American English and ethnicities of students. The teacher's discussion of students as *urban* and *inner city* referenced stereotypes that these students were African American with low SES (socio-economic status). The ways in which the urban students' writing were described, such as with mistakes, also indexed beliefs that their white counterparts were better educated and wrote with correct academic English. The use of particular words indicates not only beliefs but also open up the charged, multi-voiced nature of words, such as *inner city* students or *illegal* people. With the use of these words come the socio-historical references.

Similarly, academic writing is situated in a social sphere; texts produced by particular professors in academic journals have their own rhetorical forms and approaches to the function of writing. In many ways, social aspects of writing speaks to people's identities, whether how they act, perceive themselves as acting, or both. Given the intertextuality of language and people's membership in multiple social spheres, individual identities or ways of being can also be multiple and in fact conflicting (Menard-Warwick, Heredia-Herrera, & Palmer, 2013). Bakhtin (1981) argued that "the ideological becoming of a human being, in this view, is the process of

selectively assimilating the words of others" (p. 341). Identity development or "ideological becoming" are (per)formed through interaction with rhetoric and language. The ways in which individuals write express a certain type of identity, whether of an academic insider, outsider, or somewhere in between.

How individuals pull together the voices of others in an academic text and the conversation created may reflect on people's beliefs of the world, or how they think it should be portrayed. The heteroglossic orchestration of voices may construe a particular identity of the student writer. A student may select to include certain voices and not others, as well as particular language forms that index various realities (i.e. undocumented vs. illegal). However, given conflicts of identities and struggles for appropriation, it may also be challenging for individuals to form an identity in a text. Language and communication are always contextualized and part of a real social happening. Understanding interactions of social phenomena on identity construction has been researched by others as well. Hall (1996) describes this heteroglossic approach to identity as something that is in creation rather than created; this discussion comes from discounting beliefs in stable, permanent, singular identities of a particular group or culture:

Identities are about questions of using the resources of history, language, and culture in the process of *becoming* rather than *being*: not 'who we are' or 'where we came from,' so much as what we become, *how we have been represented* and how that bears on *how we represent ourselves*. (p. 4, italics added)

Hall's (1996) discussion of identity in the quote above demonstrates two key elements of what it means to have an identity. For one, identities are created, not given; second, they are a composite of internal and external perceptions of the self. Rather than discounting one's past, Hall argues that people's identities are *forged* over the course of history as opposed to simply

existing in a singular, stable way. Lived experiences and new situations both influence how identities are enacted. As Holland, Lachicotte Jr., Skinner, and Cain(1998) note, identities are "possibilities for mediating agency" (p. 4).One influential factor is the embodied histories individuals have, such as past experiences, social interactions, and imposed ideologies, all of which are created and changed continually. However, there is also an agentic force that can create or shape identity in the moment, as a reaction to an event (Holland et al., 1998). As discussed by Holland et al. (1998), identities are neither fixed by history nor are they spontaneously created in a given moment. They are neither entirely socially constructed nor vacuously conceived in the mind. Rather, there is a complex relationship involved with the self and other, the past, present and perceived future. A habitus (Bourdieu, 1977) is recognized as existing while at the same time something that one can challenge and adjust.

Since creation of anything entails some sort of practice, identity work occurs through various literacy practices, including writing of a personal element, such as narratives, expressivist genres, and even research papers. Hence, identity becomes a formative, social process that can be witnessed during the writing process and whose vestiges can be seen in drafts of writing (Ivanic, 1998). The adult student writers in Ivanic's (1998) study demonstrated struggles with identity in the academy, such as whether or not to use quotations because their use might suggest valuing outside authority over personal experience, an idea which one focal participant did not completely agree with (p. 231).What is more, multiple identities or subjectivities can be created and are never permanent and always a struggle (Norton, 1997). Identity can consist of how people see themselves in terms of their histories with education and schooling and family background, including culture and language (Harklau, McClanahan, & Mendez, 2012; Ivanic, 1998; Ivanic & Camps, 2001; Ortmeir-Hooper, 2008).

Furthermore, as Bakhtin (1981), Menard-Warwick (2005), and Holland et. al. (1998) argue, individuals have choices and can create or change beliefs about themselves. Writing and the writing classroom is a space where students can consider issues relating to their sense of self, as well as demonstrate resistance to certain prescribed identities for writing. This was seen with the subjects in Ivanic's (1998) work on using and appropriating academic discourses (or not). To illustrate, one student rejected the practice of extensive source use and quoting and "appealing to authority as the source of ideas" (p. 231). Student's ideologies and self-positioning in writing settings have also been observed, as in Liu and Tannacito's (2013) study on how international Taiwanese students resist writing assignments and instructors due to perceptions of English language privilege and White Prestige Ideology. In the study, some international students valued Anglo American instructors and the English they spoke rather than non-Anglo English speakers or non-native speakers of English. As a result, the students resisted some writing practices if they did not align with their narrow ideas of what English activities in a classroom setting should look like, particularly if their instructors did not fit their ideals.

Arguably, many studies on research, source engagement, and writing inherently incorporate aspects of identity, since issues related to plagiarism, ownership, and stereotypes involve perceptions of people and the self. Students may struggle with identifying and being identified as a student, scholar, knowledge creator as well as owner of language, as in Abasi, Akbari, and Graves' (2006) observation of a L2 graduate student resisting feedback from an instructor to cite key terms; while the graduate student identified herself as someone who now owned the key terms, thus not needing to quote or cite them, the instructor thought otherwise, challenging the student's identity (pp. 109-110).

Thompson and Pennycook's (2008) study on second language learners developing

language from sources also reveals conflicting senses of self and the right to own a language. A student working on developing her English skills expressed frustration with the process of source incorporation, citation, fair use, and language learning; she felt limited by the rules of citation and quotation and thought the academic language should be more open for her to use. Thompson and Pennycook (2008) explain how she "struggled to come to terms with the version of language and knowledge that looked to her like the privatization of natural resources, rather than the use of shared commodities." (p. 134). Issues pertaining to voice and stance are also instantiations of a performed identity, such as one in which students often think they have to be assertive and authoritative (Hyland, 2008).

Finally, since the "self" is an ever changing composite, realized in different contexts, how a writing identity gets formed or how students demonstrate agency may be a complex process. This may be in part due to past experiences being in conflict with current academic literacy practices. On literacy development and identity, Menard-Warwick (2005) notes how it "becomes particularly intense when it enacts valued identities, while literacy practices which conflict with desired identities may be carried out furtively or avoided entirely" (p. 265). Similar to Ivanic's (1998) findings, students may participate in academic literacy practices of source incorporation in various ways; some of these practices may not be coherent with standard practices such as issues of how much to cite, whom to cite, how to argue an opinion, etc.

As studies on L2 writers (Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999b) and plagiarism (Howard, 1999) have shown, students struggle in writing. Moreover, as students decide which topics to research and what argument to make, identity development may be "a process both exhilarating and painful" (Menard-Warwick, 2005, p. 266). Some of this "exhilaration" may come from the way identities can be forged during writing. Participants in Ivanic's (1998) study tried out

language and identities as well as contested others during the process of drafting texts for courses. Scholars have also focused on identity and agency within a Bakhtinian framework for understanding the self and the possibility of change through intertextuality and "self-authoring" (Holland, Lachicotte Jr., Skinner, & Cain, 1998; Menard-Warwick, Heredia-Herrera, & Palmer, 2013). Writing in such a way that includes argumentation, the self, and research may initiate questions for students regarding their own abilities in writing as well as their thoughts on the value given to it.

Moreover, it appears that issues related to understanding the self and identity actually play a role in the writing process and outcomes (Ivanic, 1998), in that knowledge generation, voice, legitimacy in academia, and genre specific writing all involve a person's sense of self. In fact, many have argued that starting from a student's experiences and interests actually enhances the writing process and educational experience for reasons such as students becoming more invested in their writing and producing better pieces of writing in general (Burnham, 2001; Comfort, 2000; Davis & Shadle, 2000; Leonard, 1997; Tobin, 2001; Welch, 1996).

2.6.1 Writing as way to transform worlds: Agency and capital

Such scholars re-frame undergraduate writing in academia to include an emphasis on the student as a person with legitimate experience and voice, arguing that education and writing are more meaningful when students can synthesize their lives with the academy. Writing courses may become essential to showing students how to bridge their multiple lives while learning and trying to make a change. Comfort (2000) argues writing instruction should enable students to "recognize the writerly self as a *persuasive instrument* that can be strategically deployed and to learn to make effective use of their own multiple locations to take personal stands on public issues *that transcend the confessional*" (p 555, original italics). Therefore, academic literacy

involves the relationship of the self to the world.

Le's (2009) studied her roles as a master theses advisor at an Australian university and how issues of identity, bilingualism, and power dynamics influence her student's writing. She discusses how writers can resist or comply with academic writing standards. Research projects and writing assignments may also be spaces where students explore a personal topic of interest and further develop thoughts on their own lives, as in the case of one Japanese American student researching the U.S.'s internment of Japanese Americans during World War II and continuing interest in the subject after the project ended (Davis & Shadle, 2000).

Student decision-making on the writing process and topics of inquiry may help in creating more meaningful writing projects and allow in a self or personhood that they feel may not be valued. To illustrate, Ortmeir-Hooper's (2008) study of second language learner writing identity found one student incorporated more of himself into writing assignments, such as in a research paper on beer that started with an extensive personal anecdote of the student's life in Russia with his father. Though not a personal narrative or a research project exclusively on Russian experiences with beer, the student framed his research from a personal perspective. There was an interaction between the personal and the research that occurred during the drafting process, which has been what researchers have been calling for.

Agency in a general sense is a person's ability to enact, change, and do. Ahearn(2001) succinctly describes it as "the socioculturally mediated capacity to act" (p. 112). In educational settings, agency relates often relates to Bourdieu's (1977) concepts of structured systems, habitus and real and symbolic capital. In essence, there are intact structural constraints of academia (power hierarchies, privileged knowledge, grades, and fees). In this system, individuals are more adept to succeed in such structures(regardless of agency) due to possessing various types of real

capital, such as ability to pay for tuition fees. Besides monetary capital, there is *symbolic capital*, which does not directly involve financial funds; rather, it pertains to particular skillsets or knowledge that are valued in a society, which has been termed *cultural capital*. *Cultural capital* ranges from the literacy practices performed in one's home (Heath, 1982) to the type of high school attended. *Habitus* relates to cultural capital and includes past experiences and literacies learned over time in a social environment. Furthermore, cultural capital can include academic and linguistic capital. *Academic capital* involves knowledge pertaining to the educational system, as in knowing how universities function such as interacting with professors, attending office hours, receiving feedback on writing, and test-taking strategies. *Linguistic capital* involves knowledge of certain types of language or registers, such as academic language or the jargon of a specific discipline, which can influence success in writing classes. Importantly *social capital* addresses the social networks people have that allow them access to privileged information such as mentors, educated family members, peers from privileged groups.

Possessing different types of symbolic capital helps remove educational constraints that people may have due to lack of real capital, and those that lack capital experience limitations in what they are able to do. Regarding such abilities, people exercise agency in a variety of ways in education, such as through what they decide to do in class, how they interact with classmates, whether or not they apply to college, etc. I believe another way people can exercise agency is through epistemological processes. When individuals feel that they can produce knowledge on their own, such as generating it from personal experience, they are believing in an agentic self. An exercise in agency is being a knowledge generator or even someone who negotiates knowledge rather than passively receiving it or discounting his/her experiences. However, there remains a tension between being "stuck" in a system without options to act and being an agentic

force of change, though people can exert agency regardless of the outcome.

Varghese (2012) addresses issues academics have with Bourdieu's stress on the power of the educational system and the contrasting belief that individuals have capacity to change their lives and educational outcome. In her framework, individuals exercise control within a system that constrains them in various ways, which she calls *constraint agency*, inspired by work by Mills and Gale (2007) on addressing frameworks of power. Constraint agency is the actions one is able to take to exercise freedom and choice within the confined limitations of a system, such as an educational system. It relates closely to Ahearn's (2001) discussion of agency in general since it involves actions that are socioculturally mediated. The added description of *constraint* highlights the existence of structures in fields such as education that position students in particular roles. Using this framework for a case study on an immigrant undergraduate student's struggle with academia, Varghese found that the student participant was able to practice agency by resisting some habits of the academy, while embracing others. Furthermore, when enacting agency, individuals also enact a sense of identity.

Agency and capital connect in at least three ways to the Bakhtinian theory framework adopted in this dissertation. First, in considering cultural capital, ways of speaking hold particular value, depending on context. In academic settings, discipline-specific registers represent a type of cultural capital, in that those who use such language are at an advantage for participating in the academic community. Thus particular speech genres (Bakhtin, 1986) exist as cultural capital. Students are obtaining cultural capital when they appropriate "other people's words" through interacting with published texts in their field. Second, an individual's habitus, or way of being, includes his/her way of speaking, which is internally persuasive discourse (Bakhtin, 1981). Appropriating authoritative discourse with its cultural capital involves acting in

an agentive manner, which relates to the third connection. When students work at orchestrating the authoritative voices during source incorporation, they assert their own agency in the situation, as it is they who are creating and constructing a cohesive dialogue.

2.7 Summary and areas for further research

Academic writing as a genre may be broadly interpreted. Its general characteristics involve elements of argumentation, critical analysis and synthesis, discussion of previous research, and use of primary or secondary evidence. The research and opinions of others can serve multiple functions in an academic text, including proof of opinions, a framework for analysis, and a synthesis of information. Outside sources appear in writing for multiple reasons, and deciding how to incorporate a source, whether as paraphrase or quote, is just a part of the larger picture of using sources. In many ways academic writing is highly heteroglossic in that multiple voices are being incorporated into one text.

How students write depends on a number of factors, and the definition of good writing varies across disciplines and instructors. However, in general, attention to audience is important, which makes sense given the understanding of all language being dialogic and in response to someone or something (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986). In Hyland's (2005) terms, authors recognize their readers, "pulling them along with their argument, focusing their attention, acknowledging their uncertainties, including them as discourse participants, and guiding them to interpretations" (p. 176). This is partially done through incorporation and reference to outside sources, both as sources of contention, support, and information. That heteroglossic, dialogic backdrop of source use serves an integral function in writing.

Furthermore, the author demonstrates his/her attitude towards the ideas and findings of other sources. Because of this, academic writing development involves learning citation

methods and practices as well as understanding the relationships among the writer (authorial voice), the source authors, and the reader(s). Considerations of background knowledge, opinions, evidence, and argument need to be taken into consideration when writing. In addition, student writers need to think about their language and ways of incorporating text, such as a brief paraphrase, a long quote, a short quote embedded in a clause, etc. These nuances of citation affect various aspects of a piece of writing, such as tone, certainty, and overall academic style.

Beyond the incorporation of outside sources, what is important in academic writing is clarifying one's argument and negotiating the amount of dialogic space allowed for source authors. This appears to be generally the case across genres, as pointed out by Hyland (1997) regarding the scientific (academic) community: It is based on "communality, skepticism, disinterestedness and the universality of scientific knowledge...in presenting a claim a writer cannot avoid expressing an attitude to it" (p. 22). Engaging sources involves how they are incorporated, how the authorial voice views them, and how open or closed of a stance is taken, which can be seen when someone mitigates claims.

Writers must utilize a "constellation of linguistic resources" (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 9) when using outside sources rhetorically. A close look at grammar can demonstrate how attitudes are expressed, such as in sentence structure and word choice. Studies have compared the amount and type of source use as well as issues relating to stance (Hyland, 2005; Lee, 2010; Mei & Allison, 2005). Focus has also been drawn to the dialogic aspect of source use and whether or not writers are engaging the reader in a conversation that expands or contracts on idea by using linguistic choices such as modality, verb choice, and pronominal use. What remains to be understood is how the type of source incorporation may involve dialogic expansion or contraction, such as quoting versus paraphrasing, or reference to the source author within a

sentence. The attitude(s) a student writer takes toward a source author also needs to be understood, along with the role of authority and power on how a source is discussed.

One specific aspect that has been addressed in studies but mostly as a secondary aspect is paraphrasing. Paraphrasing has been looked at in its relationship to patchwriting and discipline type, and the literature and academic community identify it as an important skill (Hirvela & Du, 2013; Howard, 1992; Keck, 2006; Pecorari & Shaw, 2012). It is agreed that paraphrasing is essential for academic literacy, and yet tensions and confusions around the topic remain. Language learning through paraphrasing poses challenges as well and is a difficult process (Bakhtin, 1981). In addition, a refined linguistic analysis of paraphrasing and patchwriting is needed so that patchwriting can be further identified beyond "patches." Knowing what specific patches look like would help make this happen, such as if they are typically noun phrases or are larger constituents (such as an independent clause, or the predicate of a clause). Because the amount and type of text used in a quote may matter in text assessment (Petrić, 2012), a more elaborated classification system may be needed that goes beyond the three categories of paraphrasing, summarizing, and quoting.

While some researchers have begun to look at paraphrasing (Hirvela & Du, 2013), many have not addressed the role of formulaic language and lexical bundles or used a specific typology for analyzing paraphrases grammatically. Further analysis is needed on how students paraphrase beyond considering switching out words for synonyms or deleting information. Formulaic language and lexical bundles need to enter the conversation on paraphrasing, as they directly relate to strings of verbatim texts and how widespread they are. Furthermore, given its tie to academic beliefs such as the value of individual scholarship and plagiarism, paraphrasing needs to be better understood. This includes how it is taught, and where difficulties arise when

interacting with it.

Writing involves social actors, and consideration of their perceptions and histories is important when trying to understand writing processes. Issues concerning the self may become salient in the writing classroom (Abasi, Akbari & Graves, 2006; Ivanic, 1998; Liu & Tannacito, 2013; Thompson & Pennycook, 2008). For one, students bring with them whatever literacies and capital they have via habitus (Bourdieu, 1977), and how those factors affect the writing process needs to be more fully understood. These literacies and capital are internally persuasive genres (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986) but they may not align with the academic genres and their authoritative discourses needed to write in the academy. Second, argumentative writing assignments involving student-selected research topics may be an important space for students to not only reflect on their own experiences, but also learn about themselves in the literature. It remains to be seen how such a process involves student agency and the ability of students to transform their pasts and identities through incorporating outside sources. The relationship between language and identity needs to be addressed, such as how students may use linguistic features to present their experiences or express ideas. Decisions to use personal pronouns and whether or not to use personal experience as evidence are all relevant to a writing class and student identity creation during an assignment. Thus, during such a writing process, students are faced with various tasks that require them to consider the different ways of speaking (Bakhtin, 1986) and how they are valued in academic settings (Bourdieu, 1977), as well as how they (the students) will respond.

Comfort (2000) stresses the importance of knowing the relationship between a student and his/her text, but I argue it is also important to consider the relationship a student writer has with his/her sources. This may be particularly important for those individuals lacking academic and linguistic capital, and are working out power dynamics in their daily interactions at the

university, an aspect of research Casanave(2003) calls for more of (particularly with L2 writing).

In applied linguistics and some composition studies, focus has been given to issues related to language use and development for international or domestic L2 students who are still developing English language skills related to word choice, lexical bundles, and sentence structure as well as rhetorical issues of evidence and argument. Given the demographics of universities and scholar interest (Shaw & Pecorari, 2012), many of those students have been from East Asian backgrounds. However, less focus has been given to bi- and multi-lingual students, some of whom in many contexts could be considered L2 but are fairly fluent in English. Since students classified as L2 really represent a wide range of linguistic backgrounds (Ferris, 2009), more focus needs to be given to such a range; less is known about those considered generation 1.5, born and raised in the U.S. and multilingual. Furthermore, such students come from a variety of cultural and ethnic backgrounds and the academy needs to understand source use and academic writing of these students, including those considered ethnic minorities in the academy, such as Latino populations. Given their underrepresentation in higher education (“UC Davis profile,” 2014), it may be valuable to understand the writing strategies and learning skills of those who have entered and continued through to their last year as an undergraduate student.

Due to the various factors discussed above, there are many areas one can focus on when considering academic writing development. A central concern that approaches discussed above bring forth is the challenges posed when negotiating ownership of words and ideas. Many interactions with sources during a writing process touch on whose thoughts and language are being expressed and how this can be noted. Bakhtinian theory (1981,1986) becomes a useful overarching framework through which to consider academic writing because it orients these inherent tensions and struggles over language into their socially constructed and historically

bound context. This makes it possible to address the roles of past experiences on current writing practices. Moreover, the theoretical concepts of dialogism, heteroglossia, language appropriation, and response are important because they allow for analysis of the various levels of source incorporation, from smaller linguistic units to larger factors of attitude. Given the importance of heteroglossia and social contexts, it becomes more important to consider student backgrounds and their skillsets and abilities to (re)act during the writing process.

2.71 Research questions

My study situates itself within the current conversations discussed in the literature above in three different places. For one, I address an important yet understudied aspect of discussions around citation, plagiarism, and patchwriting: paraphrasing. Research suggests that paraphrasing is highly valued as an alternative to plagiarizing, and yet the linguistic features of it are not clearly understood. Moreover, there is a need for research that looks at how paraphrasing is taught and understood. Second, discourse analysis of source incorporation has revealed a variety of patterns across disciplines and writing tasks, including technical features such as preferences to quote rather than paraphrase. However, much needs to be understood on how students express their arguments in relation to outside sources and how they display their own opinion of the source. Last, research has shown how writing can be personally transformative by contributing to one's sense of identity and enactment of agency. One area where there is a lack of understanding is how interaction and incorporation of information and evidence from outside sources might contribute to a student's identity creation. Considering these three interrelated domains, I developed the following research questions based on gaps I identified in the literature regarding paraphrasing, textual analysis, and student backgrounds. My questions are:

1. How do the focal participants integrate source authors and express stance and attitude,

and how do their language and literacy skills factor in?

2. How is paraphrasing discussed by the instructors and students and how do the students from different educational and literacy backgrounds paraphrase sources?

3. How do the participants draw upon past experiences when performing research based writing activities, considering issues of voice, background, and literacy?

Again considering the threads that connect these three questions and the ways in which these three questions form a unified approach to understanding source use, all three chapters focus in their own way on how ownership of language, ideas, and experiences plays out in the focal students' writing processes. The first question is addressed in Chapter 4 and asks how students identify their own voice and ideas from source authors; it also explores areas of formulaic language and how focal participants participate in academic literacies of source incorporation, thus to some extent demonstrating "ownership." In answering the second question, Chapter 5 considers how students understand ownership and appropriation of words during paraphrasing practices. Chapter 6 answers the third question and relates to ownership by exploring how students weave in their own lived experiences as evidence and argument in a research-based text. Since the notion of ownership assumes the existence of some sort of boundary or delineation of the self from another, in this case via language, these chapters address how students negotiate the borders of ownership.

Chapter 3: Methods

3.1 Methodology: Classroom ethnography and case study

My research is based on classroom ethnographic methods and takes the form of multiple case studies of eight focal participants (Duff, 2008). What I take from ethnography (Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999a; Watson-Gegeo, 1988, 1992) is the goal to have a thick description (Geertz,

1973), thick explanation (Watson-Gegeo, 1992), and holistic analysis (Diesing, 1971) of phenomena. Through research that tries to understand phenomena from a variety of forms, it is hoped that an understanding is created regarding how the participants understood particular phenomena (Watson-Gegeo, 1988) rather than just how the researcher understood it (Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999a; Watson-Gegeo, 1988).

My work as researcher is inherently subjective and interpretive (Bredo & Feinberg, 1982) but also empirically based, iterative, and inductive (Duff, 2008). It is "informed by theory" (Ramanathan & Atkinson, 1999a in discussion of Watson-Gegeo, 1999). I draw conclusions based on triangulation of multiple types of data and careful consideration of my role and the participants; looking for emergent patterns and information using Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). These methods serve to move the research from a data-driven source rather than just the ideas orchestrated solely by the researcher. In this sense, I strive for dependability and confirmability (Diesing, 1971) and enough understanding to be able to draw conclusions about these particular students and setting, what Ramanathan and Atkinson (1999a) term "particularizability."

The way in which this situated understanding gets realized is through case study, where a small number of participants are discussed in detail, offering a multifaceted and comprehensive view on a topic. Case study research is an established practice in applied linguistics (Duff, 2008), having its place alongside other methods of inquiry. In discussing the value of case studies, Menard-Warwick, Heredia-Herrera, and Palmer (2013) adopt Kinginger's (2009) view on the matter, which they paraphrase as case studies being "particularly useful for elucidating the relationships between language, culture, and identity that become visible in students' confrontations with unfamiliar norms and practices" (p. 386).

Case studies are not generalizable in a statistical sense to other contexts, since there are no assumptions about a normal distribution of participants, random sampling, or quantification. Nonetheless, they inform the literature and fields of inquiry on a focused phenomenon in the hopes that similar case studies could be looked at, compared and considered (Faltis, 1997). Menard-Warwick, et. al. (2013) elaborate on this argument, saying that looking at multiple case studies on a similar topic "provides an opportunity to go in-depth and explore the meanings that a similar experience has for participants from different backgrounds" (pp. 969-970). Casanave (2003) also argues for the benefits of case studies in writing, particularly in L2 contexts.

This may be particularly telling given the past research on source incorporation, as there have been a substantial amount of case studies done in this area (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Abasi, Askbari & Graves., 2006; Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004; Davis, 2013; Flowerdew & Li, 2007; Gu & Brooks, 2008; Hirvela & Du, 2013; Ivanic, 1998; Ivanic & Camps, 2001; Li, 2013; Li & Casanave, 2012; Liu & Tannacito, 2013; McCulloch, 2013; Thompson, Morton, & Storch, 2013; Thompson & Pennycook, 2008; Vargese, 2012). In their special issue the *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, Shaw and Pecorari (2012) approached the topic of source use from a qualitative, mostly case study perspective.

Furthermore, Polio and Shi (2012) note that case studies represent one of the four common approaches for researching source use, particularly people's perceptions and beliefs. They argue that case studies are useful because of being able to look at phenomena over time and triangulate from multiple parts of data. However, they also note the utility of studies that focus on text-based interviews and quantitative measurements of source use. Notably, Petric and Harwood's (2011) case study of one successful writer employed a mixed-methods approach, combining qualitative and quantitative analyzes of the student's texts and interviews.

As for the use of ethnographic methods and case study, I wanted to observe phenomena that happen over time and involve various individuals and events. Meeting with students on a regular basis to discuss their writing allowed me the opportunity to observe individual writing processes and understand student perspectives on writing. Given the individualized nature of writing (in terms of practices, topics, style, feedback, etc.) and my focus on understanding connections among education, personal history, and writing, I found it important to look in depth at a small number of students. Using a case study method allowed me to address questions of development while considering personal histories, which are complex and at times not readily divulged in questionnaires or with strangers. Spending time with the focal participants helped me understand their experiences and educational background in all their complexities. More specifically, using this approach allowed me to address my third question, which focuses closely on interactions of one's past with writing.

As for the classroom observations, I wanted to make connections between pedagogy and ways of incorporating sources. This includes observing how instructors talk about citation, evidence, researchers, and argumentation. I also wanted to look at the various materials available to the students in their writing class, such as course artifacts and exemplary essays. Spending time in the classroom allowed me to observe how the instructors discussed such course materials, such as citation guides, as well as how students responded to them. In general, classroom observations allow for triangulation of data that help in researching a complex topic. In addition, for my second question on discussion of paraphrasing, I wanted to understand how instructors addressed the issue and integrated it into their curriculum. While studies have reported student and instructor narratives on their learning of source use, there is a lack of research observing classroom instruction.

Student interviews and classroom observations helped me address my first research question relating to the way students interact with sources and express attitude. The analysis of discourse I used considers not only the text, but also the author, in this case the focal participants. Being able to observe students talk about their arguments and texts overtime provided insight into their ways of linguistically incorporating outside sources, which is a component of each data chapter. Looking at the students' literacy narratives and current thoughts on writing helped me understand the students as authors, as well as make connections to their written discourse.

My research focus seeks to understand phenomena that are complex and individualized, involving a student's past experiences in school and home life as well as current experiences in school. Case studies allowed me to focus in depth on the topic of source use and language development by spending time with participants and trying to understand their current educational experiences in their writing classes.

3.2 Site selection narrative: Contact, pilot study, and classes observed

I will now use a narrative to explain how I arrived at observing the classes and students for this research project, as well as the methodological decisions I made in order to address my research questions.

3.2.1 UC Davis and the University Writing Program

The study took place at a large public university in northern California, UC Davis, in which there are many first generation, multilingual and international students, and no majority ethnic group. According to Fall Quarter 2013 enrollment demographics, the three largest ethnic groups in the undergraduate population in order of size is "Asian/Pacific Islander" at 40%; "White" at 31%; and "Hispanic" at 18% ("UC Davis profile, 2013). The multilingual and multicultural background of students will most likely only increase as the university has already

begun increasing admittance of international undergraduate students.

The state of California is also fairly diverse, with no majority ethnic group. The three largest ethnic groups in the 2013 census data, in order by size, are “non-Hispanic white” at approximately 39%; Hispanic/Latino at approximately 38.4%; and Asian, approximately 14% (“State & County QuickFacts,” 2014). However, it has been estimated that the Hispanic/Latino population will surpass that of the non-Hispanic white group by 2014, with the percentages changing to 39% and 38.8%, respectively (“Governor’s budget summary,” 2013). Over 43% of households speak a language besides English at home, and roughly a quarter of the population was not born in the U.S. (“State & County QuickFacts,” 2014). Comparing the undergraduate population to the general population, it can be seen that Hispanics are underrepresented at the university.

The university offers a variety of majors and has some standard requirements for completing a four year degree, including writing requirements. Most majors at the university require students to take some sort of freshman composition course and an upper division writing course, though they can opt out of the latter through passing a timed writing exam. The upper division courses are housed in the University Writing Program, which has been recognized for its excellence in undergraduate writing (“Writing in the disciplines,” 2014). The upper division writing requirement allows students the option of taking a general writing course, a discipline-specific course, or a course on writing in a discipline-related profession. The upper division courses have students write a variety of texts and seek to prepare them for graduate school and the workplace. The courses are often taught by either tenure-track faculty or full-time lecturers; the lecturers are highly skilled PhD degree holders who often have multiple publications in and outside of academia. A requirement for these courses is that students write 6,000 words total.

An ongoing, long-term survey being conducted by Ferris et. al (in progress) of over 4,500 student responses found that about one-third of the upper division students are transfers and 71%⁹ had either not taken a writing class in over a year or not at all at UC Davis. About one in five students was born outside of the U.S. For language background, there appear to be many multilingual students. For example, only 56% of the students reported learning English at birth; 28% learned English between the ages of 1 and 5 years, and the rest learned English after the age of five¹⁰. Furthermore, 28% came from households where adults spoke English and one or more language, and 33% came from households where English was not spoken but one or more other language. Thus, over 60% of the students could be seen as bilingual (assuming they spoke the language(s) of the adults). The most frequent languages were first Chinese, of any dialect, and then Spanish. For the upper division course on writing and education that I observed, some of these numbers shift slightly. Based on a survey of 400 respondents, there were more transfer students (from about 30% to 40%) and relatedly, more reported having taken college-level writing course outside of the university. More students (46% compared to 39%) came from English-only homes. Unlike the overall courses, there were more Spanish speakers than Chinese speakers. Fewer students were born out of the U.S.

3.2.2 Preliminary observations and pilot study

For the first half of 2012, I was writing my dissertation prospectus and deciding on an appropriate site and student group for my research interests. I contacted instructors who were teaching upper division writing courses and asked if I could observe one of their classes. I spent some weeks observing classes designed for specific disciplines such as biology and engineering

⁹Percentages are rounded to the nearest whole number

¹⁰Notably, one could learn English at birth and another language, thus being bilingual.

and those for particular professions such as business and technical communication, health and science. While I did not make any decisions on which class to observe, I knew I wanted to observe at least three sections of one specific course in the fall.

After my qualifying exam in June 2012, I decided to observe sections of the course designed for future educators. Although I observed many international students in the business-related course, the collaborative-style of text production served a different research agenda than my own; the education classes required a research-based text and were also more personally interesting to me, as an educator.

I did a pilot study over the summer, observing one education class, where the instructor suggested I work with one student, Wei (a pseudonym), because she saw him struggling with language in his writing. Another student asked me for writing help. I audio recorded interview and tutoring sessions with both individuals. Wei struggled to produce the word count requirement and incorporate outside sources. After the course ended, I compared his writing to the cited sources and found multiple paragraphs that were copied verbatim from a website. Although I contacted him to discuss his experiences in the class, he never responded to my emails. From the pilot study I gained insight on how to proceed with my research.

3.2.3 Class selection process

After the pilot study, I considered the fall course schedule and instructor assignments. I contacted three instructors whom I had observed earlier in the year and who were now teaching the writing course for future educators. They were receptive and graciously allowed me to be a part of their class to observe and work with their students. I made arrangements to come in the second and third weeks, according to instructor preference. Early in the quarter, I introduced myself, discussed my research, passed out a questionnaire and consent form, and answered

questions from the students. I identified and contacted fourteen participants who were interested in working with me and whose linguistic and cultural backgrounds represented a range of multilingualism. I ended up working with seven of them and will describe this process in detail in the "participant selection" section.

After the courses ended in December of 2012, I was concerned that I did not have enough data for my dissertation, as I initially had wanted to work with 10 students rather than 7. I knew that one of the instructors, Paula, was going to teach the same course the following quarter and she had already given me an open invitation to come back to her classes. Paula was very kind in having me in her class again, and she also seemed interested in my work. Paula explained that after working with me, she had been re-thinking how to teach the research paper in terms of source use and citation. I followed the same procedure as in the fall and ended up working with one additional focal student. I will now provide a synopsis of each of the three writing-for-educators sections, as they varied in several ways.

3.2.3.1 Paula's class

Paula's class had my participants Raquel, Candace, and Wes, with Raquel attending the class offered in the winter. Paula is an experienced writing and English instructor with extensive knowledge of k-12 education and English language learners. The course texts included books and articles on public education, standards, teaching, and writing. Assignments included written reading responses and three major writing assignments: a personal statement, a research-based document on an issue in education, and a lesson plan, all of which are briefly described later in the chapter. Drafts were read by the instructor and peers for feedback. The research paper also incorporated smaller assignments such as a proposal and an annotated bibliography. Completion of the 6000 word minimum happened in and outside of class. Classroom activities included

reading discussions in large and small groups, student presentations, silent writing, peer feedback, analysis of model assignments, and explanation of writing assignments and effective research and writing.

3.2.3.2 Denise's class

Denise's class had the participants Mara and Martin. Denise is also a very experienced instructor who has been working at the university for a number of years. Course texts included a reader on education and a handbook on writing style. There were four major assignments, three of which were similar to Paula's class, and are also described later in the chapter. As in Paula's class, all assignments had multiple drafts and the research project involved multiple scaffolded, smaller assignments, such as a proposal and an annotated bibliography. Class time was typically spent discussing the readings, including the handbook on writing style; time was also devoted to peer feedback, student presentations, and discussion of writing assignments and model texts.

3.2.3.3 Annette's class

Annette's class included my focal participants Claudia, Becky, and Patrick. Like the other instructors, Annette is an experienced instructor and published scholar and writer. Course texts included articles, the same reader on education as Denise, and two books on writing education and lesson planning. Similar to Paula's class, Annette's course had three major writing assignments (also discussed later) and included multiple drafts and peer and instructor feedback. Class activities included peer feedback, student presentations, discussion of readings, and explanation of writing assignments and model texts.

3.3 Participant selection: Subjects: Descriptions of background

In order to begin finding participants for my study, I created and distributed a language

background survey, which can be found in the Appendix A. I asked questions regarding language use, education, geographic locations lived, family background, etc. I also created a consent form for students, asking permission to use audio recording and the class essays¹¹. After receiving the questionnaires from the three courses in the fall, I compiled the data into a spreadsheet and considered the following factors for determining potential student participation: length of residency, places lived, languages used, interest in working with me as a tutor, reported percentage use of English outside of class. When students explicitly marked that they did not want to work with me, I did not consider them. However, when they put "yes" or "maybe," I looked at their demographics.

I wanted to work with students from a variety of language backgrounds—Spanish, Chinese, Vietnamese, Hmong, Korean, as well as length of residency, such as being born in the U.S. or having immigrated. I also wanted to have about the same amount of male and female participants. I tried to get a range of reported use of English outside the class. Most students wrote using English for more than 75% of their out-of-class communication, but some put 50-74% and a couple 25-49%. In the end, I found 14 students who I would be interested in working with and ended up with 7 due to attrition related to student availability and willingness to participate. After observing Paula's class again the next quarter, I had a total of 8 participants. I would have liked 10 participants for more variety in language and ethnic backgrounds, such as more Hispanic students who used little English at home or were working on English language development. While explaining my project to the classes, I stated that I wanted to do observations and work one-on-one with some students for interviews and help with their writing

¹¹ My study was approved by the IRB (Institutional Review Board), which is an organization that ensures ethical conduction of research. My research was deemed "Exempt", meaning I was not required to collect consent forms, but I did so in order to ensure that involved parties understood what they were participating in.

assignments. Claudia, Becky and Raquel approached me individually and expressed interest working with me right away. The majority of students allowed me to use their essays and audio recording in the class, and students varied in being interested in working with me individually. I held one hour of office hours a week for non-focal students who responded in the questionnaire that they were interested in working with me, though only one visited me.

While my interactions with the focal participants will be discussed in the data collection portion of this chapter, in general we talked over email and phone about when to meet, how often, and what we would discuss. I met with some students more regularly than others and our topics of discussion also varied, some preferring to talk about the content of the course and others engaging in conversations about their past and personal lives. I obtained an oral writing narrative from each of them, which will be further discussed in the data collection portion. After the courses ended, I stayed in contact with students over email, some more than others, asking follow-up questions. I also gave some participants feedback on their writing for other classes. Table 1 provides demographic, schooling, language and perceived literacy abilities and other relevant information, which I supplement with a brief description of each participant. Briefly, the *Demographic* section is all self-identified, including *Ethnicity*. *Age to U.S.* indicates any age that a participant moved to the U.S. from another country. In *Education*, the category *EL/ESL* indicates whether the student was ever classified during their education as an English Learner (EL) or English as a Second Language (ESL) learner. *Transfer* notes which participants transferred from a community college or other institution. *1st to college* indicates if the participant was the first in his/her family to attend college of any kind. *Grad school* and *Teach* indicate the participants' future plans on attending graduate school or becoming a teacher of any kind. The *Language* section notes with whom the participants typically used which language.

Strength in literacy is a self-reported section that indicates participant self-perceptions on their reading and writing. I also indicate how many interviews (typically one hour each) we had.

Table 1

	Martin	Candace	Wes	Patrick	Raquel	Mara	Claudia	Becky
<i>Demographic</i>								
Sex	Male	Female	Male	Male	Female	Female	Female	Female
Ethnicity	Mexican	Chinese	Chinese	Korean	Mexican	Hawaiian Chinese	Latina	Mexican
Age	23	21	21	22	n/a*	n/a	23	22
Birthplace	U.S.	China	China	U.S.	U.S.	U.S.	Dom. Rep.	U.S.
Age to U.S.	-	3, 18	17	9	-	-	16	-
Years abroad	0	9	17	9	0	2	16	0
<i>Education</i>								
Major	Chemistry	Human Development; Psychology	Archaeology	Music	Sociology	Linguistics	Spanish	Math
EL/ESL	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No
Transfer	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
1 st to college	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	n/a	Yes	n/a
Grad. School	Yes	Yes	Yes	Maybe	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Teach	Yes	Unsure	Unsure	Maybe	Unsure	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>Language</i>								
With parents	Spanish	Mandarin	Cantonese	Korean	Spanish	English	Spanish	Spanish English
Studied	Spanish	French Mandarin	Mandarin English	Spanish	Spanish	Spanish French Italian	French Haitian Creole	Spanish
<i>Strength in literacy</i> 4 = strong 1 = weak								
Reading	4	4	3	2	n/a	4	3	3

Writing	2	4	2	3	n/a	4	2	3
Interviews	8	6	4	6	2	3	5	4

* n/a indicates that the information is unknown

3.3.1 Martin

Martin transferred to the university from community college hoping to study (bio)chemistry, and he often spoke eagerly about physics and chemistry. He was in his last year of studies and took the course as a requirement, and he at times expressed interest in being a high school teacher or professor. Martin was a bilingual English/Spanish speaker and a first-generation Mexican American, born into a family with a father who did not speak English and two siblings who were bilingual. He never spoke of his mother and discussed being raised in a single parent household by his father, who had a limited amount of formal education (6th grade). In school, he was classified as ESL from primary school through the 11th grade, though he discussed his belief that he was never an English learner since he knew English as a child and how similar placements happened to his friends.

Martin had negative experiences throughout his educational years, including failing fifth grade and being put into a remedial class that he thought was for "dumb" students. In 7th grade, he received a near 4.0 GPA and was put in AVID (Advancement Via Individual Determination) and honors classes, but he left for a variety of reasons, which will be further addressed in Chapter 6. After high school, Martin attended a local community college for three years before transferring to UC Davis.

Martin was put on academic probation at the university his first quarter, as he failed many classes; Martin reported that the dean¹² also made him switch his major from Chemistry to

¹² Martin never specified which dean from which school and I did not inquire into the specifics. In fact, normally this would be a decision involving more than one dean.

Sociology against his wishes. At the time of the study, Martin was trying to transfer back into a biochemistry major, but by the end of my data collection in 2013, I discovered he was dismissed from the university for failing to have a high enough GPA. Martin expressed optimism at being able to finish his studies elsewhere.

3.3.2 Mara

Mara had a passion for languages, having spent time abroad in school, for leisure, and for work; she was majoring in Linguistics and hoped to continue on with her academic pursuits to receive a master's degree. As of fall 2014, she is in the second year of an MATESOL program. Mara transferred from community college, which she had attended off and on over the years and had "chipped away" at course requirements for transferring. Born in the U.S., Mara was raised for a time in a whitemiddle-class community, and after high school attended a small university for less than a year before leaving. Between that time and transferring to the university where this study took place, Mara worked in culinary and patisserie positions and also taught the craft in a trade school. Thus, she could be considered a "mature student", having entered the university system after her 20s.

3.3.3 Candace

Born in China, Candace and her family moved to the U.S. when she was 3, where she attended public education from kindergarten to 5th grade. When she was 10, Candace and her family moved back to China, where she stayed for nearly 9 years until coming directly to the university after high school. She was never placed in EL courses in the U.S., and learned to read and write in Mandarin Chinese from her mother while in China. She recalls struggling to use Chinese when she moved back to China, but regained fluency and is multilingual, having studied French in high school. Her father completed high school and her mother attended some college.

Candace spent the first four pre-high school years of study in China in a public school. For high school, she attended an International Baccalaureate (IB) school, which is known for its rigorous academic curriculum and college preparation pedagogy. The IB program website describes the IB diploma program that Candace went through as

an academically challenging and balanced programme of education with final examinations that prepares students...for success at university and life beyond. ("The IB diploma programme," n.d.)

Candace took advanced English classes during in high school and expressed overall appreciation for the IB program in terms of preparation for college and an overall quality education.

After high school in China, Candace returned to the U.S. and began attending the university, where she double-majored in Human Development and Psychology, with a minor in Education. Candace often talked with interest about issues related to psychology and education, and discussed an internship at a Montessori school. Due to requirements for the Human Development major, Candace took three lower division writing courses, and she appreciated one of them because she was able to submit drafts and receive help during office hours. Candace discussed forgetting some of her Chinese but making an effort to maintain it such as putting her Facebook in Chinese. While she was unsure of her post-graduation plans, Candace considered working in public health or education and therefore attending graduate school.

3.3.4 Wes

Wes was studying archaeology at the university and seemed very interested in the subject, having applied for internships in Washington D.C. and Europe. He was born and raised in Hong Kong and moved to the U.S. when he was 17 years old for college. His father had attended a prestigious U.S. university as an electrical engineer before changing to logistics

management. In China, Wes' education was bilingual, with elementary school being Chinese medium with (British) English classes; after elementary school, his education was in English with required Chinese language courses. His overall outlook on English was that it was utilitarian. He did, however, enjoy reading novels and archaeology related non-fiction books.

When he moved to the U.S., he attended a community college for two years, where he was placed in ESL courses. Wes took a few English writing courses, including a poetry class that he voluntarily enrolled in to improve his English, but that he ended up finding boring due to the teaching style. He discussed difficulties he had when transferring to the university and at times lacked confidence in his (American) English abilities and writing skills. Though enrolled in a course for future educators, Wes expressed no interest in becoming a teacher or working in education; he took the class as a requirement. He decided to enroll in the class due to course scheduling and availability. After graduating, Wes wanted to pursue a PhD in Archaeology.

3.3.5 Raquel

Raquel was a bilingual first generation Mexican American, born and raised in the U.S. Her parents spoke only Spanish and she often acted as a translator for them, but she spoke mostly in English with her siblings. She was never designated EL but was in a bilingual immersion program for the first few years of elementary school. She entered into a lottery to attend a public charter school for high school but did not win, and so attended a large public high school. Raquel said the school had an anti-education environment with few opportunities for her to succeed. Despite this, Raquel went to university directly after high school, partially due to pressure and encouragement from mentors and instructors to apply to college. She was the first in her family to attend a university, and her father had only a second grade education.

Once at the university, Raquel was enrolled to be an engineer, but failed many of her

classes and was put on academic probation. Raquel mentioned regret at not attending a community college before transferring, as she felt unprepared when she entered as a freshman. Like Martin, she reported having to switch majors at the behest of the dean, though she also did not specify from which dean. After failing to improve her GPA the second half of the school year, Raquel was dismissed from the university with the condition that she could return when her GPA was at an acceptable level. She did not disclose this information to her family. Raquel then attended a community college for one year and raised her GPA enough to re-enroll at the university for her third year. Once back, Raquel took advantage of tutoring assistance from university organized centers, as well as going to her teaching assistants' and professors' office hours regularly.

She often spoke passionately about Sociology and issues related to culture, mental health, education, and socioeconomic advancement. She also studied Psychology and minored in Chicano Studies. After graduating, Raquel wanted to attend graduate school for counseling but was not sure when and was concerned with the need to take care of her family, including her ailing father. Before graduating, Raquel obtained a paid research assistant position in a psychology lab associated with the university. Furthermore, being viewed as the educated, bilingual member of the family, she was looked to for help with her father's dementia-related mental health issues. She worked with her professors to try to diagnose her father's condition and wrote a letter to her father's doctor discussing his medical history and symptoms. She was able to use the letter as a replacement for the final paper of a course she took on psychology and mental health. Raquel seemed driven in her educational and work efforts by her hardships and personal experience as a Latina and as a daughter of an ailing parent.

3.3.6 Claudia

Claudia, a first generation Latina from the Dominican Republic, was passionate about sociocultural issues related to language use and development in Spanish. She moved to the U.S. when she was 15, where she was placed in EL (English Learner) courses. Claudia spent time in Haiti after the 2010 earthquake and the experience inspired her to research how to create better social conditions on the island. Before moving to the U.S., Claudia attended a private school in the Dominican Republic. While at a public high school in the U.S., Claudia received further English language instruction after school, in addition to her mandatory EL courses.

After graduating from high school, she attended a community college and decided to pursue a career in nursing. However, she changed courses and transferred to a four year university. At the university, she majored in Spanish and was passionate about academia and research, and was part of a graduate-school preparation program for underrepresented students, the McNair Scholars Program. She received research awards to travel in Latin America and collect data in Haiti and the Dominican Republic for her undergraduate research. As of now (fall 2014), she is enrolled in a PhD program in Spanish, looking at issues of language contact and socioeconomic status.

3.3.7 Patrick

Born in the U.S., Patrick moved at a young age to South Korea, where his family is from. He stayed in South Korea for nine years before moving back to the U.S. to attend the 7th grade, where he was designated EL. Both of his parents received master's degrees in theological seminary in the U.S. and South Korea. Patrick's passion was in music, particularly the piano, and at the university he changed his major from Mechanical Engineering to Music. Patrick expressed lukewarm perspectives on school, and seemed to struggle starting with elementary

school in Korea, including ambivalence toward reading and difficulties reading.

Once in EL courses in the U.S., Patrick did not like being designated "ESL" and at times expressed preference for non-EL courses because he thought the teachers expected more from him. Other times he recognized the value of EL courses for their focus on grammar and language use. Patrick transitioned out of EL in high school and went straight to university despite his own wishes, in order to fulfill his parents' expectations for him to receive a good education. Patrick had expressed conflicting opinions on education and often spoke negatively about school and teachers. He also discussed wanting to attend graduate school for teaching. Reading, writing and English were other spaces of conflict for Patrick, as he often felt limited in his English, unable to read or write well, and burdened by reading assignments; Patrick had mentioned his desire to speak only one language, English, and thought his knowledge of Korean did not help him in school at all. At other times, Patrick said he wanted to be able to read and write well. By the end of data collection, Patrick's current standing with the university was that he did not receive his degree yet because of failing the upper division writing requirement: he failed the writing course that I observed as well as the alternative writing exam that would waive the course requirement. In our last correspondence, Patrick was teaching piano lessons and waiting to attend another upper division writing course to complete his degree.

3.3.8 Becky

Becky was in her final year at the university, where she was majoring in mathematics, a subject she was very passionate about. Born and raised in the U.S., her family was of Mexican background and she spoke Spanish as a young child; however, her parents began speaking only English to her once she began elementary school, as they were concerned the bilingualism would hinder her performance. Becky attended Spanish language courses in high school, and again at

the university in order to improve her skills. Because of that, she felt stronger in her Spanish reading and writing abilities. She was never designated EL.

When asked about her English language classes, Becky discussed having mediocre English teachers in high school and feeling unprepared for university-level writing. She first attended a different university, where she struggled due to academic, personal and social issues; because of that, Becky transferred to a university closer to home, where the study took place. In addition to dissatisfaction in her English courses, Becky also did not like the writing required in her Spanish classes, as they were always on topics that did not interest her

Becky often spoke and wrote eagerly about mathematics and math education. She planned to become a math teacher in the k-12 system. She spoke of influential math instructors in high school and university professors. However, Becky also recognized the uniqueness of her position as a Latina, as she said they were only two Latinas in the Mathematics major. She only had two female math professors, one of whom she was very close with. Becky discussed her unique situation, saying she "wasn't supposed to go into math," which expressed her awareness that women and Latinos are very rare in the field and are often not expected to pursue math studies. As for writing, she seemed lukewarm to slightly negative and discussed being "not a writer" as well as having little interest in the research project for the writing course.

3.3.9 Academic language proficiencies

While student texts were analyzed in various ways in the three chapters (See section 3.6), I wanted to establish a rough sense of the students' language and writing proficiencies to complement the knowledge I had of their educational history. I used two measures to assess the kinds of academic writing skills which could be insightful for source incorporation, such as word choice when paraphrasing and subordination when discussing a quote. The first measure looked

at their use of academic vocabulary as measured by the Academic Word List from the language analysis website lextutor.ca (Cobb, T, n.d.; Heatly, Nation, and Coxhead, 2002). In the focal students' research texts I assessed the amount of academic words used (the tokens) and the different types of academic words used (the types) using the program Range (Cobb, T, n.d.; Heatly, Nation, and Coxhead, 2002). I also looked at the ratios between the tokens and types, seen in Table 2.

Table 2

	AWL tokens	AWL types	Type/token ratio*	Token/type ratio*	Language proficiency	Explanations
Martin	8.0%	15.1%	.60	1.68	mostly proficient	Had some issues with: word choice and verb form ; informal language; awkward language and connections; confusing sentence structure
Candace	7.9%	16%	.78	1.28	proficient	Had some issues with: word and verb form; informal language; occasional sentence structure problems
Wes	5.5%	10.3%	.76	1.31	somewhat proficient	Had more frequent issues with: word choice and form, verb form and tense; repetitive and awkward language; sentence structure coordination
Patrick	8.3%	16.9%	.73	1.38	somewhat proficient	Had more frequent issues with: word choice, verb and verb form; sentence structure; unclear and sometimes repetitive sentences
Raquel	10.4%	17.8%	.62	1.62	proficient	Had some issues with: word form; some long and awkward sentences
Mara	15.6%	23.2%	.55	1.81	highly proficient	Had accurate word choice and sentence variety; language was coherent and effective
Claudia	7.3%	15.8%	.77	1.29	mostly proficient	Had some issues with: word choice; awkward language; sentence structure

Becky	10.7%	19.5%	.59	1.70	proficient	Had occasional issues with verb tense and repetitive words
-------	-------	-------	-----	------	------------	--

*lexical density; high ratio=high density ** word repetition; high ratio=high repetition

Considering the ratio of types to tokens of academic vocabulary words in a text indicates lexical density and in theory, reading difficulty (Hudson, 2010). For example, a text that has many tokens but often of the same word (Gardner, 2013) would be less lexically dense than a text that had many different word types. Thus, a high *type to token* ratio indicates high lexical density, requiring a reader to have a broader range of vocabulary. A low type to token ratio indicates the reverse. A high *token to type* ratio signals that there are some vocabulary words that are repeated multiple times in a text. Table 2 demonstrates these percentages and ratios for the participants' final research texts, without quoted texts. Because some student texts were twice as long as others, I analyzed just the first 1,000 words; longer texts may increase chances of word repetition (Hudson, 2010).

The second measure used a holistic rubric to analyze language, including word choice and form and sentence structure. I adapted the *style* portion of the 5-category (ideas, organization & coherence, support, style, and mechanics) sample analytic rubric by the University Writing Program's for undergraduate writing. The style portion pertains to language, and has five categories for language use corresponding to the letter grades A, B, C, D and F ("Grading standards," n.d.; see Appendix B). While analyzing the student writing, I found none of the participants' research texts to be of F or D quality, as they all had varied sentences structure, academic language, and they were overall comprehensible. Because of this, I decided to adjust the rubric to have four categories, which would equate to the grades A to A+, B to A, C+ to B, and D+ to C+. This allowed for a finer distinction of the language in the students' writing. I

have included the rubric in Table 3.

Mara and Becky had the highest proficiency in academic language in terms of academic word list and holistic scoring of language features. Mara used words from the Academic World

Table 3

Highly proficient (A to A+)	Proficient (B to A)	Mostly proficient (C+ to B)	Somewhat proficient (D+ to C+)
Words chosen for their precise meanings and uses an appropriate level of specificity. Sentences are varied, yet clearly structured and carefully focused.	Generally uses words accurately and effectively. Sentences are sometimes too general or repetitive, or have an occasional error.	Has some issues with word choice and form. Sentence structure generally correct, but are at times wordy, unfocused, or repetitive.	Has issues with word choice and form. Contains awkward, ungrammatical, or confusing sentences with faulty embedding and clause structure.

List nearly three times as often as Wes, even though she repeated the AWL words more often than Wes. Raquel and Candace wrote texts that fit into the category of “proficient” due to their sentence variation, and effective grammar; however, the texts had some issues with word form and Candace used words from the AWL less often. Even though Martin and Claudia had similar percentages of types and tokens from the AWL as Candace, their writing had some awkward phrasing and sentence structure, as well as word choice for Claudia. Similarly, Patrick had more words from the AWL in his text than Candace, yet how he used them in his writing was at times ineffective. While still comprehensible and fluent, Wes and Patrick’s academic language had more limiting factors.

It should be noted that I did not use these measures as a steadfast way to categorize students. The two measures can be considered indicators that suggest academic vocabulary used and written language skills. However, they are useful to discuss general patterns, such as the fact that Mara’s language proficiencies were much higher than Wes, and that this may factor into paraphrasing (such as word choice) or integrating an outside source (such as correct use of

subordinating clauses). As I work through other linguistic analyses of student texts in the data chapters, I consider these measures of academic language abilities and what role they might play in source use and integration.

3.4 Researcher role

Since qualitative, ethnographic case studies heavily involve the researcher as an instrument, I will provide some information on my background, relationship to the participants and theoretical assumptions I have regarding researchers and the researched. I hope it offers readers insight into my analyses as well as any biases I may have with the data and topics. I will start with demographic information. Like my participants I also attended a large public university for my undergraduate studies. However, I was raised in a monolingual English household and studied foreign languages in high school and college (Japanese, Spanish, and French). I can communicate in Spanish fairly fluently and in basic French conversations.

3.4.1 Family background

Family background: My parents are both American; my father is ethnically Japanese and my mother's family came from parts of Western Europe. My Japanese name and what I look like sometimes matters in how people treat me, classify me and identify (or not) with me (which I recognize happens with everyone). To illustrate, Patrick and I had an interesting discussion about bilingualism and his ambivalent experience as a Korean and English speaker. He had just been telling me that he wished he only spoke English and I mentioned research suggesting that bilingualism had many benefits. He asked me what I thought since I was trilingual (I don't know why he thought this. Perhaps my last name revealed my Japanese background and I had mentioned knowing Spanish). He seemed surprised when I told him I didn't grow up speaking Japanese and asked if I wished I was bilingual. I said "yes" because it would allow me to speak

with other groups of people, a fact he agreed upon. So, in response to my background, Patrick began a conversation in which he identified a potential benefit of bilingualism and the idea that it could be desirable right after entertaining the idea of being monolingual.

3.4.2 Geographic location and social groups

Geographic location: I was raised in a small farming town with a large number of migrant farmworkers from Mexico. There is a mix of white, multi-generation Mexican-Americans, and recent immigrants from Mexico. Many of my friends growing up were Mexican and I experienced racially charged encounters in public and private settings. Again, this matters at times for my research. To illustrate, my background relates to how I understood Martin's personal narrative and experiences, since he is Mexican American and from a similar farming town. I believe I understood some of the cultural references he made, such as when he discussed being called a "cholo"¹³ in a derogatory manner by his white classmates in order to mark him as an outsider in the honors classes. This is because I had some "chol@" (male and female cholos) friends growing up and was familiar with the culture and racial tensions of small migrant farming towns in California.

3.4.3 Education and teaching

As an undergraduate at a large public university, I believe I had similar struggles to those of Candace and Mara regarding knowledge production and authoritative discourse. To illustrate, Candace had said she needed to start with quotes when writing an essay, saying she did not know how to produce ideas if she did not have someone else's words to anchor to. I believed this

¹³ "Cholo" in a Californian context is a slang term that refers to a Latino who dresses and speaks in a manner associated with gang activity regardless if they are actually in a gang or not. It can be used in a derogatory manner. Women can also be cholos, but are called "cholas" (feminine form). Wikipedia.org provides a list of the word used over a couple hundred years. Google defines "cholo" as "a lower-class Mexican, especially in an urban area" and "a teenage boy, especially in a Mexican-American community, who is a member of a street gang."

references issues relating to legitimacy and ideas as an undergraduate, which I too struggled with. Also, Mara discussed problems with being encouraged to "go out on a limb but then get reprimanded for it" (Interview, 11/21/12), which was also a concern for me.

I am very interested in linguistics, social interaction, and teaching and learning. I taught English as a second and foreign language in a variety of institutions in the U.S. and abroad; my experiences spending time in a classroom with diverse students has also made me particularly passionate about helping underprivileged and underrepresented groups and individuals better their lives through education and English.

I am in a Linguistics graduate program and am formally trained in linguistics and second language acquisition. However, during my doctoral studies I have chosen to pursue the area of writing and worked with faculty in the University Writing Program to receive a Designated Emphasis in Writing, Rhetoric and Composition Studies. Working with fellow graduate students from various departments, including education and English, has given me perspective on their various theoretical and analytical disciplinary frameworks. Readers should note that I have written this dissertation as an applied linguist in second language acquisition who is trying to work across the disciplines and understand how writing studies can help me understand my data.

3.4.4 Interviews

A particular topic that needs to be addressed is the interviews and feedback sessions I had with my participants. Considering language as social and dialogic, I as the researcher am part of the study, particularly during my interactions with the participants. Interviews are not neutral or objective and may often involve power dynamics and people's perceptions or schema for how to behave during the activity, such as what(not) to discuss. Talmy(2008) explains how interviews are co-constructed, in that the discussed topics and the words used were a result of our interaction,

not a list of interview questions. I cannot say with certainty how the participants viewed me but can make speculations and discuss ideas I have based on observations and time spent with them.

I also understand that there are at times differences between what people say and what they do (Li & Casanave, 2012) and that various labels of identity such as "gender" "writer" or "student" are actually formed and observed through action and performance (Butler, 1999). Thus, when I analyze my interviews and interaction and triangulate my data, I keep in mind that I am looking at people's perceptions and framing of events, rather than a "fact" or "truth" in a sense. Based on what we did during our interviews and feedback processes, I have the sense that some students saw me as someone to talk to about their lives, some looked to me for help on their writing and language, and others treated me as a student researcher, framing our discussions in terms of my research questions.

3.5 Data collection:

3.5.1 Observations

Using detailed ethnographic fieldnotes (Emerson, Fretz, & Shaw, 1995), I observed the three writing classes throughout the mid to latter half of the term. I tried to coordinate with the instructors' syllabi to observe when they covered topics related to the research assignment, source use, and citation. The writing classes were held in computer labs with no more than 25 students. Each class was 1 hour and 20 minutes in length. I observed Annette and Denise's classes each 7 times and Paula's class 8 times, three of which were in the subsequent term. This amounts to 176 hours of classroom observation. In a typical observation I would enter before class, sit in the back, turn on my audio recorder, and start taking handwritten fieldnotes, detailing time of events, speakers, location of interaction, etc. I also tried to write down whatever was written on the board.

I sometimes participated in the class, such as when Annette would offer for me to give written feedback on some drafts during the feedback workshops. Other times, Denise and Paul would ask me questions about linguistics or academia. In Annette's class I also walked around a few times during peer review and other revision, though students tended to ask the instructor for help. Sometimes when my focal participants were in a nearby small group discussion, I would listen in and join the discussion. However, I was mostly a silent observer taking notes. After the classes, I would write up my fieldnotes with as many details as possible with my accompanying questions and thoughts. I also transcribed portions of the classroom discussions that I found relevant to my findings.

3.5.2 Interview and tutoring/feedback sessions

My one-on-one interactions with the focal participants were partially interviews, partially tutoring or feedback sessions, and partially conversations about life in general. The sessions typically lasted about one hour and on average I met with each student 5 times. I spent the most time with Martin (8 sessions) and the least with Raquel (2 sessions). At the participant's choice, we would meet in my office or the university dining commons and cafe. During our interviews, I did not take many fieldnotes, but wrote down notes after. Also, I wrote a weekly summary of my thoughts on the project and what types of questions I wanted in the subsequent meeting. All the interviews were audio recorded and transcribed.

My interactions varied according to the participant and how they wanted the sessions to go. When I was eliciting participants in the classes, I explained that I could help them with their writing since I wanted to know how students developed use of sources in writing. Often students or I would bring in drafts of their essays; the majority of our interactions revolved around a draft or assignment for the course or a writing assignment for another course. If no drafts were written,

we discussed student ideas or their personal narratives.

With some students, we went over the written feedback from the instructors and peers, interpreting their comments and discussing how to respond, such as whether or not to consider a peer's suggestions. During the text-focused sessions, we would discuss linguistic aspects such as phrasing, word choice, and unclear language. We also discussed organizational issues, aspects of evidence, and the overall argument of the paper. Sometimes, such as with Claudia, Candace, Martin and Patrick, I helped the students go through the initial research process for their papers, such as looking up sources on library databases and search engines or looking on Google.com for k-12 school policies or newspaper articles.

I was able to interview all participants concerning their writing history, including their experience with reading and using outside sources. With Raquel, Claudia, Wes, and Becky, we scheduled a specific session to talk about this but with Candace, Patrick, and Martin, we addressed their educational experiences during discussion of their writing assignments. With Martin, Mara and Patrick, much of our conversations focused on experiences and perspectives of school and education.

Due to the interactive nature of our sessions, in which past experiences and current issues were discussed, I did not follow a strict script for questioning. However, I did ask students questions related to their experience with writing, source use and research, and language such as:

- What do you remember about your writing classes in k-12 and college?
- Where did you learn to use outside sources?
- What kind of papers did you write in high school, community college and university?
- Where did you attend school?
- What was your home situation like regarding language use?
- What kind of education do your parents have?
- What kind of reading do you do for fun? Do you enjoy writing?

- What other languages do you use? Do you read and write in them?

Typically just a few questions led into more detailed conversations about the topic and included follow-up questions, such as Claudia's discussion of using paraphrases during oral presentations in the Dominican Republic, or Becky's elaborate discussion of learning about reading, writing, and rhetoric from religious studies courses that studied the Bible as an intertextual, multiple-authored text. I also stayed in contact with the participants via email where I asked follow-up questions, requested missing drafts, and generally inquired about their current activities. I had less contact with Wes and Becky, but corresponded with the other participants from early- to mid-2013. Some of the follow-up questions included:

- What have you been writing this quarter?
- Does anything stand out from our writing class that you would like to mention?
- Have you changed any of your writing practices since the class? Why or why not?
- Have you done any writing for fun? Reading for fun?

Furthermore I stayed in contact with a few of the participants for different reasons: After failing the writing course, Patrick enlisted my help preparing for the timed writing exam that would waive his requirement to take an upper division writing course and allow him to obtain his bachelor's degree. Mara and I worked together in one of my freshman ESL writing classes starting in January 2013. She did participant observations and we met frequently to discuss issues relevant to this dissertation project such as writing development and paraphrasing.

3.5.2.1 Instructor interviews

In the spring of 2013, I set up interviews for the instructors and had a roughly 45-minute, audio-recorded interview with Paula and Denise. My interview with Annette happened over email, due to scheduling issues. After the interviews, I noted my thoughts on their responses and I transcribed all audio-recordings. The interviews were guided by the questions below, though I

asked follow up questions during the interview based on their responses:

- How have you changed your lessons from fall quarter to winter quarter? Would you make other changes for this quarter?
- What role do you believe outside sources play in the writing courses?
- What background knowledge about sources do you believe your student enter your classes with?
- Where do students learn to use outside sources?
- What is the most important part of using outside sources for your students to be able to do?
- What do you think is important to focus on in terms of what to teach students to do with sources?
- What are the biggest challenges and constraints you find in this writing course?
- In your opinion, is it best to paraphrase or quote in education/social sciences?
- Have you noticed student backgrounds playing a significant role in how they perform in your classes?

3.5.3 Texts

All student drafts and final versions were collected for all observed classes, including short reflections, drafts of assignments, feedback, self-reflection, and an in-class final exam. I collected cited websites, journal articles, and books from the main research assignment and when possible, written teacher and peer feedback. Additionally, instructor documents such as syllabi, assignment, sample texts, modules, and handouts were collected. Other written assignments from some participants were included, including research papers written for other courses; I received writing samples beyond the observed class from Patrick, Mara, Claudia, and Candace.

3.5.3.1 Writing assignments

As briefly mentioned during the instructor descriptions, the courses had three large writing assignments, but Denise's class had one additional writing assignment. Throughout the session, students wrote various in-class responses to readings or films and reflected on the drafting and feedback process. Each class had a written, self-reflective final exam. The course

assignments and tasks were designed to be useful projects for students' professional development as future educators.

Personal statement: Designed for graduate school applications, the personal statement was the first major writing assignment. Students discussed histories and motivations for applying to graduate school or a teaching credential program. Students in Denise's class had the option of writing a reflective piece on their writing experiences in school.

Lesson plan: Since the course was designed for future educators, students were assigned a project in which they had to create a lesson plan. Becky, Wes, Claudia, Candace, Raquel, and Patrick wrote this text. The lessons had to be based in current national and state standards, including the requirement to have a writing component in the lesson. Mara and Martin, in Denise's class, did not have this assignment.

Classroom observation: In lieu of the lesson plan, Mara and Martin did a classroom observation, wrote detailed field notes, and drew conclusions based on them.

Research project: All courses had an extended research project, in which they were to look at an issue in education, research it, and write a document on it. The specifics of the project varied, such as length and focus, included in Table 4. Some commonalities of the assignment were: drafting, secondary research, genre and text type variation, and an informed argument framework. Annette's class required students to collect primary data via observation, policy analysis or interview. All assignments aimed to have an authentic audience such as an academic, a teacher, a policy maker, parents, the general public, or a school superintendent; students could vary from writing an informational pamphlet, a letter, a proposal for policy change, or an informative research paper.

A fourth writing assignment: Martin and Mara had a fourth major writing assignment that

was open ended in terms of focus and format. Martin analyzed a film watched in class about education and discussed the motivations of the teacher in the film and student. Mara wrote an op-

Table 4

Participant	Text type	Central Argument	Word count	Total citations
Candace	Academic essay	Harmful effects of China's college entrance exam	1377	13
Wes	Academic essay	Description of what bullying is and how to prevent it	1210	16
Raquel	Letter	Fund mentorship programs for minorities	1277	14
Mara	Guide / primer	Synthesis/synopsis of the theories on language learning	2190	26
Martin	Academic essay	Limitations of tracking as related to race, gender and class	2134	14
Patrick	Proposal	Need to fund music programs in schools	2508	9
Claudia	Proposal	Need to pay bilingual teachers more	2900	27
Becky	Proposal	Incorporate mandatory civic duties for high school students	2556	24

ed (opinion editorial) type of text on language teaching, her experience, and what instructors are in need of knowing regarding the field.

3.6 Data analysis

Given the nature of ethnographic case studies in the classroom, as I worked with students, observed classes and read texts, certain patterns emerged with ensuing questions; I would try to address these questions by asking the students directly or looking for a self-reflective writing assignment. Once I had my interviews audio recorded and the fieldnotes and texts collated, I read all of my data, taking notes on salient topics, patterns, and anything I found interesting or compelling. This generated a series of questions and ideas on what was happening in my data.

This was the start of what Glaser and Strauss term "Grounded Theory" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967), in that I was striving to look at what was happening in the data first before making judgments. The caveat with this theory is that researchers always come into a project with a framework of understanding, assumptions, biases, etc. For example, in my dissertation prospectus, I had three broad questions that I wanted to find answers to regarding source use and language development. In addition, during analyses I had been spending a lot of time with my participants, their texts, and their classrooms, such that I already had a sense of who these people were. Nevertheless, what I strove to do in my data was remain consistent, cautious, and look for the presence of ideas across data type. The process was empirically based and inductive and I looked for patterns as well as demonstration of themes across data type in order to have a triangulated code. Duff (2008) explains this is a normal part of case study research saying, "the codes may also be anticipated before analyzing the data (a priori codes)" (Duff, 2008, p. 160).

After reading my data and taking notes, I began coding procedures using the qualitative software program MAXQDA as well as Microsoft Word. With my research questions in mind, I started with an open coding of all the student and teacher interviews (Strauss, 1987) for three broad themes emerging from the data: language, writing and identity. Once that first process was done, I read the coded texts, looking for patterns and salient issues and began coding for more refined categories and themes, often based on concepts or actions, in a process called *axial coding* (Strauss, 1987). Table 5 shows some initial codes and themes.

To illustrate, one conceptual code was *agency*, which I defined as anything referencing an action taken on one's own in order to accomplish something. One language-based activity code that I used was *delineations of self*, which I coded for when a student referenced him/herself explicitly in texts or interviews, such as "this is me" or "that's why I said 'according to'" or "my

thing is..." I generated a list of codes and looked for patterns and collocations

Table 5

Thematic Coding		
Identity:	Identity development of multilingual university students	a. Surmounting challenges: Transitioning from community college to university; b. Development of an academic self through writing; c. External factors such as language and SES on college success
Writing	Curriculum, classroom, genre, rhetorical features of advanced academic texts	a. Upper division writing courses: Curriculum, practice, and source work; b. The writing process, dialogue, and feedback; c. The role of research and source incorporation; d. Voice and knowledge creation in argumentative writing
Language	Language and source incorporation; language learning and source use	a. Linguistic features of bringing in outside sources; b. Language appropriation through source work; c. Boundaries of plagiarism and patchwriting; d. The intersection of evidence, language, and citation

(such as when codes were marked together) as well as whether or not codes with large amounts of tags could be split into smaller categories that distinguished subtle differences in meaning. This began the process of *selective coding* (Strauss, 1987), in which I chose a few interrelated codes to look at more closely and try to see what was happening across participants with them. Some connections I found were the links among discussion of ownership, ideas and source use.

Finding such patterns across codes informed my answers to my research questions, particularly when analyzing how paraphrasing is discussed by students and teachers, in Chapter 4, and when analyzing how students incorporated past experiences into the research texts, in Chapter 6.

Although I considered all types of data and connections in all the chapters, two of my research

questions called for close textual analysis, requiring some sort of rubric or framework.¹⁴ Table 6 demonstrates the different chapters and the types of analyses that were used. It should be noted

Table 6

Textual analyses performed in the chapters		
Chapter 4	source incorporation	Appraisal theory discourse analysis
Chapter 5	paraphrasing	Paraphrasing rubric
Chapter 6	dialogic voicing	Heteroglossia and constraint agency

that discussion of ideas in these chapters overlap, such as reference to dialogic voicing, language learning, and the self. All three chapters address the larger argument of how focal participants interact with sources and develop academic literacy and language. I will now address methods in individual chapters as related to the research questions.

3.6.1 Chapter 4: Analysis of texts using Appraisal Theory

One of my initial research questions was to look at the interaction of voices and language within a text and analyze how a student expressed their attitude toward a cited source, since source incorporation has many rhetorical uses that vary across disciplines and individuals. During the data collection process, participants and I would talk about citing, evidence, paraphrasing, and finding sources; this included discussion of paraphrasing versus quoting, how to introduce a quote, and when a cited source might be useful in an argumentative essay. These discussions fed into my understanding of the following research question: How do the focal

¹⁴It should be noted that for my coding processes in this dissertation, I did not have raters look at my codes, partially because I am not trying to make any large generalizations but am looking at how a small group of students write and the ways in which their present and past experiences factor in. In ideal conditions of larger textual analyses, I would have sought out inter-rater reliability.

participants integrate source authors and express stance and attitude, and how do their language and literacy skills factor in?

The first part of this question requires textual analysis that allows for language to be categorized along a variety of parameters, such as whether or not a source author is mentioned within a text, and if so, how. I wanted to know how students expressed attitude and stance toward a source author, which is a process involving response and dialogue. With this, I proceeded into Chapter 4 with analysis using a dialogically based theory of discourse analysis developed by White (2003) and others (Martin & White, 2005), which is based on Bakhtinian theory (1981) and looks at the grammar and lexis as well as discourse semantics of a text (Martin & White, 2005, p. 9). Grammar and lexis refer to syntactic features, word choice, morphology, etc. Discourse semantics looks at the "meaning beyond the clause" (p. 9) to include issues related to context, individuals, genre, organization, rhetoric and how they all interact.

To illustrate the ways in which such a discourse analytic framework helps in understanding how students incorporate outside sources, White and the Appraisal Theory website ("Dialogic expansion and contraction," 2012) discuss dialogic expansion and contraction as related to issues of attribution, or stance. When a source is used, a variety of factors interact, such as the degree of authority held by the source author. Another question is if and how the authorial voice endorses the source proposition.

Moreover, dialogic contraction is not seen as necessarily negative, nor is dialogic expansion always rhetorically useful. Depending on the intended source function, a student can more neutrally discuss the source author's ideas such as with *some researchers argue...* or they can express their agreement with the idea as with *As X has so compellingly demonstrated* ("Dialogic expansion and contraction," 2012, para. 3). In the former, the student opens up the

conversation to other's arguments, whereas in the latter s/he contracts the dialogic space. If the source author is a particular authority on an issue, it may be rhetorically valuable to employ the latter type of source use, since "the writer...adds to the *argumentative* force by representing the current view as one which is *not theirs alone* but one which is shared with, for example, *the wider community or with relevant experts*" ("Dialogic expansion and contraction," 2012, para.3). With this analysis, it can be noted how the textual integration is picked up by the reader (such as myself as the reader of the student texts), regardless of whether or not the student intended to engage the source in such a manner. Also, student texts analyzed through this system can be compared to published articles or highly valued texts in the disciplines.

For readability, the detailed description of my analytical framework, codes, and classification system including examples will be explained in Chapter 4 before discussion of the findings. However, I will include a brief description now of using the open-source language coding and analysis software, the UAM Corpus Tool with the Appraisal Theory template for codes. I adapted the systems (Martin & White, 2005; White, 2012) for my study and drew upon Hu and Wang's (2014) coding system which also bases itself on Appraisal Theory. During the coding process, I identified any explicit citation found in all drafts of the focal participants' research texts. I then analyzed the text according to my adapted categorization system. After the coding, I looked for patterns within and across participants and drafts. I identified some reoccurring collocations of coded features, specifically those related to in/end of text citation, type of incorporation, and insertion vs assimilation; I also noted whether the source author was the subject, agent, or topic of a main clause. I then considered holistically how these features contributed to a text that was dialogically contractive or expansive, and what the data meant for the use of Appraisal Theory in student writing. Such analyses were then considered in light of

data from interviews, artifacts, and classroom observations. In this way, I could explore connections between the linguistic features of the texts and student background.

3.6.2 Chapter 5: Perspectives on paraphrasing and analysis of paraphrased texts

As I progressed through coding, data analysis and reading of literature, I thought about issues of plagiarism and how they related to my research questions. In my data, I found that transgressive intertextuality (Chandrasoma et al., 2004) or intentional plagiarism, was not very frequent, though the cases that did happen were salient, such as Patrick's research paper discussed in Chapter 1. Therefore, I do not address this type of plagiarism in my analysis. However, there were patterns of *fears* of plagiarizing; some perspectives related to issues of what to ambiguity of authorship, rewording, and inclusion of voice. That is, there were issues of language manipulation, boundaries, and rules for using sources. Furthermore, research on plagiarism is abundant, but the word seems overused and spread thin in the literature, making it a blanket term for other matters. Finally, being able to cover such a topic was beyond the scope of my research. Hence, I decided to pursue the theme of paraphrasing as its own object of inquiry because it appeared relevant to the data and in need of further understanding in the academic community. My more general research question of "How do students learn and develop academic language, particularly from texts?" became more focused: How is paraphrasing discussed by the instructors and students and how do the students from different educational and literacy backgrounds paraphrase sources?

Since this question is really more like two questions, analysis of the topic happened in two steps. For understanding how the issue was discussed in classrooms and understood by participants, I looked to the data and decided to run another coding process as well as re-read established codes related to it. I looked for patterns and consistencies as well as segments that

seemed to not fit with the others. Second, for close textual analysis of paraphrased text, I looked at cited sources in the first and final drafts of the research documents that did not have any quotations and were assumed to be a paraphrase and or summary of a source. I adapted a typology recently created by researchers in computational linguistics, as it was difficult to find classification or coding systems for paraphrasing in other areas such as applied linguistics or second language acquisition (Barron-Cedeno et al., 2013; Vila et al., 2014). The typology came from designing programs to detect plagiarism in writing. Again for clarity and readability, I thoroughly describe the typology when discussing my analyses in Section 5.2 of Chapter 5.

3.6.3 Chapter 6: Observing heteroglossia and constraint agency in student writing

The most salient aspect of the writing process that came out of this coding process was the impact that students' self-perceptions and experiences with school had on their interaction with writing. I noticed Patrick, Raquel and Martin had struggled the most in their education. I re-read and looked for patterns with these three subjects and various clusters of codes, such as the Identity code of *legitimization* and *substandard education & negative effects of labels*, the Writing code of *writing as a self-reflection* and *removing the self from a text* and the Language code of *delineations of self* and *ownership of language and texts*. As I went along, the focus for Chapter 6 started to emerge. I wanted to know how students learned to utilize outside sources in their writing, but this seemed to start with the students and how they perceived themselves and their relationship with research and writing.

Because looking at such an experience for three students was too broad of a scope for a chapter, I decided to look at Martin and Raquel only, considering their similar backgrounds and experiences yet different ways or interacting with writing and school. In many ways, they were complementary in their backgrounds and yet in other ways different, including how they

approached writing and education. Through this process, my more general question of "What are the ways in which students learn to utilize outside texts in their own writing?" became refined to: How do the students draw upon past experiences when performing research-based writing activities, considering issues of voice, background, and literacy?

For some of my participants, their sense of self and experiences in school weighed heavily on how they approached writing and what they wrote about; issues related to personal histories, academic literacy and writing emerged. I explored this topic, and decided to focus on how challenges from the past and present interacted with student involvement in the writing process and research. I found Varghese's (2012) framework of analysis, constraint agency, straightforward and appropriate for looking at how students demonstrate agency (or not) given the circumstances they are in and the resources (capital) they have (See Section 2.6.1). The framework argues that students can demonstrate such agency in writing, reflection processes, and interviews. I analyzed the student writing, artifacts and interviews through coding for themes related to identity, heteroglossia, and the enactment of constraint agency. Note that analyses in this chapter are not done with close linguistic categorization rubrics as in Chapters 4 and 5.

3.7 Connection to data chapters

This chapter on methods has covered a wide array of aspects for the dissertation, including contextualizing the project, learning about the participants, understanding my methodological approaches to research, as well as the various analyzes performed. In the data chapters, I at times refer back to this chapter for further information on background and procedures. I try to provide needed contextual information in the chapters and write as if the reader has read Chapter 3, is familiar with Bakhtinian theory discussed in Chapter 2, and has read about the key words and definitions in Chapter 1.

Chapter 4: Engagement, dialogue, and vocalization

4.1 Introduction: Decisions on source incorporation and their influences on dialogue, endorsement, and stance

"Understanding how we use intertextuality as writers and readers can improve our practice as individuals and as collectives. Our writing can be more sure-footed as we notice the intertextual ground we stand on."
(Bazerman, 2003, p. 53)

In discussing intertextuality, Bazerman (2003) touches on the applications of analyzing discourse from a dialogic perspective, particularly where ideas are generated and shaped, and also how new linguistic and rhetorical norms are appropriated. This quote also suggests that rather than weakening an argument, recognizing other's ideas, findings, or words generally strengthens an argumentative text. Intertextuality in its most basic form explicitly refers to another text through citation. Further understanding may come from analyzing how writers incorporate sources. In this case, focus ranges from quotation and paraphrasing to reporting verbs and expression of stance. In addition, when texts are incorporated, writers make some degree of evaluation of the text, such as their level of agreement. This is a form of engagement in that the act involves indicating an author's opinion, stance, or attitude towards an idea or person (Martin & White, 2005). This chapter analyzes the intertextuality and engagement in the focal participants' research texts (e.g. proposal or research essay) using Appraisal Theory (Martin & White, 2005), which is a discourse analytic framework grounding in Bakhtinian theory.

In trying to address my question on how students negotiate ownership of language and ideas, I consider how students incorporate sources and the linguistic forms used to do so. Crafting a text with multiple voices poses challenges for various reasons, including the need to identify speakers in an effective manner. Student writers are simultaneously developing writing skills and expressing ideas when crafting a text that discusses outside sources. How words and

ideas become their own and how they identify such ownership can be understood through analysis of texts. In analyzing student texts and thinking about words belonging to someone, I will discuss what research on formulaic language and lexical bundles has found in general and how my focal participants' writing compares.

In this chapter, I will first describe the analytic framework on engagement adapted from Hu and Wang (2014) and White ("Engagement- a Bakhtinian perspective," 2012). Afterwards, discussion of the data is organized into three main sections that answer my first research question: How do the focal participants integrate source authors and express stance and attitude, and how do their language and literacy skills factor in?

I first address how the texts are incorporated in general by the students, followed by a more detailed account of practices by Candace, Patrick, and Becky in order to understand connections to expression of attitude and literacy skills. Second, I look at how the source authors are incorporated in general by the students, followed by a more detailed discussion of three types of source author integration and how they relate to stance and academic literacy. I consider texts by a variety of students, including Wes, Martin, Mara, Raquel, Claudia, and Becky. Last, I address the drafting processes of Wes and Mara separately, focusing on changes made in text and author integration and how this affects the amount of dialogue in the drafts.

4.2 Appraisal Theory: Categorizing texts according to Engagement and intertextual considerations

Grounded in Bakhtinian theory (1981, 1986) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) (Halliday, 1994), which sees language as fundamentally dialogic, Appraisal Theory serves as an approach to analyze oral and written discourse with the intent of understanding how speakers evaluate ideas, express stance towards individual, and overall interact with the world and the

people within it. Like SFL, the theory has a variety of classification systems and inter-related levels of analyses that range in complexity. It is possible to incorporate just a few or all of the taxonomies. Appraisal Theory has foundational texts (Martin & Rose, 2005; Martin & White, 2003) but is still in development, its extensive website on the theory most recently updated in 2012 on the Appraisal Theory Website ("Engagement- a Bakhtinian perspective," 2012). Because of this, the classification system has been understood in slightly varying ways when it comes to detailed taxonomies.

However, Appraisal Theory has three main branches for analyzing discourse which are interrelated: Attitude, Engagement, Graduation (Martin & White, 2005). Attitude pertains to "feelings, including emotional reactions, judgements of behavior and evaluation of things" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 35). Engagement looks at "sourcing attitudes and the play of voices around opinions in discourse" (p. 35). Graduation addresses "amplification" of attitude and "grading phenomena" (p. 35). The branch I use to answer my research question and analyze my data is engagement, which looks at how individuals express their attitudes and ideas through various linguistic forms.

4.2.1 Engagement: Dialogic expansion and contraction

Engagement classification is used to assess stance and the extent of dialogue in a text, and the two categories for voicing have typically been monologic versus dialogic. However, all uses of outside sources are dialogic to a certain extent, including types of language that appear monologic, such as bare assertions, which appear to be undisputed facts (White, 2003).

Considering all utterances as dialogic and responding to some degree to a previous utterance, the term *dialogic* must be further categorized for linguistic analyses. White (2003) considers dialogic expansion and contraction as two ends of a continuum which describes discourse and how

openor closed it is to considering the opinions of others. Dialogically contractive statements, such as *everyone knows* or *it is a fact*, serve to limit possibilities for legitimate disagreement. On the opposite of the continuum are dialogically expansive statements that invite listeners and readers to consider alternative realities, as seen in *some believe that* or *theorists propose*.

For the focal students’ texts, I adapted four categories for analyzing text dialogue, as seen in Table 7: proclaim/pronounce, disclaim/deny, entertain/highlight, and probability/possibility.

Table 7

Engagement	Term	Description	Example
dialogic contraction	<i>pronouncement</i>	closes down a dialogue; can be a bare assertion that looks like facts.	– <i>This cannot be true</i> – <i>It is true that...</i>
	<i>disclaim or deny</i>	narrows down the possible answers	– <i>They believe this but the study shows that they are wrong.</i>
dialogic expansion	<i>entertain and highlight</i>	recognizes other possible truths and uncertainties	– <i>That is an option</i> – <i>This is really the case</i> – <i>They must look at this.</i>
	<i>possibility or probability</i>	recognizes other points of view; the chances of a statement being true	– <i>Other people might think</i> – <i>One way to address this.</i> – <i>It is most likely true.</i>

It should be noted that the categorization for these have changed in recent years within Appraisal Theory itself (Martin & White, 2005 vs White, 2012), such that I provide my own descriptions and examples. I categorized texts into these four categories based on linguistic features like the modals *can* or *could* which signal possibility versus the conclusive future tense *will*. I also looked at the type of reporting verb used, the subject, and the connecting words like *however*, *thus*, and *despite*.

4.2.2 Categories for analyzing intertextuality: Integration and vocalization

Beyond dialogic expansion and contraction, there were four ways in which the

incorporation of outside sources was analyzed: *textual integration*, *author integration*, *vocalization* and *endorsement*, as seen in Table 8. While coding, linguistic cues such as modality (modals, adverbs), sentence structure and subjects, and reporting verbs were accounted for.

Table 8

Category	Question addressed	Possible answers	Examples
<i>textual integration</i>	How is the text incorporated?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Quotation – paraphrase – quotation and paraphrase 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – Smith(1999) says, “ this is..” – <i>Smith (1999) states...</i> – <i>Smith (1999) states ... and that people “should...”</i>
<i>author integration</i>	Is the source author mentioned in the text?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – yes (integrated) – no, end of text citation only 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>Smith (1999) states...</i> – <i>It is known that... (Smith, 1999).</i>
<i>vocalization</i>	Who/what is the subject/agent of the sentence? Whose voice is present?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – source author – authorial voice – abstract / inanimate object – animate object / passive voice 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>Smith (1999) states...</i> – <i>I believe...</i> – <i>The reality is... It is important</i> – <i>Research shows... It is known...</i>
<i>endorsement</i>	Does the student endorse the source author’s ideas?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – yes (endorsed) – no 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> – <i>Smith (1999) effectively shows...</i> – <i>Smith (1999) claims to know...</i>

The first two categories of integration (see Table 8) are fairly straightforward. For *textual integration*, I coded sentences that mentioned an outside source in the text or at the end of a text. I categorized these cited sentences as either quoted, paraphrased, or a combination of the two. For categorizing a cited source as a paraphrase, summary or quotation, I used the definitions developed for The Citation Project as a guideline, but did not follow a strict counting of verbatim to new word ratio (Jamieson et al., n.d.). The Citation Project defines a quotation as having verbatim text and quotation marks.

In the Citation Project definitions, paraphrasing and summarizing must not have more

than 20% of the original source language; morphological changes are not counted as changes in paraphrasing. Summaries must involve more than three sentences in a row and reduce that text by half. I struggled at times to definitively say if a source was a summary or paraphrase; some instantiations were clear, but at other times they seemed to be a combination of the two. Furthermore, the clear uses of summaries were not very frequent, which parallels findings from Howard, Serviss, and Rodrigue (2010) for sophomore undergraduate students. Since summaries were not as frequent and often difficult to distinguish from paraphrases, I collapsed the two into one category, referred to as *paraphrased*, adopted from Hu and Wang's (2014) classification of intertextuality. I then looked at paraphrasing versus quoting.

Second, *author integration* is whether or not the source author is mentioned by name within a text, such as *Smith (1999) says* or *According to Smith (1999)*. This was first discussed extensively by Swales (1990). I at times refer to this as “in text citation” or “in text referencing” of a source author within a text. End of text citation means the only indication of the source author is in the parenthetical citation at the end of a sentence, such as *...(Smith, 1990, p. 2)*.

Third, while Hu and Wang (2014) limit their analysis of source author to integration, described above, there is another way to view sources, *vocalization* (Table 8), which more specifically addresses the type of *author integration* where the source author is not mentioned, because it further categorizes agents and subjects (White, 2012). The two ends on this scale are extra- and intra-vocalization: Extra-vocalization is when a source author is explicitly integrated, such as *Smith (1999) states...* whereas intra-vocalization occurs when there is reference to the authorial voice, such as *I believe*. In between are types of *vocalizations* where there is an abstract agent and non-animate subjects, such as *research shows*; some cited sentences are in passive form such as *it has been shown*. Classification such as this helps to elaborate on what types of

subjects or agents are being used in sources with non-integrated source authors.

The last way to analyze the use of an outside source is *endorsement*, which is part of a classification system about writer stance addressed by Hu and Wang (2014). It basically looks at what kind of stance the authorial voice, in this case the student writer, takes toward the source author. Just as there is stance for an argument, so too is there a type of stance toward a person. *Endorsement* is often discerned with reporting verbs and phrases, as well as surrounding texts. Student writers may use a source in order to support their own arguments, in which case they would *endorse* the propositions of an outside source, as seen in Table 8. Hu and Wang (2014) identify other types of writer stance, such as *acknowledging* the ideas of a source author, such as *the government released a statement* or *Smith (1999) says*. However, after analyses, I found my students were mostly endorsing their sources and so mostly consider writer stance in terms of endorsing the source author.

Although texts that endorse source authors could be considered dialogically expansive, in that the source author was mentioned in the text, creating a dialogue of sorts, I considered them to be contractive given that the student writer closed down the possibility for the reader to contest the argument, as described by Martin and White (2005):

Endorsements act to construe a *heteroglossic backdrop of potential alternative viewpoints* for the proposition. However, simultaneously, the *endorsement functions to exclude* any such alternatives from the ongoing colloquy... (p. 127, italics added).

Table 9 provides two example sentences and how they would be categorized across all five types of analyses. Martin's paraphrased sentence makes a strong claim and is dialogically contractive, having no mention of a source author. Rather, passive voice is used and the agent is unknown; nevertheless, it Martin implicitly endorses the source author by stating *it is known*.

Mara's sentence is also a paraphrase that takes a more neutral approach and acknowledges the source author more than endorsing him. Acknowledging an idea indicates that the sentence is dialogically expansive since it entertains other people's arguments.

Table 9

Student text	Engage-ment	Textual integration	Author integr-ation	Vocaliza-tion	Endor-ment
<i>It is known that if a girl feels it is not appropriate for her to pursue a science degree... (Hill 22). [Martin]</i>	dialogic contraction: pronounce or proclaim	paraphrase	no	passive voice, unknown agent	yes
<i>Kumaravadivelu (2006:165) suggests a movement toward recognizing... [Mara]</i>	dialogic expansion: entertains	paraphrase	yes	source author	no

Because of the theoretical nature of my analysis (Bakhtin, 1981; Martin & White, 2005) which emphasizes the social, contextualized factors involved in language production, I will discuss findings beyond the written text, including what I know about the entire essay, the student's interest in the topic, and other findings made during interviews and observations. I also do this in order to triangulate findings and cross-check when needed. It is also important to note that my analysis does not address *intentionality* of the student writers or try to explain what they were "thinking" when writing the text. Rather, I try to analyze stance in the framework of the student as an actor in a social practice of writing argumentative text using research. The student is "operating to reflect the process of interaction or negotiation within a text between alternative socio-semiotic positions" ("Engagement- a Bakhtinian perspective," 2012, para. 9). While constructing a text, the student must consider their role in relation to the sources and readers.

4.3 Textual integration: Quotations and alternative ways to express endorsement and opinion

For *textual* integration, it appears that for these students, selecting to paraphrase over quote stems more from personal preferences and habits than rhetorical purposes; overall, there were twice as many paraphrases than quotes, as seen in Table 10. This finding is congruent with discussions of paraphrases being preferred forms of source incorporation, discussed in Chapter 5 (Yamada, 2003; observations, Annette, 11/28/12; interview, Paula, 4/3/13). These also show perhaps an intermediary step between first year undergraduate preference for quoting and graduate student preference to paraphrase (Jamieson, Serviss, & Howard, 2014). However, preferences for quoting or paraphrasing texts could relate not only to students' linguistic and academic writing literacies but also their confidence and interest in writing. While I am not assuming any causal relations, it appears that certain factors played into the use of quotations or paraphrasing, such as language skills, knowledge of source incorporation, as well as personal issues such as interest in the course.

It is not unreasonable to assume that limited education on use of outside sources and linguistic abilities may affect how students incorporate and interact with outside sources, or that time constraints and student interests may as well. A student who struggles with subordination may avoid including quotes that are verb phrases. Or a limited vocabulary may create difficulties finding synonyms for paraphrasing (discussed in Chapter 5). As for affect, students who lack confidence in their writing or who are disinterested in the assignment may rely more heavily on outside argument and information rather than their own, thus relying more on authoritative rather than internally persuasive discourse. However, at other times it is difficult to discern the role student academic literacy skills and relationship with writing has on engagement with outside sources. Thus, I am cautious in making generalizations from data on seven focal participants.

As seen in Table 10, Candace, Mara, and sometimes Becky inserted quoted noun phrases, an act which requires more linguistic manipulation and thought than inserting an entire clause or sentence (Petric, 2012). All three of them had proficient writing overall and command of

Table 10

	Textual integration	How quotes were generally integrated	Example
Candace	all quotations	short noun phrases	– <i>The fundamental problem with the exam is its “emphasis on rote learning” and “strangling of children’s creativity” (Liu, 2012).</i>
Patrick	all quotations	entire sentences	– <i>“People don’t tend start being musicians in junior high or high school. It is the fact the continuity is lost” (Dr. H, personal communication, December 5, 2012).</i>
Becky	mostly quotations	independent and dependent clauses; noun phrases	– <i>As stated by Elliot Eisner, “The kind of schools we need wouldt...”(Eisner, 279).*</i> – <i>As a district that values the development of “citizenship in...”(Greenville Unified School District, 2007),</i>
Claudia	balance of quotations and paraphrases	independent and dependent clauses; verb phrases	– <i>education would be more effective since “schools can make a significant difference ...” (Banks et al, 2010, p. 315),</i> – <i>Charles Glenn affirms that if the government “provide[s] better education for poor children ...” (Glenn, 2010, p. 324),</i>
Martin	mostly paraphrases	independent clauses	– <i>As Neil deGrasse Tyson, former host of NOVA Science Now, says, “innovations and creativity ... will be the drivers ...” (cnn.com...).</i>
Mara	mostly paraphrases	verb phrases and noun phrases	– <i>Horowitz (2008:92) concurs, stating that the goal...is to be able to “participate in spontaneous interchange...”</i> – <i>Oxford (1992:124) describes these strategies as “specific actions, behaviors, steps...”</i>
Raquel	all paraphrases		
Wes	all paraphrases		

academic register (see Table 2, Chapter 3). However, while Candace and Mara seemed confident in their writing and interested in writing, Becky was not. Rather, as will be further discussed in Section 4.3.2, Becky as well as Patrick's incorporation of quotes often lacked linguistic manipulation, with Patrick almost exclusively inserting entire quoted sentences, whereas Becky sometimes inserted independent clauses introduced by phrases such as *According to...*

Furthermore, Claudia also incorporated quotes using long clauses but at times included just verb phrases or noun clauses with reporting verbs, such as *X explains that...* Claudia's writing was mostly fluent but at times lacked variation in sentence structure and had sentence boundary issues, such as run on sentences. The other participants, Wes, Martin and Raquel, rarely quoted. When Martin did quote a source, he used entire clauses.

One site of ambiguity comes when there were long or very short quotes used without mention of the source author beyond an end of text citation, which I found in Candace, Patrick, and Becky's writing. When quotes were inserted in block form by Patrick and Becky, the stance taken by the authorial voice was not clearly identifiable. With Candace, when short noun phrases of key terms were used, it was not clear if they were scare quotes or used in a way to express endorsement with the source author. I will now discuss both types of text integration and identify how the engagement between the student writer and other voices was at times occluded and at other times made evident.

4.3.1 Candace: Short quotes, scare quotes: Paraphrasing and quoting

Quoting outside sources can be a place where stance is not clear, particularly with short quotes. The authorial voice could be either endorsing or distancing from the source author; this can be seen with Candace, who was the only student to consistently quote very short phrases from source authors, specifically at the middle or end of the clauses. Examples (1) and(2)

demonstrate this:

(1) Spanning the course of two days, the Gao Kao has been embedded in the minds of students, parents and society alike as the "**hardest struggle in one's life**" (Liu, 2012). The fundamental problem with the exam is its "**emphasis on rote learning**" and "**strangling of children's creativity**" (Liu, 2012).

(2) The "**outdated**" system is only indicative of how well a student has memorized the necessary material and successfully restated such information (Zheng, 2008, p.141). Again, such a system of test-taking has only allowed students to become "**test-taking machines**" and has ignored the importance of developing higher level thinking skills, which will become applicable outside of the classroom and extend throughout adult life (Zhao, Y., 2007, p.70)

Example (1) shows a section of the text that had sentences citing Liu, using a few noun phrases from the source. Some of the quotes seem more evaluative than others, such as alluding to an exam "strangling" a student's creative abilities (1), which compares test taking to a fairly violent action. The use of such a term is highly evaluative in its negative stance toward exams in China. The other example highlights evaluative terms such as a system being "outdated" and students being "test-taking machines" (2). Given the lack of explicit indication for endorsement, the use of these short quotes could indicate agreement with the key terms or distancing. Distancing can resemble the use of scare quotes, where a term is put in quotation marks in order to indicate that the authorial voice acknowledges some terminology coming from someone else. There is a clearer distinction of word ownership here, with Candace's use of quotations indicating she did not share them with the source author.

Hu and Wang (2014) argue that some academic journal articles use quotes around key terms because it "allows the writer to argue with the cited author's original wording" (p. 22). In their examples, it appeared that the authorial voices were questioning the terms being put forth by the source author, at once endorsing the concept while rejecting the terminology. However,

with Candace it is not clear that she disagreed with the terms being quoted: Candace argues in her text that the test taking system severely limits Chinese student opportunities to develop critical thinking skills important for life and work. Thus, she might agree with the terms "test-taking machines" and "outdated" to describe the students produced and the system itself, respectively. It is not clear if she found these terms too strong, such as the reference to strangling or that the entrance exam is indeed *the* main concern for Chinese. The use of quotes could be used to simply highlight the point being made by the source authors, functioning more as an acknowledgment than an endorsement or distancing.

Based on my discussions with Candace over quoting, paraphrasing and source authors, it would seem that Candace did indeed endorse these terms and selectively chose to quote them; this is assuming that what she discussed in an interview was consistent with what happened when writing. She noted using quotes if she "like[d] the material in general" (Interview, 11/5/12) or "couldn't think of another way to say it" (Interview, 12/4/12). In this way, she finds the words of others engaging and seeks to borrow another's language (with quotes), which may be part of the process of making words one's own. Candace was taught at the International Baccalaureate high school in China not to use a long quote but to "break it up" with original words (Interview, 12/4/12). Her schooling may have provided practice for identifying smaller pieces of text to quote as well as the linguistic maneuvers one can employ. While I did not observe this happen with Candace or other participants, I suspect the students' educational histories affected their abilities to incorporate smaller chunks of text into their writing. Students like Candace may have been provided with exemplary texts, practice exercises, and constructive feedback on their incorporation of quotes.

Moreover, after being asked about the pattern of insertion of short quotes at the end of

clauses and sentences in a different assignment, Candace stated that she used them to "validate what I'm saying before. Like 'because of this...'...I'm trying to connect like my own thoughts...to like research" (Interview, 12/4/12). What these statements suggest is that quotes serve to endorse the main argument of a text rather than to report information neutrally (acknowledge) or to object to an idea *or* term, as might be suggested with the similarity to scare quotes. Given that the reader does not know Candace's reported intentions for use not only of quotes but also short quotes, it is not clear how they might be interpreted in terms of Candace's stance. Despite the ambiguities in this case, in Petric's research (2012) using shorter quotations such as noun phrases were features of higher grade master theses, arguably due to the required syntactic manipulation. Indeed, Candace's writing in general was proficient and had academic vocabulary, varied sentence structure, and cohesion.

4.3.2 Becky and Patrick: Block quotes and rhetorical clues for endorsement

Another situation in which it was unclear what kind of stance the student writer took on a source was when there were long block quotes that had no reference to the source author or an introduction from the student writer about the quote. This was mostly found in Becky and Patrick's writing. There were no explicit linguistic indicators of metadiscourse with the outside source; nor was it explicitly stated that the student agreed with the quoted proposition. Consequently, it would seem not possible to figure out endorsement. However, analysis of the texts surrounding the block quotes indicated that students sometimes indicated their endorsement using other rhetorical cues. Examples (3) and (4) demonstrate the way in which quotes of entire sentences were inserted into student text and which lacked source author integration and explicit reference to the source. The quoted texts are in italics and bolded texts demonstrate repeated phrases and terms.

(3) The purpose of this proposal is to help inform discussion on the values of **service-learning**. "*Service learning is a method whereby participants learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service that is conducted in and meets the need of a community, ... helps foster civic responsibility, ... and is integrated into and enhances the [core] academic curriculum of the students*" (California Department of Education, 2012). The inclusion of **service-learning** in high-school environments is crucial because of its rich, multifaceted benefits. [Becky]

(4) Can it really measure up to the university course guidance? "*People don't tend start being musicians in junior high or high school. It is the fact the continuity is lost*" (Dr. H, personal communication, December 5, 2012). [Patrick]

While these examples are not typical of the way in which sources are quoted in academic texts, they have some cues that the authorial voice addresses the words between quotation marks. The main way here is via cohesion of topic from one sentence to another, or theme/rheme, in which the new information at the end of the first clause or sentence becomes the old information in the next clause or sentence (Hinkel, 2002). In (3) these are most explicitly the term "service-learning" which is extensively defined and elaborated upon. Transitioning from authorial voice to the source author, which in these cases are statements from departments of education, the threading topic of service learning helps identify the connection between the two voices. Another way this was done is with (4), in which the authorial voice asks a question and has the source author directly respond, though again without any discussion of Dr. H, the source author.

Example (5) shows a ten-sentence paragraph that transitions back and forth from block quote to authorial voice multiple times, with majority of quotes coming from the music professor Dr. H. The reference of ideas and key words create a sense of cohesion in the paragraph. In the first sentence [1], Dr. H begins by talking about music and its benefit for the mind and Patrick continues with this concept for the topic of the second sentence [2], which is not cited. A new topic is then introduced [3] — there is empirical evidence supporting the connection between

music and intelligence— and a new outside source mentioned and quoted. In this instance, the source author appears to be mentioned in the text, Wayne Parker, but it is not clear if the quote was his or not because of the separation into two orthographic sentences [3] and [4]. After, Patrick continues creating connections (the bolded language) between the block quotes and "his" text with repetition of key words and using the theme/rheme method for discussing information.

(5) *"Nearly everyone agrees that **arts education is central to intellectual preparation, mental stimulation, and psychological orientation** that leads to success in later life!"* (Dr. H, personal communication, December 5 2012). [1] Although **music education** varies from city to city and **brain development** depends on the child and many other factors, **music has proven to positively affect child's learning experience**. [2] Wayne Parker, a senior **researcher** at Johns Hopkins created "Institute for the Academic Advancement of Youth." [3] His idea was inspired after a study on mathematically talented fifth grade students who had formal **instrumental music training**. [4] *"In fact, nearly 93 percent of the females and 83 percent of the males had **studied musical** followed from fifth grade through college"*(*Johns Hopkins magazine 1998*). [5] Despite the studies and **research** that describe the **positive outcomes of music education**, many districts have made tough decisions to cut music programs to compensate for other programs such as athletics. [6] *"I think that the argument that our school district is in trouble, that we can't afford to do luxury needs to address **other luxuries** before it addresses central **problem**"* (Dr. H, personal communication, December 5, 2012). [7] The **problem** is not that schools debate on what should be funded today, but music would have had chance in Ancient Greek Times. [8] Greenlake Unified School District has cut funding for all elementary schools but instead spending on creating **jazz** and **marching bands** in high schools. [9] *"Nowadays having music programs drains tons of money because you have to have choir, jazz choir, girls choir, Glee, **football band, jazz band, and orchestra**. And that's very expensive"*(Dr. H, personal communication, December 5, 2012). [10] [Patrick]

The last four sentences [7] to [10], starting with the quote from Dr. H "I think..." are particularly telling of the connection between sentences through repeating key terms, phrases and information Dr. H begins discussion of a "problem," at the end of the clause, which Patrick then references as the subject of his sentence. Then, a new topic is introduced [9], which is the idea of types of music programs to be cut, such as jazz and band. The final quote [10], from Dr. H,

elaborates on this topic and the issues of funding and music programs. Regarding ownership, in general, Patrick's use of unquoted key terms from the quoted text shows an interesting space where language learning could occur although in this case the repeated terms used to form cohesion were not particularly unusual, such as "problem."

Even though these examples do not state that a quote is being used, they still manage to create a link through the information being discussed, creating a chain of information that is built upon. Nevertheless, this style does not represent a typical academic format for incorporating quotes into sources.

Furthermore, while their reasons for incorporating quotes this way is not clear, Patrick and Becky had some factors in common, such as happening to be in the same class with Annette as their instructor, who talked about quotations. While discussing the research proposal and use of outside sources, Annette discussed the need to introduce and later explain quotes; she also assigned a reading about quotation practices from a writing guide (Observation, 11/28/12). During the class session, Becky asked two questions about incorporating a short quote, at first asking "what do you do?" as well as another unintelligible clause. Annette responded that she should use ellipsis and then explained creating context, introducing the source and not starting a sentence with a quote. She also referenced a handout with templates for using quotes. After a few minutes of discussion, Annette asked the class what other questions they had. Becky asked a question and they had the following dialogue:

Becky: What's like the rule if you just want to take, like, part of the- not the whole sentence— and you want to paste it into like-

Annette: So you're saying you don't want to use a whole sentence you want to use like a phrase?

Becky: Yeah.

Annette: Or a part of—four words.

Becky: Yeah.

Annette: You can do that. It's the same. You just put quotation marks around the part that you took and you can integrate that into your writing your sentence.

[Observation, 11/28/12]

While Becky's question-asking suggests her interest in the topic, it also displays her lack of knowledge on using ellipsis or how to integrate quotations beyond a stand-alone clause. Again, using quotes that are entire sentences or unaltered clauses coming after reported verbs may be less valued by instructors, including Annette, partially due to the lack of linguistic changes that must occur (Petrić, 2012) or thought, such that Patrick and Becky missed the opportunity to "try out" the language and alter it. The reasons for missing out on this opportunity may not be just due to linguistic skills. While Becky's writing had a fair amount of subordination, academic vocabulary and varied sentence structure, as the classroom observation suggests she was not clear how to use quoted text. Moreover, during our meetings, Becky discussed not liking writing in addition to not being very interested in the research paper.

As for Patrick, his use of block quotes may have stemmed from composing his paper very close to the deadline and not receiving feedback on drafts. In addition, he considered himself a poor writer and his writing in general lacked in academic vocabulary and sophisticated sentence structures. Thus preference may be due to a variety of personal reasons as well as skillsets. However, while both mostly incorporated outside sources through entirely quoted sentences Becky had a few quoted sentences that served as either an independent or dependent clause and there were also a few instances of quotes that were noun phrases. Though infrequent, Becky actually "tried out" linguistic manipulation of texts. Nevertheless, as discussed above, Patrick and Becky were able to create cohesion in their texts using theme/rheme strategies.

4.4 Author integration: Contractive and expansive dialogue with source authors

Explicitly mentioning an author within a text has been addressed in the literature and it is a feature that varies according to publication type, discipline, expertise and language background (Cao & Hu, 2014; Hewings, Lillis, & Vladimirov, 2010; Hu & Wang, 2014; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). With *author* integration (Hu & Wang, 2014) mentioning the author within the sentence appeared to be a personal preference, as seen in Table 11.

Table 11

	Dialogic voicing of text	Source author integration
Candace	Often contractive	No
Patrick	Often contractive	Rarely
Becky	Often expansive	Yes
Claudia	Often contractive	Yes
Martin	Often contractive	Rarely
Mara	Often expansive	Yes
Raquel	Often expansive	No
Wes	Often contractive	Sometimes

Notably, students could write sentences that referenced authors in similar ways regardless of textual integration (i.e., whether the source was quoted or paraphrased). For example, source authors were used as the subject of a nominal clause, such as *Smith (1999) argues that graduation rates are increasing...* or *Smith explains how “graduation rates are increasing.”* In both sentences, the *author* is integrated as the agent of the sentence; however, the *textual* integration varies, with one being a paraphrase and the other a quotation.

Mara and Becky often integrated the source author into their texts, but in general Becky quoted more often than Mara. What the students had in common was using their sources to endorse their own arguments, often in the form of a dialogically contractive pronouncement. In

the examples considered in sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2, the outside voice serves to support the authorial voice. Two main observations regarding the use of an outside source came out of analyzing data. One is the importance of considering the authority and credibility of the source author in relation to the content and student writer. The other finding is that the explicit delineation of voice also allows for clearer separation of ideas and stance.

During discussion of the ways in which students used sources and expressed their opinions of source authors, two issues related to ambiguity were mentioned. Specifically, some linguistics structures made it difficult to clearly distinguish whose voice and proposition was being put forward: the authorial voice, the source author, or both. Second, as explored in 4.4.2, when a source author was not integrated into a clause and no references to the authorial voice made, it was more difficult to decipher the student writer's stance toward the source author, such as Raquel's sentence, "If this cycle of low graduation rates continues, it can create detrimental effects on the economic and social conditions of this country (Reyes et.al, 2006)". The sentence does not overtly describe stance toward the source author, which reporting verbs can reveal (e.g. proves vs thinks); since the sentence advances Raquel's overall argument, it can be inferred that she endorses the source author's propositions. With all forms of communication, the ways in which student writers incorporated outside sources could be interpreted in various ways and sometimes were left open to interpretation; delineating ownership of voices (and accompanying stances) is not always possible in dialogue (Bakhtin, 1981).

What seems to matter more than *author* integration when understanding stance is how the students used the source when advancing their argument, and if they took a more expansive stance on a proposition or closed down alternatives for the reader to consider. It was much easier for me to evaluate stance toward the cited source when the source author was integrated. Again,

students often endorsed the sources they used. However, when they had only end of text citations (no author integration), opinion of the source authors remained ambiguous or presumably endorsed, regardless of paraphrasing or quoting. When this happened, stance toward the content and stance toward the source author becomes fused and sometimes ambiguous. Furthermore, when considering a writer's opinion of an outside source's argument, aspects beyond language matter, such as the authority of the text and the positioning of the citation within the surrounding sentences and arguments, as discussed in the next section. For reasons of space, I will now consider just three aspects of incorporating the source author and expressing attitude, when in fact there were various other ways students did this. The first two (Sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2) were more common in the student texts, whereas the last one (Section 4.4.3) was rare but serves as an interesting analysis of ways in which students could engage a source author.

4.4.1 Claudia, Wes, and Becky: Appealing to authority and discussing the source author

I now consider situations in which the source author is integrated into the students' texts via a specific phrase, *according to*. I also discuss the authority of the source author and how this interacts with endorsing an idea. Specifically, students such as Wes, Claudia, and Becky integrated the source author into their sentences but used the sources to support their own arguments, creating a dialogically contractive space for the reader. Words and their meanings are multiply owned, social and context specific¹⁵ (Martin & Rose, 2005, p. 111) such that appealing

¹⁵ For example, there is different endorsement of the source author in the following hypothetical statements made about dietary nutrition: "According to dietitians and medical doctors like Dr. Oz, people should eat less red meat and more vegetables." - Vs. "People should eat less red meat and more vegetables, according to my over-the-top raw-foodist, vegan neighbor." In the hypothetical situation in which these statements would occur, the authorial voice in the first sentence agrees with the proposition and looks to health care providers for advice on what to eat. In the second sentence, the authorial voice questions the credibility of non-meat eaters' opinions on nutrition and distances herself from this proposition by attributing it to her neighbor. Dr. Oz is a medical doctor and U.S. television personality who rose to fame during his health segments on The Oprah Winfrey Show, and who now has his own spinoff television show, The Doctor Oz Show, in which he discusses health related topics such as nutrition, weight loss and illness.

to the authority of a source author helps demonstrate the endorsement being made (pp. 116-117). A common phrase used by Wes, Claudia, and Becky was *according to*, followed by a noun referencing a person or institution and a propositional statement which appealed to authority of an outside source. As mentioned in 4.3.2, Annette discussed a required reading that gave suggestions on how to incorporate quotes, including the introductory phrase *according to*, which Annette described as a straightforward option for incorporating a quote (Observation, 11/28/12). Though the reading discusses using quotes to support *or deny* a claim, in most of the observed uses, students used *according to* as an appeal to authority rather than a marker of skepticism or distance. Notably, Annette's students Claudia and Becky used this phrase the most, along with Paula's student, Wes, who is further discussed in Section 4.5.1.

In some of the writing, outside sources were used to endorse propositions made about statistical information and numbers, ideas and arguments, and research findings, as seen in the paraphrased sentences in (6), (7), and (8), with (6) lacking an end-of-text citation. The sources all represented credible if not authoritative entities whose propositions were congruent with student arguments. A report (6) or a statement made by the U.S. Department of Education (8) on educational issues are more likely than not valued as authoritative.

(6) The salary for a beginning teacher at Greenville Elementary is \$39,433 **according to** the school Accountability Report card, however the median family income in Greenville is approximately \$55,821 based on the 2009 City-Data.com report [Claudia, names and numbers change for confidentiality]

(7) **According to** a guide issued by the U.S Department of Justice, the commitment of the school principals **is a vital** part in countering bullying in school (U.S Department of Justice 2002) [Wes]

(8) **According to** the U.S. Department of Education, 160,000 **children avoid** school per day because they are afraid of bullies (Dubreuil and McNiff, 2010). [Wes]

Furthermore, rather than using an abstract subject/topic or presenting the cited information as authorless, the integration of source author within a text somewhat opens up the dialogic backdrop in which the argument takes place. The student writer demonstrates to the reader the conversation occurring with the cited source; it is one that looks to the source author as a legitimate generator of facts and ideas worth mentioning in their argument. It also situates the argument and knowledge in a socially embedded practice, whose speakers come from various disciplines, viewpoints and authoritative backgrounds (Bakhtin, 1981). Though the voices of the source and student are working together to persuade the reader, thus being contractive, the recognition that there is more than one (authorial voice) nonetheless is dialogic.

A question remains of whether the frequent use of *according to*, though dialogic, indicates a limited linguistic repertoire for discussing a source or an over-reliance on pleading to authority for legitimacy in argumentation. I would describe Becky and Wes as not very confident writers despite their different levels of proficiency (Becky's writing had more academic language and Wes's writing had word choice and structural issues at times). As for Claudia, she appeared very interested in her project and somewhat confident in her writing. Her writing in general was fluent but at times lacked in sentence variety and nuanced vocabulary and expressions; during our interactions, she would often ask me how to say something and write down what I said verbatim. Perhaps students' perceptions of their own abilities in writing affects how they seek to use sources, in this case relying on authoritative discourse.

Without the use of *according to*, Martin's sentence in (9) includes a quote with a dialogically contractive statement about the future of education. The authorial voice, in this case Martin, uses *as ___ says* similarly to *according to* while also mentioning the profession of the individual. The authorial voice is making an assumption that the reader is familiar with either

Neil deGrasse Tyson or the television show, or that being a host of a show makes a person more authoritative. Referencing the source author and using *as___ says* indicates endorsement.

(9) **As Neil deGrasse Tyson, former host** of NOVA Science Now, **says**, "innovations and creativity...will be the drivers of tomorrow's economy which translates to jobs" (cnn.com, Why would engineers end up as English majors). [Martin]

Indeed, Martin and I had a couple conversations about Neil deGrasse Tyson while discussing his research assignment, with Martin enthusiastically and voluntarily showing me a YouTube video clip of deGrasse Tyson discussing physics. I learned that Martin really admired him, having told me "[he] is my favorite scientist and he's really awesome" (Interview, 12/4/12). With that consideration, it may be that the *as___says* phrase and description of the source author as an authoritative TV personality indicates Martin's endorsement and attempt to validate his own argument via the citation.

4.4.2 Martin, Patrick, and Raquel: Ambiguous vocalization and non-integrated source authors

While the previous section considered dialogically contractive statements through sentences that incorporated the source author into the text, some students such as Raquel, Martin, and Patrick, rarely mentioned the source author within their text. Non-integrated source authors can create a variety of ambiguous sentences in terms of voice and ownership of language and ideas. It may be in these grey areas that the subtleties of effective rhetoric are realized. In that case, it is important to understand the linguistic forms involved so that student writers can be taught the art of persuasion and effective writing styles. Indeed, these ambiguities are present in published academic texts and their use may be more of a norm than an issue that must be addressed (Charles, 2006). It may also be the case where incorporating texts in this way could be a step toward language appropriation, as source authors are not emphasized as sole "owners"

of ideas or language. I now consider ways in which some students evaluated source authors and ideas without mentioning the source author within the sentence.

Beyond the bare assertion, such as *it is known*, a way students such as Martin, Raquel, Wes, and Patrick made claims in their writing was to use a subject that was non-animate or abstract and either a noun or an impersonal pronoun. To demonstrate a straightforward use of this without considering the influence of an outside source, the following are examples of students making an argument without reference to the self or others as an agent.

(10) **It is essential** for school boards and principals to employ specific school policies to stop bullying early. [Wes]

(11) **The sad truth is that** the poor performance of these students are **largely** due to factors that are out of their control ... [Martin]

(12) **The fact that** Hispanics are less likely to graduate in comparison to peers of other groups shows the impact this can have on our country... [Raquel]

One noticeable feature of these sentences is that they read more like bare assertions and are making strong proclamations, such as what is *essential* (10) for school boards. These sentences cut off invitations to hear other viewpoints (and again this may very well have rhetorical value in some context and I am not saying it is necessarily "poor writing" to make such proclamations). The lack of evaluation via modality of possibility such as *may* or *can* or mitigation of assertion such as *often* or *some say* frame the propositions being made as factual utterances, such as with (12) and graduation rates of students according to ethnicity being a universal *fact* versus a statistical finding from a particular population, location, and moment in time. Notably, stance occurs across units of text, including at the phrasal, clausal, sentential and paragraph level; the stance can vary in dialogic expansion and contraction. This can be seen in (11), where the strong pronouncement about performances is slightly mitigated by *largely*.

Other examples show places where Martin and Patrick took a contractive positioning while using citations.

Paraphrase

(13) Though teachers might want all their students to go to college **the fact is that** most do not with only 30 to 35 percent of high school graduates getting a bachelor's degree...(Oakes 39). [Martin]

(14) **It is known that** if a girl feels it is not appropriate for her to pursue a science degree... **this will make** her less likely to pursue this field (Hill 22). [Martin]

Quotation

(15) "People don't tend start being musicians in junior high or high school. **It is the fact** the continuity is lost" (Dr. H, personal communication, December 5, 2012). [Patrick]

Sentences (13) and (14) are presumed to be paraphrases or a summary of information given only an end of text citation and in fact look the same as the sentences without references. Lacking reference in the text to another actor and explicit indication of stance toward the citation, it is also presumed that Oakes and Hill agree with Martin, that Martin agrees with Oakes and Hill, or that there is mutual agreement on the "factual" propositions being made. Considering the value of an end of text citation in academic writing, the addition of this citation may have been intended to increase the reader's receptiveness of the claim. Sentence (15) shows an entire quote from an authoritative individual who Patrick often quoted in his proposal. The quote also works to dialogically contract the conversation by making a claim about a fact.

An overall aspect to consider is the similarity of the subjects in these examples as well as the clause structure in general. These sentences have similar word choice and sentence structure of the placeholder subject *it* followed by a *that*-complement clause. As for lexical bundles and formulaic language (Biber et al., 2004; Hyland, 2012) students may be employing a commonly used structure for expressing stance of varying degrees of assertiveness. Pérez-Llantada(2014)

found that published articles with English speaking writers who spoke the language with a considered native language status, used the structures found in (13), (14) and (15), such as the use of a filler *it* complement clause with qualified propositional adjectives such as *possible* or *likely*.

In contrast, Patrick and Martin's use of the *it* followed by a *that*-complement clause structure is fairly assertive, claiming propositions as "facts." This appears to be a feature of novice writers' texts, such as undergraduate linguistics students (Ädel & Erman, 2012). Thus, despite any limited academic language proficiencies (See Section 3.3.9), Patrick and Martin at times use outside sources in ways similar to other undergraduate students. They are engaging in writing practices that may be common for students and therefore multiply owned. For example, PhD students who are non-native speakers of English in political and materials sciences have been found to use similar assertive structures in the form *it* followed by a *that*-complement clause (Hewings & Hewings, 2002). In contrast, researchers who write in Spanish as a first language, may not employ such clauses often in research articles (Pérez-Llantada, 2014).

The use of a dialogically contractive phrase referencing "facts" may also be characteristic of academic texts, indicating that (14) and (15) may employ a form of discussing stance appropriate to academic genres (Pérez-Llantada, 2014). In some cases, students may use dialogically contractive adjectives that express a pronouncement with a strong stance, such as the word *imperative* (Hewings & Hewings, 2002).

4.4.3 Mara: Expansive acknowledgment and orchestrating a dialogue

Writers can use source authors in dialogically expansive ways, such as through acknowledging someone else's propositions while also integrating the source author. This way can be associated with frameworks used for discussing others, since it involves reported speech.

It most closely resembles a sense of neutrality and lack of opinion from the authorial voice, such as *Smith (1999) said...* or *The findings state...*

Perhaps not surprisingly, there are those who deny that a statement can ever be neutrally stated, even if in a larger rhetorical context; White and the Appraisal Theory Website ("Modelling engagement," 2012) title the discussions on the non-existence of bare assertions as "no more facts." That is, any type of information from an outside source, even reporting a statistic, involves an evaluation from the authorial voice, even if subtle. This idea has been recognized by others as well from an Appraisal Theory (Hu & Wang, 2014) and other perspectives (Charles, 2006; Thompson & Ye, 1991).

Keeping in mind the contested boundaries between acknowledging and endorsing a source author, I will discuss one illustration, but stress that this type of source engagement was not very frequent. This may have been related to the type of texts the students wrote, with Becky, Patrick, and Claudia writing formal proposals to an authoritative figure in an effort to enact a change in educational policy. Mara, however, wrote a text that mostly served as an overview on the history of a topic, second language learning theory. While she did make arguments, the text was not particularly concerned with convincing an individual to take action on a cause. The paragraph below from Mara illustrates acknowledgement but also demonstrates the evaluative nature of even fairly neutral descriptions of outside sources.

Mara was writing an overview of the past theories on language acquisition and had the overall goal to give a fair, informative synopsis of the theories while also relating them to each other and making a final evaluation at the end. She often had the source authors as agents in the sentences and an example is provided in (16). I included additional text in order to address the idea of a neutral stance. In the example, Mara orchestrates a dialogue (Bakhtin, 1981) between

three theorists, paraphrasing their opinions with fairly neutral verbs *suggests* and *advocates*, such that the audience can read and judge the ideas on their own, which Hu and Wang (2014) describe as an employment of "attitude-free" verbs (p. 21).

(16)Kumaravadivelu (2006:165) **suggests** a movement toward recognizing and implementing alternative strategies that maximize learning opportunities, promote the learner's autonomy, and foster language awareness [1]. Principles that underlie classroom activities, **suggests Brown (1997:12)**, should be woven into approaches and pedagogy to bolster strategies so that students can benefit from meaning learning, develop motivation, and gain self-confidence in their learning and in their L2 [2]. On the other hand, a competent teacher will also compensate for limitations of methods by evaluating and developing her own effectiveness as an instructor [3]. This is congruent to how **Pettis (1997:394)advocates** that teachers uphold a commitment to professional development and periodically assess their own knowledge and skillset of the field of L2 teaching [4]. Teachers, who then make themselves and their methodologies available to regular observation and critique, are in a better position to identify and adapt new strategies and techniques (**Horowitz, 2008:224**) [5]. **Additionally, it is imperative** that good teachers continuallyimprove, or at least maintain, their own knowledge of the L2 or foreign language so as to not become restricted by any language limitations that could influence their presentation of or reliance upon certain features of methods [6]. [Mara]

However, there does appear to be some evaluation in this piece. For example, sentences [4] supports Mara's proposition, which she brings into the conversation in sentence [3]. Joining the dialogue, Mara makes a claim and has Pettis concur with her. A final evaluation is made in the last sentence [6], in which a pronouncement about a need is made, without a reference to an outside source. What this example shows is that student writers can use a variety of source authors and have relatively neutral stances toward them while weaving in their own arguments. Indeed, discourse and the student texts are filled with evaluations towards propositions and other people, such that a single utterance can be filled with multiple voices with varying points of view. What this example also demonstrates is the rather sophisticated text Mara created by

creating such a dialogue with varying sentence structure and ways of incorporating the outside sources. Given that Mara was a fairly confident writer and wrote with a command of academic language, achieving such a dialogic paragraph may be considerably easier for her to do than the participants who struggled with academic language, such as Patrick and Martin.

4.5 The drafting process: Changes in integration and dialogic voicing

For this last consideration of source author engagement, I will discuss in a case-study manner two extended examples of Wes and Mara, who revised drafts in both similar and different ways according to how they incorporated their sources. I consider issues of dialogic voicing, argumentation, textual and author integration, and source author endorsement.

4.5.1 Wes: Non-integrated paraphrases and creating dialogue

As the previous sections have demonstrated, textual and authorial integration appear to factor into the expression of student opinions in their writing, which is often referred to as *voice*. A student's voice can be "lost" when incorporating outside sources and when speaking of a source author "taking over" a text, it is typically said that quotations do this. If too many quotations are used, then the authorial voice disappears. However, my analysis of integration and dialogic voicing suggests that it is not just the feature of quotation marks that can make a student's writing appear voiceless.

This was the case with Wes, where his drafting process dealt with issues of voice, paraphrasing, and integration of source author. It is a demonstration not only of changes in writing but also the role dialogism may play in establishing voice. Wes' final paper on bullying and how to prevent it had textual integration that was entirely paraphrased. The changes made in the draft pertain to authorial integration and stance, and two drafts of one particular paragraph are shown in Table 12. When Wes and I met to go over the rough draft, we discussed

the feedback he received from his instructor Paula who had written in the margin of the rough draft, "You seem to be relying on this one website for solutions about identification. Where is your voice here?" (Instructor feedback draft 1). When I asked Wes what Paula meant by this, he stated that he did not put his own opinion and relied too much on the author (Interview, 11/3/12). Closer analysis of the draft reveals what his instructor might have meant with "voice" and lack of opinion.

In the rough draft, it can be seen that nearly every sentence ends with a citation of *stopbullying.gov*; the sentences tend to be dialogically contractive in that they make bare assertions/pronouncements, functioning to give neutral, established definitions. The complement sentence structure of the propositions creates a stative, established stance. There is no integration of source author or intra-vocalization, which creates a dialogically contractive paragraph whose main "speaker" is the source author, as noted by Paula. The repetition of end of text citations may also suggest that the voice comes more from the source author than Wes.

Wes ended up revising this paragraph for the final draft in several ways, including integration of the source author, which created a more dialogically expansive paragraph. Furthermore, the appeal to authority with the attributed *according to* and *as suggested in* indicates Wes' endorsement of the propositions being made by the government website *forbullying*, which can be considered an authority on the subject. With these changes, the dialogue becomes more explicit as well as an establishment of voices and evaluation. In respect to his opinion, at the end of the paragraph Wes added an explicit evaluation of the propositions made, saying that involved parties *should* take particular actions.

Table 12

Rough draft: Ambiguous endorsement, bare assertions	Final draft: Dialogic voicing, endorsement cues
<p>To identify bullying early, one of the better ways to do it is to identify who is at risk of bullying others or being bullied. Children who have a higher chance to be picked on including those with low self-esteem, less popular among peers or consider 'different' among their peers such as overweight (stopbullying.gov). Kids that are more likely to become bullies are often possessive, aggressive or have low self-esteem (stopbullying.gov). Other ways to spot bullying is to pay attention to warning signs that show possible bullying (stopbullying.gov). Children with unexplained injuries, damaged personal properties or declining grades are good signs that hint they are targeted (stopbullying.gov). Kids with unexplained extra properties or are increasingly aggressive are signs that show kids are bullying others (stopbullying.gov). With some of the above tips, teachers are more capable to detect any bullying.</p>	<p>To identify bullying early, one of the better ways to do it is to identify who is at risk of bullying others or being bullied.According to stopbullying.gov, children who are more likely to become bullies or victims usually possess some characteristics. Children who have a higher chance to be picked on including those with low self-esteem, less popular among peers or consider 'different' among their peers such as overweight.* Kids that are more likely to become bullies are often possessive, aggressive or have low self-esteem (stopbullying.gov).Another way to spot bullying is to pay attention to warning signs that show possible bullying as suggested in stopbullying.gov. Children with unexplained injuries, damaged personal properties or declining grades are good signs that hint they are targeted.* Kids with unexplained extra properties or are increasingly aggressive are signs that show kids are bullying others (stopbullying.gov). With some of the above tips, teachers are more capable to detect any bullying. <i>Moreover, schools should encourage parents to follow the above tips to pay closer attention to their children. If there are any possible signs that the parents noticed which are overlooked by the teachers, parents should contact schools for help.</i></p>

*indicates removal of end of text citation; **bold** = emphasized text *italics* = added opinion

As to why these changes in his text might have occurred, Wes and I discussed the

instructor's feedback and how to go about making changes. We discussed mentioning the source within the sentence and I suggested the phrase *people/advocates at stopbullying.gov*. Regarding end of text citations, I told him that he did not have to put a citation after every sentence. When asked about where he was going to put his opinion, Wes said he was going to put it after the discussion of the source. In addition, I reminded Wes that Paula had noted in class not to use *I think* or *I believe* since it added to "wordiness"(Interview, 10/24/12), and asked how he was going to show which sentences were his opinion. Wes said he would use the modal *should*, which appeared in the final draft. Wes recognized his voice was lacking in the rough draft, but he also expressed uncertainty over citing sources as well as generating his own ideas or stances on other's ideas. Later, in a writing response assignment, Wes noted that his lack of knowledge on the topic and lack of skill with citation practices prevented him from including his voice in an effective way:

"I have a hard time adding some of my own comment in the paper as mentioned in my rough draft because *I am unfamiliar* with the topic. Also, in that particular paragraph that *lacks my own opinion*, I was not sure how I was going to remove some of the in-text citations because Miki said that those citations made that I was summarizing others' opinions as my opinion. However, *I was very reluctant* to trim remove [sic] those citations because I was not sure whether it was a good idea to risk not giving credits to my sources. I tried to add more details to the reference part because Miki said that I need to *introduce my sources* in a *more detailed way*." (Reflection Assignment, italics added)

Despite these uncertainties and the attribution of source introduction as "detailed," Wes made changes in his final draft that created a dialogue between himself and the source author as well as a clearer reference to his own beliefs.

For Paula, the students' voices were central to the research paper, which she described as an "academic conversation," noting that what they were doing is "reading what's been said and

you're entering the conversation and putting your stamp on it. Your point of view...your opinion is a reasoned one, an educated one..." (Observation, 1/31/13). While it is not clear what the instructor thought of Wes' revised draft, I argue that the integration of the source author helped create a "conversation" and Wes' inclusion of his suggestions at the end of the paragraph was congruent with "putting your stamp on it." Despite being a paraphrase, his rough draft lacked dialogic voicing and stance with the lack of integration of source author and bare assertions, which also created contractive voicing. Even though the source author and Wes had the same argument, which may contract the dialogue, the use of another's voice and modality (should) opened up the conversation for the reader to consider the propositions rather being forced to concur with them.

The changes made in Wes' draft came out of his need to establish his opinion while also discussing information from an outside source. For him this was challenging because he did not have a strong background on the topic and he also was uncertain about citation rules and ways to avoid transgressive source use while paraphrasing. He struggled with distinguishing himself from others linguistically. What seemed to give him more of a voice was actually recognizing the voice of another, with his addition of attributive phrases such as *according to* and *as suggested by*. With the integration of the source author, the information from the *stopbullying.gov* website changed from being factual and monologic to being arguments from a government body, which Wes was relaying to his audience. Wes was also able to show his endorsement of the website while including his own opinion, which he identified as his own by placing it after the block of sentences that discussed the source author's opinion. He used the modal *should* to indicate his ideas for the reader to take action. The factors dealt within this paragraph revision, textual integration, authorial integration, and expression of stance were a part of every interaction with a

source for not just Wes but all the participants.

4.5.2 Mara: Negotiating author integration and identifying one's opinions

Regardless of being more linguistically proficient (See Section 3.3.9), Mara had a similar experience as Wes during the drafting process when it came to distinguishing voice and opinion during source integration. Also, her rough draft lacked in-text citation of the source authors, and the source texts were integrated via paraphrasing. Unlike Wes, Mara had clear arguments on the topic she was writing about. The changes in her final draft reveal ways in which Mara creates and then joins in on a dialogue with the source authors by changing the ways in which the source authors are integrated into the text. Specifically, Mara uses linguistic moves including quotations to identify the boundaries of voices, including her own. The changes made in the final draft also demonstrate the ways in which she endorses the source authors and uses them to support her own ideas in an appeal to authority. Discussions with Mara on these changes reveal a mixture of her struggle both with distinguishing her voice and ideas from the source authors and also conforming to standard academic writing practices.

As a step in the research project for the course, for one assignment Mara wrote a short research-based text on what instructors should know about second language acquisition theory and research. Table 13 shows an entire paragraph in two versions: a rough draft and a final draft. In this paragraph, Mara is trying to discuss her own opinion as well as those from experts in the field. In the rough draft, the latter half of the paragraph contains two paraphrased sentences without text citations, which offer opinions of what *is* or what *can be* for teachers and language theory. However, in the final draft, Mara inserts the source author's names into the text and by reporting their ideas, displays her endorsement for them. Specifically, the source author Mary

Table 13

<i>Mara: Research-based Assignment Rough Draft</i>	<i>Mara: Research-based Assignment Final Draft</i>
<p>My experience in light of Pettis' words causes me to critically evaluate the how language is formally taught within schools. The ways in which second- and foreign languages are taught should matter, not only to educators, but also to learners and to our society. For educators, this means having enough training or background so that they can summon diverse teaching methods in the classroom to pre-empt statements such as the ones reported by Pettis. The benefits of this are twofold. Teachers receive adequate training and students receive appropriate instruction. Then, when educators can implement the most appropriate methods and processes by which to teach language, they can appropriately build upon students' learning while being mindful of their diverse needs (Borba, 2009). Furthermore, teachers who feel as if they have sufficient preparation are, in general, better equipped to lead a classroom. Specifically, teachers who are better equipped can then promote and accelerate students' development (Cummins, 2003).</p>	<p>Reflecting upon my experience in light of Pettis' words causes me to critically evaluate how language is formally taught within schools. In my opinion, the ways in which second- and foreign languages are taught should matter, not only to educators, but also to learners and to our society. For educators, this means having enough training or background so that they can summon diverse teaching methods in the classroom in order to pre-empt statements such as the ones reported by Pettis. The benefits of this are twofold: teachers would receive adequate training, and students would gain varied methods of instruction. Mary Borba concurs that educators could then implement the most appropriate methods and processes by which to teach language so as to build upon students' learning. She states that when teachers understand the processes of language development, "their expectations are more realistic, and they are able to scaffold learning appropriately" (2009:374). I agree with Borba, and so does Jim Cummins. Cummins argues that teachers can further promote and accelerate students' development by implementing pedagogical approaches that "succeed in liberating students from instructional dependence," (2003:32).¹</p> <p>¹Footnote: According to Cummins, instructional dependence refers to the limiting structures of traditional educational approaches that research has shown to limit the ultimate language attainment of learners.</p>

Borba became the subject and agent of a sentence with *Mary Borba concurs that...* The reference to which Borba concurs is the proposition Mara makes in the previous sentence. The paraphrased, end-of-text citation of Borba changes into a dialogic sentence serving to support Mara's arguments. The final draft expands on Borba's arguments by including a quote that gives the rationale for supporting such an opinion, starting with *She states that...* Mara creates a dialogically expansive space by using a relatively neutral reporting verb, *states*. At the same time, the way in which Mara discusses the second outside source in the final draft creates a sense of dialogic contraction by appealing to authority to support her claims. In the rough draft, Mara discusses a possibility about teacher education by paraphrasing and citing Jim Cummins, but not mentioning him in the text. Like Borba, in the final draft Cummins is incorporated into the sentence and becomes a subject and agent starting with the sentence *Cummins argues that...* Mara also changes from only paraphrasing to also quoting Cummins.

Importantly, in between discussion of the two source authors, Mara adds in a sentence that explicitly draws the reader's attention to her own beliefs as related to the source authors. She states *I agree with Borba, and so does Jim Cummins*. This sentence serves a few rhetorical functions. For one, it adds to the ways in which Mara identifies herself in the research paper, including changes in the beginning part of the paragraph that highlight her ideas, such as *In my opinion*, as well as the evaluative quality of some of the reporting verbs. In addition, Mara makes it clear that she endorses the arguments of the source authors and that they in some ways also endorse hers. Mara appeals to authority to create a strong if dialogically contractive argument for her reader by adding that she not only agrees with Borba but also a well-known researcher, Jim Cummins; she also does this by inserting a footnote that describes a phenomena *according to Cummins*.

As for motivations behind these changes, I discussed this passage with Mara after noticing the change in textual integration, from paraphrasing to quoting. I asked her why she made such changes in this paragraph, and we had the following conversation:

Miki: Do you think quoting is better than paraphrasing them? I see you quote Borba and quote Cummins and this one you paraphrase.

Mara: Let me see it. I think 'cus this is more like. This is what they said but *this is me making connections between what I think their quotes...* And here *I'm summarizing why the connections are important.* 'Cus the whole thing. *This is me. I'm making this statement.* And *my opinion*, 'this is a win-win here's why because teachers'. This was a stretch...

Miki: And this is because you thought that you needed to do this for the paper? To include your personal opinion?

Mara: Yes. It was a bizarre assignment and I probably took it down a difficult and wrong path. *And then I got into Cummins and it was like yeah here's someone else who shares my ideas* but it's slightly different 'cus he's criticizing traditional education approaches. (Interview, 11/21/12)

Mara's response reveals her focus on creating a cohesive text in which all the participating voices are in dialogue with one another rather than separate entities; she describes this when talking about "making connections" and "summarizing why the connections are important." Most importantly, Mara is trying to identify to the reader that the ideas and some of the language are hers first and foremost, when she says, "'Cus the whole thing. This is me. I'm making this statement." During the research process of reading over previous work, Mara found an author who shared her opinions, Jim Cummins, which she demonstrates when stating, "Here's someone else who shares my ideas." Based on these comments, it seems apparent that Mara was aware of the dialogic nature of source use as well as some rhetorical functions of them in academic writing.

However, like Wes, Mara was notably unsure about how to incorporate her own ideas when discussing outside research when explaining that she took the assignment “down a difficult and wrong path.” She discussed this uncertainty later in the conversation when discussing how to integrate information. She said:

...I struggled with this because *I didn't know how to tie things into sources* and additionally, umm, *personal experience*. So I had to say what's my experience. How- *How do I make a statement about my experience and why I think it's important that we look at our methods?* 'Oh well we want our methods to be strong for these reasons' ... *I wrote it because I struggled*. But this was—This—I integrated the "I agree with and so does Cummins." That was the last- the final draft. Because I was like *How do I make it stronger?* How do I make my point stronger? Oh, *I'll throw this in.*" (Interview, 11/21/12)

In this excerpt, Mara describes her solutions to integrating her own voice in her argumentative text while trying to demonstrate to the reader the legitimacy of her arguments. Her final draft changed not only the way she integrated the text (paraphrase to quoting) but also the author (from no mention of the source author to integration). These changes reflect decisions made by Mara which relate to her drive to make a compelling argument for her audience by using outside sources while maintaining a boundary between voices.

While different in many ways, including general linguistic and academic writing skills, Mara and Wes proceeded through drafting processes with source use in similar ways. Both revised their drafts so that there was source author integration and other explicit reference to outside sources. Although Mara held a stronger opinion on her writing topic, both Wes and Mara made changes so that their own voices could be more clearly distinguished. For Wes, this was done by placing his opinion at the end of the paragraph and changing the use of verbs from factual statements to propositions through the modal *should*. Mara added in explicit references

through self-referential pronouns and stating her own opinions, such as *I agree*. With these changes, the student writers engaged in a dialogue with their sources while continuing to endorse and use them to advance the overall argument. However, while Wes worked out how to create a dialogic text through discussion with me and considering the instructor's feedback, Mara went through this process on her own, which may reflect her more advanced academic literacy skills.

4.6 Conclusion: Beyond paraphrasing, quoting, and summarizing

The student writers were working to orchestrate various voices in their argumentative texts, including the reader, source authors, and their own points of view on educational issues like bullying, tracking, teacher salaries, and community service programs. Incorporating a text via quotations or paraphrase depended on the comfort and style of the student. Often the source was used to confirm the students' arguments by appealing to authority and evidence. Students also varied in whether they mentioned the source author within the text or not; when integrating the source author, Claudia, Becky and Wes appealed to authority of the sources by frequently using the phrase *according to*, appealing to authority. The use of outside sources made such student texts dialogic, but the extent to which the dialogue allowed for multiple voices varied, such that there is a range of expansion and contraction; students engaged their outside sources in various ways.

When drafting texts, the student writers had to keep in mind their own argument, the background of the audience, and the ideas and findings from other people. With that, they had to create a cohesive document that employed outside sources to advance their own claims and persuade audiences as to the legitimacy of the proposal. Students had to consider issues relating to authority and power dynamics. Topics related to ambiguity of voices and stance also arose when considering how students incorporated their sources. When the source author was

integrated, such as in Section 4.4.1, it was much easier to distinguish the student writer's opinion toward the source, while lack of integration led to ambiguous propositions and voices, seen in Section 4.4.2. Certainly, integration played a salient role in how the student writers expressed their argument as well as stance toward a cited source. Lack of reference to the source author or authorial voice sometimes made it more difficult to interpret the student writer's opinion toward the cited author(s), such as in the examples from Martin and Patrick. Some students, such as Becky and Patrick, used strategies beyond linguistic forms to indicate their stance on propositions coming from source authors through the use of theme/rheme, which created cohesion with key terms.

In addition, the use of these different features may interact with how a student's own opinions are demonstrated, as well as the overall strength of the text. For Wes, considerations of integration, stance, and end of text citation changed his paragraph from a dialogically contractive one to a conversation filled with various opinions, which seemed to be what his instructor was looking for in the student papers. So rather than just looking at the interaction of the authorial voice and reader (Hyland, 2005), considering the interaction with the source author appeared to help Wes improve his writing. Mara also engaged in struggles with dialogic voicing and source author use, revealing the importance at times in argumentative writing of identifying voices of source authors and the self when writing.

Chapter 5: Paraphrasing, language use, and appropriation

5.1 Understanding paraphrasing: A default choice, a "dangerous" choice

"I guess you're like always paraphrasing"
— Candace

During one of our conversations about how to integrate the text of a source (as discussed in Chapter 4), Candace was ruminating on her use of paraphrasing when she came to the conclusion that we are "always paraphrasing" in school, such as content from the course, lectures, and texts. Her comment triggers a number of theoretical questions about learning from others, citation, and discussing information *in your own words*. For learning, it emphasizes that language is social and that paraphrasing is a part of the *assimilation* process of language learning from others which is partially why "our speech...is filled with others' words" with "varying degrees of otherness or varying degrees of 'our-own-ness'" (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 87). Discussions of paraphrasing, patchwriting, and plagiarism demonstrate controversy around these ideas, including Bakhtin's argument that all language involves a response to a previous utterance (1986, p. 94) in this case a cited source. One additional connection to Bakhtinian theory that relates to paraphrasing but is not often discussed in the literature on paraphrasing is the idea of work and effort in appropriating language and the struggle people must go through when engaging in the process (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 92). If Candace is correct, then decisions must constantly be made regarding when to cite a source or not.

Beyond theoretical discussions of ownership and language learning, paraphrasing as a classroom practice involves a variety of assumptions about language learning and is not a straightforward activity. Though often discussed as one of three parts of source incorporation (with summarizing and quoting as the other two), on its own paraphrasing can be looked at from multiple angles. For this chapter, paraphrasing is addressed in two ways: how the focal participants (including teachers) discuss it and how the students use it in their own writing. For analyzing the *discussion* of paraphrasing, I focus on its suggested use and defining features. For analyzing its *use*, I look at grammatical features and changes from the original to paraphrased

text. The chapter ends with addressing Candace's comment and how her perceptions of paraphrasing and her actual practices differ. Within the analyses, relevant theory of language learning and ownership will be addressed.

5.1.1 One of three options: Preferences to paraphrase and reasons why

Overall, instructors and students discussed paraphrasing in a variety of ways. Classroom discussion of source incorporation for two of the three classes framed paraphrasing as one of three ways to incorporate a source into one's writing, along with quoting and summarizing, or as part of a *triad* as described by Keck (2010). However, there were conflicting discussions of its use, such as whether it was better to paraphrase or quote. These variations in stated preference echo differing findings across setting and discipline, with some finding higher grade student texts to have less quoting (Lee, 2010) while others find that they have more (Petrić, 2007).

However, each instructor recognized the importance of learning to use these three forms effectively, despite the challenging nature of the task and the time constraints of a writing course, with one noting "it's an art form" (Interview, Paula, 4/3/13). Though not entirely about source usage, this idea of an *art form* hearkens back to D'Angelo's (1979) argument that there is an "art of paraphrase" and that it is beneficial for students to learn how to do it (p. 255). Perhaps it is due to it being an art form that students expressed multiple and conflicting views on paraphrasing. Some students had to change from quoting to paraphrasing when coming to university at the insistence of their instructors, while others thought quoting was the more academic way to discuss sources. While there is a lot of variation coming from the students and instructors on whether or not paraphrasing is valuable, in general, there was more discussion of paraphrasing as being the preferred way to integrate sources. Raquel, Claudia, Martin, and Mara were advised or reported being advised to paraphrase.

Paraphrasing was portrayed by some to be the default way to incorporate text, with quoting being reserved for very special language or source authors. The instructor Denise discussed paraphrasing as being the preferred way of using sources for many genres including sciences and social sciences, but that there was a "litmus test" for whether or not you had to use a quote, saying "if it can be paraphrased, without losing some of the importance" then do not quote it (Interview, 4/10/13). In addition, the instructor Annette stated that she teaches both paraphrasing and quoting but her students

have increasingly insisted that they get penalized in other SS [social sciences] sources for quoting. But I do spend a day talking about when it's best to summarize, paraphrase, or quote and the pitfalls of each.

(Annette, Email Interview, 4/17/13).

5.1.2 Display understanding: Do some work and "really think"

Besides paraphrasing being framed as the default approach, reasons for this seem to include issues of displaying understanding of a text and also maintaining control of a text. Raquel explained that sometimes it depended on the class or instructor, but in general she was asked to paraphrase. One sociology professor discouraged quotes because it took up too much space; Raquel paraphrased the professor's explanation saying the students were "wasting time on you know getting into it when you can just get to the point and she would be like 'that's why you have a reference page'" (Interview, 4/24/13). Part of the student's job is to distill information and be concise via paraphrasing.

In addition, highlighting the notion that paraphrasing displays critical thinking skills, Claudia discussed how professors:

...want you to paraphrase. They would like that much better rather than giving specific quotes. Because if you do that you're not really thinking. You're just copying what the book says but if you can paraphrase or change it around then they can see that you're actually analyzing. Not all the professors but most of the ones that I had.

(Claudia, Interview, 11/7/12)

With this understanding, paraphrasing can be beneficial to both the writer and the reader because it helps a student analyze a text and the instructors are given a visual display of such thinking. Paraphrasing serves as a way to demonstrate important academic literacies of critical thinking such as analysis, synthesis, and inference. These arguments align with findings that lower graded undergraduate essays may use more quotations (Lee, 2010). It also makes students work on efficiency and brevity in writing, which again may be a value in academia.

Paraphrasing was also characterized as involving work, which made it more difficult than other forms of source use. Claudia discussed this idea as well, when she reports understanding the value of paraphrasing even if it was more difficult:

Before ...I used to quote like everything I would **just go get the quote and put it there** and then saying something about it. And so when I was doing that my professors were like 'you don't need to do that.' A paraphrase would then be better. As long— but I always had to quote—that's where citing other sources comes handy. Because you're not only quoting but you're at the same time citing the other sources and analyzing them. So now I tend to do that. But before I loved doing the quotes.**It was easier.**

(Claudia, Interview, 11/7/12)

Claudia recognizes that paraphrasing is more labor intensive but valuable since it forces her to think through the source's ideas and analyze them. It is "easier" to directly insert a quote in your text or to "go get the quote and put it there" rather than breaking down the wording and rephrasing it. Like Claudia, Annette brought up the idea of work and paraphrasing (understood as a summary or a close paraphrase) as the means through which to incorporate a source (Annette, Observation, 11/28/12). Other references to paraphrasing involving the work of critical thinking and manipulation of language were referenced in the courses by the instructors, such as to not "just copy and paste" (Paula, Observation, 1/29/13) as well as discussing the act of summarizing

a text and taking notes on it in general is "labor intensive" (Denise, Observation, 11/1/12).

Pedagogically, the idea of labor relates to the structure of classes as a place for students to do tasks akin to work in order to learn. Also, it appears to be associated with challenging activities involved with critical analysis, synthesis and even appropriation of information and language, which harkens back to Bakhtinian theory (1981) of dialogue and development as an engaging struggle. The act of making language one's own through source engagement and paraphrasing is not a straightforward, easy activity.

5.1.1.2 The loudest voice: Maintaining ownership of a text

In addition, paraphrasing also held its value in terms of reassuring the reader that the writer (authorial voice) has full control of the text and is not "overtaken" by other's words, as may happen with quotes. For example, in discussing a sample research paper, one student in Denise's class noted that the text had too many quotes and that s/he should add his/her own words and language (Denise, Observation, 10/24/12).

Martin, when discussing a draft and a quote that he had used, mentioned that the writing instructor had advised them not to use too many quotes since "it's better to paraphrase. It seems like more your paper then." (Interview, 12/4/12). He had a similar point of view as this argument, saying:

Which I agree. I'm not like- I'm not saying the paper's just like- just quote, quote, quote. I'm like 'ah, why are you- **why use all these quotes?**'

(Martin, Interview, 12/4/12)

In this sense a paraphrase helps maintain ownership of the text since the language is supposedly of the authorial voice, even if its contents do not belong to the source author. Similarly, there were references to quotations "taking over" a student's essay, such as when Martin discussed one of the reasons why he preferred to paraphrase:

Sometimes I want to use long quote, but I don't think using such a long quote will work, so I rather **paraphrase to get in all the information** I need while keeping the quote small, so it will not take over my paper.

(Martin, Email Correspondence, 3/19/13)

Martin expresses the need to maintain control of the text despite wanting to use someone else's words; he also recognizes that there is often in a text or even a sentence a mixture of types of source incorporation, including paraphrasing and quoting one source at the same time.

The idea of “someone else” taking up space in one's text was also demonstrated when the instructor Annette discussed the potential issues involved in using long block quotes in a text.

She said that not only might the reader skip over them, but also:

They sort of **take away from your argument** because **you're pulling in almost like too much of somebody else** instead of **doing that work more yourself**.

(Annette, Observation, 11/28/12)

In this sense, reformulation of sources via paraphrasing or summarizing help a writer maintain ownership of a text, which again in academia is seen as being a valuable characteristic of argumentative writing. The act of “pulling in...too much of somebody else” connects to the amount of work and effort a writer has to go through when paraphrasing. Quoting may demonstrate to a reader that a student writer has a weak argument because there was not much work done to paraphrase someone else's ideas.

5.1.3 Preferable...but dangerous

Students and instructors alike recognize the utility of paraphrasing in academic writing for its various uses, including its de facto preferred status in some fields and its function of ensuring the authorial voice has done the work of analyzing and reformulating ideas and language of another text. Similarly, there is a value in "maintaining control" of a text by not allowing in too many quotes and asserting oneself as the rightful owner of a text. However,

paraphrasing was also often discussed as a precarious strategy since it could easily lead to *plagiarism*: a transgressive act antithetical to the academy. In fact, when discussing the three ways to incorporate outside sources and the dangers of plagiarism, one instructor suggested that her students not paraphrase, saying "I generally encourage students to pick a summary or quote and if there's a particular reason why you want to paraphrase, I can help you with that" (Annette, Observation, 11/28/12). Annette seems to have an understandable desire to help students avoid unintentionally plagiarizing and the accompanied negative consequences. This example demonstrates the tensions that remain between utilizing an important feature of academic writing while also avoiding acting in any way that would suggest academic dishonesty, as well as the ways in which instructors and students may respond to such tensions.

Mara also recognized these tensions when discussing conflicting information she had on how to incorporate a source and why. Despite the fact that she was observably writing proficient academic texts, she was uncertain of any standard practice that should be followed. Discussing this conflict, she noted:

But it's **incongruent**. Because I thought that if I relied too much on quotes, it just sounds like I'm **not trying to make the effort of digesting the information I'm just parroting back** the stuff. So... I thought I've always been told it's an issue of **integrity and not plagiarizing**. And yeah no one has ever told me really when it's more beneficial to go with quotes or paraphrasing. Come to think of it **it's always been lumped together. Do either but cite.**

(Mara, Interview, 11/21/12)

In addition to demonstrating an assumption that paraphrasing involves work rather than "parroting," Mara frames the utility of source incorporation in terms of plagiarism and recognizes the compromising position some students feel when considering the setbacks of quoting and paraphrasing. Her statement about summarizing and paraphrasing having been "lumped together" in her courses also suggests that others may think of the triad as equal in use.

Overall, Mara's comment highlights the ambiguities and variability in beliefs about paraphrasing.

5.1.3.1 Something to be (re)defined, something to be avoided: The murky waters of distinguishing paraphrasing from plagiarism

Similar to Annette's suggestion for avoiding paraphrasing, discussion of paraphrasing was accompanied by discussion of plagiarism and transgressive source use. It was in the context of putting something "from a source's words to your own" (line 2) that created concern for plagiarizing. For Annette, the concern was discussed in class only in terms of paraphrasing even though she said a summary "needs to be concise, it needs to be accurate, it needs to be in your own words" (Annette, Observation, 11/28/12). Paraphrasing also involved "translating" language but was closely related to patchwriting:

1 Let's go to paraphrasing. Paraphrasing is when you basically **translate a short passage**
2 **from a source's words to your own**. You want to choose this when details of a source
3 passage are particularly important. So when the **details of a particular passage** are
4 important or the other main reason is if you need to **translate** um some like technical
5 jargon— language that would be you know like you're reading a psyche [psychology] article
6 and it has really **jargon-specific language** and your everyday reader, college educated
7 reader, may not understand that. So you might choose to paraphrase. These are generally
8 the same length as the original passage. **You have to be really careful when you**
9 **paraphrase**. It's sort of **the most dangerous areas for plagiarism**. You have to **compose**
10 **your own sentences completely**. And you have to **be careful not to just use the author's**
11 **sentence but like replace every four words** or something. **That's called patchwriting. And**
12 **that's technically plagiarism**. So I think this one is probably **the most difficult to do**. I
13 generally encourage students to **pick a summary or quote** and if there's a particular
14 reason why you want to paraphrase **I can help you with that**.

(Annette, Observation, 11/28/12)

The expressed value of paraphrasing lies in the ability for writers to cater to their audience by considering issues of word choice (lines 4-6) and also for discussing important details (lines 3-4), both of which are fairly useful if not essential for writing. However, the added caveat is that this is also a "dangerous area" (line 9) for something that is "technically"

plagiarism (line 12). The danger seems to lie in how complete of a transformation a text is from the source author to the authorial voice. Patchwriting remains somewhere-in-between because the original sentence structure remains the same but the writer “replace(s) every four words” (line 11). Paraphrasing is defined by what it is not (patchwriting) and as a process of writing “your own sentences completely” (lines 9-10). Annette seems to recognize the difficulty student writers may have in actually following through the process of producing acceptable sentences or texts. The description of patchwriting as "technically" plagiarism suggests an awareness of the controversies around transgressive and non-transgressive source use. Nonetheless, paraphrasing gets established as a place to tread cautiously despite its apparent usefulness in academic writing.

The other instructors also referenced the delicate balancing act one must perform when trying to walk the line of paraphrasing versus patchwriting. For example, when discussing the requirements for the annotated bibliography of the research paper, Paula drew attention to such a "line." In one part of the annotated bibliography students must summarize the reference in 100 words. Paula stated,

This should be **in your own words**. I don't want you to **just copy and paste** the abstract, which is tempting to do. Right? Think about issues of plagiarism and over paraphrasing...There's a **fine line between paraphrasing and plagiarizing**, right? If you have a question about—**email me** the original abstract and your paraphrase and I can tell you, ok?

(Paula, Observation 1/29/13)

A contrast is made between having something “in your own words” and doing minimal manipulation of language from “copying and pasting.” The use of “just” suggests a need for students to involve themselves in some work when paraphrasing their sources. Later in the conversation, she again made the connection between plagiarism and paraphrasing, stating that the line between them is “fine,” such that students might want to proceed cautiously. However,

rather than advising students to avoid paraphrasing altogether, which does not seem possible given the nature of the assignment, Paula mediates this tension by offering to check the paraphrase/summary. In a sense she offers to help them as they work through modeling and manipulating the language of the referenced text, and the email is a practice session of sorts.

This offering up of help with navigating through paraphrasing an outside source was also seen in Denise's class after discussion of paraphrasing and plagiarism. To start, while reviewing the three ways to incorporate a text, Denise also frames paraphrasing as challenging and potentially dangerous. She says,

- 1 Denise Now paraphrase, and I know I'm going to stop here, is the trickiest. I want
2 to hear why it's **the trickiest** and next time we're going to talk...or maybe in a
3 week we're going to talk about this. Why is paraphrasing trickier?
4 Student Because you don't want to plagiarize.
5 Denise **Because you don't want to plagiarize** and because you work with a **smaller chunk**
6 **of material.** Maybe you want to paraphrase **two to three sentences, a paragraph,**
7 right? And **you want to write it in your own words** but **it's very hard to move away**
8 **from the words of the author.** And that's where you can do what we call often
9 **"plagiaphrasing"** ok? Where **you're trying to paraphrase** but **you're actually**
10 **plagiarizing.** One example: *The teacher taught the class? The instructor taught the*
11 *course.* I stayed with the original. That's a very stupid example but it kind of gives
12 you this— and I **changed two words** and I said 'see? I'm not plagiaphrasing.' I
13 paraphrased **in my own words but kept all the syntax the same.** So we're going to
14 come back to this but this is **the tricky part so I'm going to help with that.**

(Denise, Observation, 10/16/12)

Denise discusses paraphrasing as not impossible but still "tricky" (line 14) and "the trickiest" (line 2). When asked why, a student quickly responded that it was due to plagiarism (line 4). This suggests that the instructors are not alone in seeing paraphrasing and plagiarizing as being two sides of the same coin. Rather, students too seem aware of this potential danger in paraphrasing. Also, rather than referring to patchwriting, Denise calls the semi-paraphrase an act of "plagiaphrasing" (line 12) and she defines it as involving only lexical but not syntactic change (lines 12-13), similar to the definition Annette gave by using the term "completely." It is also

similar to discussion of the shortness of the paraphrase discussed by Annette, when Denise describes it as “a small chunk of material” (lines 5-6).

Denise recognizes the difficulty in paraphrasing in such a way as to not plagiarize and how it is "hard to move away from the words of the author" (lines 7-8). Like the other instructors, paraphrasing gets positioned as a tool to use with caution or to avoid using altogether due to its challenging nature. However, in general the part of paraphrasing that is "tricky" seems to involve the idea that "you're trying to paraphrase but you're actually plagiarizing" (lines 9-10). The unintentional characteristic of plagiaphrasing would appear to render students powerless against preventing plagiarism. Certainly, it is difficult to avoid something when it's not even clear what it looks like. Therefore, like Annette and Paula, Denise explains that she can provide support for students.

5.1.3.2 Can't avoid what you don't know: Issues with paraphrasing as a way to maintain ownership

In addition to the instructors, some students were aware of the "dangers" of paraphrasing due to the possibility of plagiarizing, even if unintentionally. Focusing on this fear due to the unintentional nature of the type of plagiarizing that could occur, some students changed the way they incorporated outside texts in general or at least with certain writing tasks. In addition, some found it a challenge to identify what an acceptable paraphrase might look like. For example, identifying the components of a paraphrase became an object of inquiry for Mara, who for a school quarter observed my 1st year ESL writing courses. After one class in which I spent time paraphrasing sample texts with students, we discussed the activity. In my fieldnotes, I wrote:

- 1 She says that she liked how I had them do a paraphrase activity in class and how
- 2 she never realized that **paraphrasing is more than switching out the words**. She
- 3 was surprised about the **sentence structure aspect**. We talk about this and the
- 4 definition and she says that she thought if you paraphrased an academic text by

5 **changing the words to a 'vernacular'** so that it was **comprehensible** and that
6 vernacular was known to all and **'common knowledge'**, then she doesn't see how
7 that was plagiarism...We also talked about how sometimes you **can't change the**
8 **terminology because there are key words**. She says something like "**when do we**
9 **receive training here?**" and "can't change the terminology and key words, right?"
10 She mentions that it all seems to be "**trial and error**" and there is an absence of
11 **formal instruction**. At some point we talk about my class and she talks about
12 **where students are allowed to try this out**. She mentions how **if they learn from**
13 **patchwriting**, where are they **allowed to be more lenient and practice** this out
14 **without severe repercussions?**

(Fieldnotes 2/13/13)

Mara seems surprised by the concept of a paraphrase involving lexical and syntactic change (lines 2-3), an idea discussed by some instructors and writing manuals. This was perhaps due to the idea of common knowledge and vernacular and the public ownership of language. In addition to questioning the validity of patchwriting as a transgressive act (lines 12-14), by describing the paraphrasing process as "trial and error" (line 10). Mara seems to suggest that the parameters of an acceptable paraphrase vary and are not necessarily definite (lines 4-7). This possibility feeds into the fear some students have of unintentionally plagiarizing a source, since they have no way of determining what an acceptable form might look like.

Furthermore, "fear of plagiarizing" seemed to drive some students' decisions on how to incorporate outside sources and manage their texts. So, rather than deciding on which of the three ways to use a source based on the function and effect, some students' decision-making was driven by the avoidance of unintentionally plagiarizing. To illustrate, Candace was someone who was fairly concerned about accidentally plagiarizing and she reported changing her approach to writing as a whole in order to handle or address this concern. Rather than paraphrase or show sources that were paraphrased, Candace used quotes. When discussing a paper for the course and her use of paraphrasing, we discussed the following:

- 1 Miki And then do you paraphrase anything? You use some quotes here, right?
2 Candace Yeah, uhh, well this one is talking about like research.
3 Miki Alright. Yeah do you find you're often able to **say it in a different way**?
4 Does that make sense? Like paraphrase it?
5 Candace **Paraphraseit?**
6 Miki You know—
7 Candace **I usually just quote it because I feel hesitant to paraphrase because I don't**
8 **know if it is like plagiarizing so.**
9 Miki Yeah
10 Candace **I usually just quote it.**
(Candace, Interview, 11/5/12)

Not only does she recognize this idea that paraphrasing and plagiarizing are closely related, but she also frames the argument as though she did not know what a plagiarized paraphrase might look like (lines 7-8). At the very least, Candace seems to express the thought that paraphrasing requires more work than something such as quoting and that a (legitimate) paraphrase is not easy to discern. For Candace, the safest and preferred option is to quote, which may not be the most beneficial writing practice given the value placed on paraphrasing in academia and the rhetorical benefits of it. In addition, Candace discussed another way to avoid paraphrasing since she "never really knew how to do like the paraphrase thing and then you like cite at the end" (Candace, Interview, 11/27/12). What she reported doing was to only cite when using a direct quote, suggesting that paraphrases were not cited, an act typically considered plagiarism in the academy; the context of this observation was that she had just been discussing confusion over common knowledge of courses, such as what is learned in lecture or a textbook, and whether or not to cite a source. Notably, Candace felt this way despite having taken multiple writing classes as well as having fairly proficient academic writing. Her thoughts certainly suggest a gap in the area of academic literacy that involves source incorporation and paraphrasing.

Fears of unintentionally plagiarizing and framing paraphrasing as a "tricky" and dangerous exercise are corollaries to the fact that the parameters of an appropriate paraphrase were not clearly identified by the instructors or known by the students. One of the problems with this relates to the reasons why paraphrasing is valued and preferred in some contexts: it indicates work, critical thinking, and a medium for maintaining control of a source. However, the "unintentional" in unintentional plagiarism suggest a lack of control. If students do not feel they have control over their paraphrases, their language, then it seems unlikely that they can remain the orchestrator of the source authors' voices, ensuring that a paper is not "taken over" by someone else's words. So while use of quotations is framed as a lack of textual ownership, paraphrasing is not necessarily a marker of ownership. This is illustrated with Wes, who only used paraphrases in his research essay and yet received feedback that his voice was lacking in the text (Research Assignment Draft #1, with instructor feedback, as discussed in Section 4.5.1). With this in mind, the students and instructors had similar views on the function of paraphrasing and the concerns involving transgressive activity. However, they varied in defining it.

5.2 Response by paraphrasing: Typology of paraphrases and what students actually do

Although the above discussions of paraphrasing were often accompanied by (conflicting) discussions on plagiarism, students in fact paraphrased sources in their writing. Understanding the structure of the students' paraphrases contributes to a more comprehensive picture of paraphrasing as a concept and an action for the focal participants. When considering paraphrasing practices, it is important to address how students interpret the ideas in the source text and connect it to their own argument; for example, the proposition that paraphrasing is useful because of the amount work involved and critical thinking required relates to Yamada's (2003)

finding that ideal paraphrases involved more than just translation. Rather, the texts discussed ideas inferred from the reading but not explicitly stated.

Keck's recent work (2010, 2014) explores the boundaries for acceptable paraphrasing by analyzing strings of text from cited sources. On the other hand, boundaries could be explored in terms of the mixing involved and the process of assimilation, which "includes within it *an entire series of forms for the appropriation* while transmitting of another's words" (Bakhtin, 1981, p 341-342, italics added). There are various ways to paraphrase a text, including choice of words and sentence structure, the latter of which Denise, Annette, and Mara mentioned as important for appropriately paraphrasing a text.

In order to analyze linguistic changes in student texts, I adapted the paraphrasing typology developed by Barron-Cedeno et al., (2013) and Vila et al., 2014) for use in computational linguistics and plagiarism software . As shown in Figures 1 and 2, paraphrases are broadly understood in terms of wording and structure, which are further categorized according to form. The typology looks at three main categories: morpholexical, structural and semantic features. The first two categories are then broken down into further components, as illustrated in Tables 14 and 15. Most discussion of paraphrases focus on the morpholexical and structural aspects rather than the semantic (Barron-Cedeno et al., 2013; Vila et al., 2014). When I tried to code for semantic paraphrases I found it difficult to categorize the data in such a way (which is partially why it is not stressed in the research). In addition, while coding and analyzing the paraphrases, I looked to see if the paraphrases were adding information or extrapolating on the paraphrased text (Hirvela & Du, 2013; Yamada, 2003). My adaptation collapses or removes some categories of the typology due to lack of occurrence.

Starting with morpholexical features seen in Figure 1, the categorization can be split into

changes in morphology and the lexicon. Looking at whether a paraphrase changed the tense of a verb (inflectional) or a noun transformed into an adjective (derivational) was done for morphology, in addition to seeing if the type of modal changed at all. The polarity categories discussed for the lexical group basically means if a synonym or antonym with accompanying grammatical changes were used. Synthetic/analytic changes had to do with whether or not suffixes versus separate words were used, such as the possessive *s* and the phrase *x of y*. For example, a synthetic phrase would look like *the student's paper* whereas an analytic phrase would be *the paper of the student*.

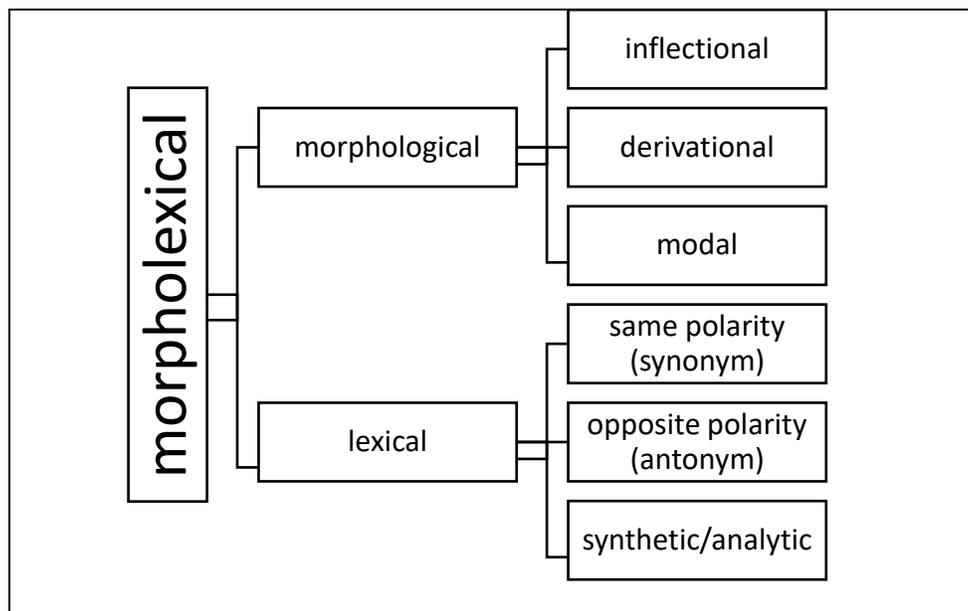


Figure 1

For structural changes seen in Figure 2, I mainly found aspects of syntax involved, including change in voice from active to passive (diathesis) such as *he wrote the paper* vs. *the paper was written* and clause reordering, where a compound or complex sentence with two clauses reversed the order. An example of this might look like *Marta argued this theory, but the results suggested otherwise* to *Although the results suggested otherwise, Marta argued this*

theory. I also looked for connecting words such as subordinating conjunctions (*although, despite, if, even, because*) and conjunctive adverbs (*however, nevertheless, thus, furthermore*).

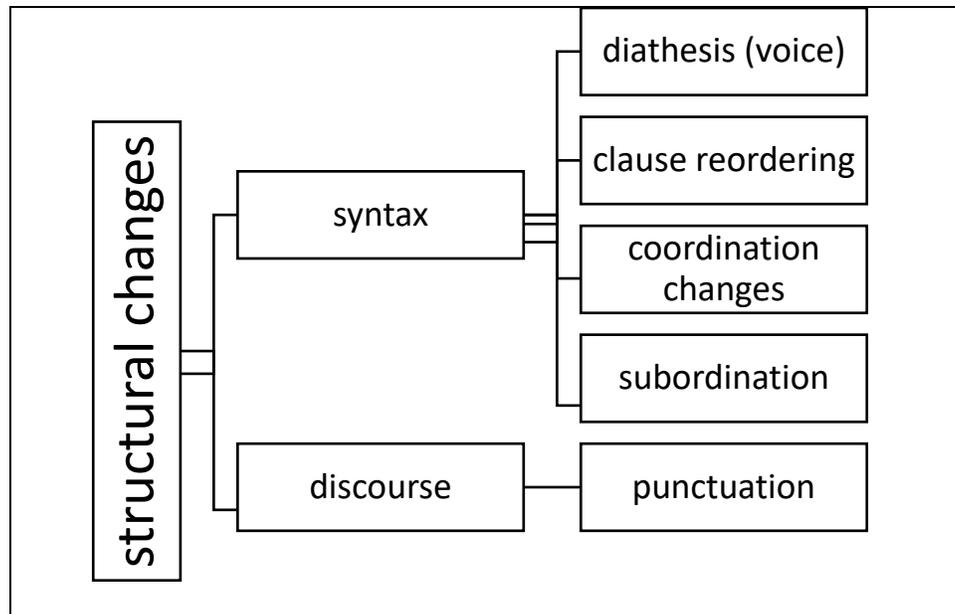


Figure 2

Coordination changes pertains to connecting words, such as use of coordinating conjunctions (*and, but, so*) to change a complex sentence to a compound one or combining simple sentences. For discourse changes, changing a sentence from declarative to interrogative was an option in the typology, but I did not find these features save for a change in punctuation.

After discussing student texts in terms of the typology, I will then discuss how these uses related to student perceptions as well as the argument that paraphrasing involves more than an unevaluated translation (Yamada, 2003). It should also be noted that while I searched the source texts for the closest resemblance of what was paraphrased, some were difficult to pin down because they appeared to be taken from multiple sections of a source. For example, Martin had a sentence with an end of text citation of a 134-page published document on women in the sciences. He wrote,

It is known that if a girl feels it is not appropriate for her to pursue a science degree, due

to gender expectations, this will make her less likely to pursue this field, as well as affecting her performance on tests as a result of her belief of her inability to do well (Hill 22). [Martin, Final Draft, Research Assignment]

Looking at page 22 of the document, I found some aspects that were similar such as discussion of “pursue a science degree” and “gender expectations.” While there was not discussion of tests, I found sections that slightly touched upon this and one that seemed to more than others and there were sections that talked about tests. Since the entire document was an informative pamphlet on women in the sciences, it seemed that Martin’s paraphrase or summary touched upon various aspects of the document, including testing. For me it was certainly true that "the quest for genealogy" was certainly "a highly complex and problematic undertaking" (Thompson & Pennycook, 2008 p. 126). One area to consider is the overlap between a summary and a paraphrase, particularly when there are no indicators that it is specifically one or the other. End of text citations with no quotations are considered paraphrases here, though when relevant I make reference to summaries.

5.2.1 Constellation of changes

The examples of paraphrases represent most of the participants, but not all. This was because some either did not paraphrase (e.g. Patrick and Becky, as seen in Chapter 4) or had paraphrases with verbatim text (and could be considered plagiarized). However, the paraphrasing choices of some of the students are interesting in light of their perceptions of their paraphrasing and language abilities. These choices will be discussed below, where I focus on contradictions between student self-perceptions and actual performance, as well as ways in which paraphrasing involved much more than a translation of text.

Overall, students when paraphrasing utilized a variety of ways to change the source text, including features of words and sentence structure. The example below demonstrates a fairly

close paraphrase that has changes related to wording but not much with structural changes.

Original: **Mildly aggressive** behavior nearly always precedes serious aggression

Paraphrase: **Mildaggression** often escalates to serious aggression if unchecked (Wes)

Changes in lexical features were common in student paraphrases, though changes in the sentence structure and clauses were also employed. Alterations of lexical features will first be discussed, followed by structural changes.

5.2.1.1 Morpholexical patterns: Synonyms and derivational changes

Starting with a straightforward way to paraphrase, students often employed the use of substituting a word for a synonym (same polarity) (1-12) and few antonyms (opposite polarity) (13) as seen in Table 14. Often this included maintaining a phrase or word of the original text, such as *the selected approach* changing to *a particular approach*. As will be discussed in the semantics and added meaning sections, the similarity of the substitution word can be questionable, such as the difference between holding someone liable and making charges against someone. At any rate, students used lexical features to paraphrase original texts, and they were often synonym substitutions.

Another lexical change involved what Vila et. al (2014) call analytic/synthetic changes. An analytic change might involve changing word order or adding particles while a synthetic change might involve inflectional affixes such as the plural *-s*. (14) and (15) show this, and mainly for possessives, though switches in word order (not displayed) were also found. A related lexical feature which I termed addition/subtraction showed paraphrases in which a phrase was

Table 14

<i>Lexical</i>

same polarity (synonym)

1. Educational endeavors → educational pathways (Raquel)
2. stay home from school → avoid school (Wes)
3. the most significant predictors → the most obvious predictors (Claudia)
4. state law typically contains → state law focuses on (Wes)
5. patently unfair → seemingly unfair (Wes)
6. a philosophy → theories (Mara)
7. the selected approach → a particular approach (Mara)
8. Bilingual children → multilingual children (Claudia)
9. accomplish an immediate objective → accomplish a learning objectives (Mara)
10. clearing the confusion → to prevent confusion (Mara)
11. almost 13 hours → an average of 13 hours (Candace)
12. courts have been reluctant to hold school officials liable → courts are reluctant to make charges against teachers (Wes)

opposite (antonym)

13. law so ineffective with regard to → law cannot effectively deal with (Wes)

synthetic/analytic

14. household income → a family's income (*analytic to synthetic*) (Martin)
15. the school principal's commitment → the commitment of the school principals (*synthetic to analytic*) (Wes)

addition

16. by their early 20s → by the time they reach their early 20s (Wes)
17. is minority → is composed of minority students (Raquel)

subtraction

18. Latin American and Caribbean immigrants → Latin American immigrants (Martin)
19. dozens of decisions every day → dozens per day (Wes)

added to or subtracted from mostly without a large change in meaning, as seen in (16) through (19). Note that example (18) seems to change the categorization of immigrants rather than reduce non-meaning changing language.

Beyond lexically based changes, students also paraphrased original texts by altering the morphology of the word or phrases which are mainly addressed as inflectional or derivational, as shown in Table 15. Inflectional changes maintained a word in the same part of speech but changed other aspects such as count (20) tense (21) & (22) and verb form (23). This was sometimes observed, but mostly with Martin's text (all except 23). In fact, Martin's paraphrases sometimes were written verbatim in ways that resembled patchwriting and other times plagiarism, according to length. Some of this may have come from difficulties in manipulating language and a limited repertoire of academic vocabulary, as his writing in general had sections where there were problems with clause combination, sentence boundaries, word choice, and cohesion.

Martin revealed some of these struggles when discussing a passage that he wanted to incorporate into his paper, partially seen in example (34). Martin described himself struggling with wording and not wanting to plagiarize the passage (Interview, 12/7/12). Explaining that it was too hard to paraphrase because it was "really direct...and specific," he said he would use direct quotes (Interview, 12/7/12). His concerns seemed to involve structure, "really direct," and vocabulary, "specific." Nevertheless, Martin ended up paraphrasing the passage by removing subordination and creating a compound sentence. The phrases that remain the same are "not a tautology" and "a diagnosis of," and the sequencing of the propositions are the same. Thus his paraphrase appears to be a mix of his own language with the source, which while described by (Bakhtin, 2981) as normal, falls under the category of inappropriate paraphrasing for some modern writing authorities (e.g. The Purdue Owl). Though he lacked confidence and sometimes wrote unquoted text verbatim, Martin still paraphrased, suggesting the rather complex

Table 15

Morphology

Inflectional (tense, plurals)

singular/plural

20. with college degrees → with a college degree (Martin)

tense

21. completed high school → have completed high school (Martin)

22. held college degrees → hold a college degree (Martin)

verb form

23. reshapes and modifies → to help reshape and modify (Mara)

Derivational

verb to adjective

24. the behavior is repeated → a repeating behavior (Wes)

adjective to noun

25. mildly aggressive behavior → mild aggression (Wes)

adverb to adjective

26. profoundly shaped → a profound impact (Candace)

verb to noun

27. believe → beliefs (Mara)

noun to verb

28. increasing student reporting of bullying → encourage students to report any bullying (Wes)

29. sufficient vocabulary to use with grammar patterns → to pattern new grammar and vocabulary (Mara)

noun serving as an adjective to noun

30. criminal conviction → turn into criminals (Wes)

31. it is incident-specific → focuses on specific incidents (Wes)

modal

32. could have negative implications → can create detrimental effects (Wes)

interactions of literacies, self-perceptions, and paraphrasing.

As for morphological change, the more common was derivational, where the part of speech of the word was changed. As Table 15 illustrates, derivational changes varied, from altering a verb to an adjective (24) an adjective to a noun (25), or a noun to a verb (28) & (29). Some students also took a noun acting as an adjective by modifying another noun and moved it

to a stand-alone noun (30) & (31). Often these morpholexical changes were accompanied by other changes in the original text such as with structural changes.

5.2.1.2 Structural patterns: Clausal changes and reordering

Structural changes in a paraphrase can involve altering the syntax but also changing discursive aspects, such as changing a statement to a question. Most of the structural changes had some sort of syntactic change, and most often involved a change in clause type or re-arrangement of clauses, as illustrated in Table 16. For example, (35) demonstrates a paraphrased sentence which originally had a main clause followed by a dependent clause marked by the subordinating conjunction *while*. However, the syntactic change in the paraphrase was to make the sentence compound by adding the coordinating conjunction *and*, thus making the clause independent. In a similar fashion, sometimes the original text was part of a main clause and the paraphrase changes it to a dependent (subordinating) clause, as in (36). The original text starts a sentence and is an independent clause, whereas the paraphrased text has been transformed into an adverbial clause with the subordinating conjunction *as*. It was attached to a separate clause.

Example (37) offers a somewhat different change, in that a phrase describing what a person was doing changes to describing what a test is and in the process becomes embedded as a subordinate relative clause. The participle phrase *trying to memorize facts, figures, formulae...* modifies *they* (the students) in the original text; in the paraphrase the reference to what is being memorized is still there, with *all of which is based on 'facts, formulae, and vocabulary.'* However, it is now a relative clause not for the students but seemingly to describe *this test*.

More straightforward syntactic changes were also made, such as reordering clauses or sentences. Example (38) demonstrates a movement from discussing criminality after

Table 16

<i>Syntax</i>	
<i>diathesis (voice)</i>	
33.	<i>active to passive</i> physical bullying includes → physical bullying is defined as (Wes)
<i>coordination/conjunction</i>	
34.	Thus, emi is not a tautology; it is a diagnosis of → ...which is described as not a tautology but rather a diagnosis of (Martin)
35.	<i>complex to compound</i> Participation in all levels of education continues to be low, while dropout and retention rates are still high. → The participation of Hispanics in educational attainment continues to be low and drop out rates continue to increase dramatically. (Raquel)
<i>embedding/subordination</i>	
36.	<i>to adverb clause</i> It seems patently unfair to hold a teacher liable.... → ... as it would be seemingly unfair to punish teachers ... (Wes)
37.	<i>to relative clause</i> They have to read piles of books, trying to memorize facts, figures, formulae, science laws and alien vocabulary and doing mountains of exercises almost 13 hours a day, 7 days a week. → Students study for an average of 13 hours a day to prepare for this test, all of which is based on "facts, formulae, and vocabulary" (Candace)
<i>clause reordering</i>	
38.	Other bystanders frequently join in the bullying and begin to view the victims as somehow deserving of the treatment. The bullies themselves have a remarkably high probability of a criminal conviction by the time they reach their early 20s. → Researches show that a high percentage of bullies turn into criminals by their early 20s, and bystanders may feel the same vulnerability and share the same effect on the victims (Weddle, 2003). (Wes)
<i>Discourse</i>	
<i>addition</i>	
39.	perceived as different from their peers → consider " different " among their peers (Wes)

mentioning *bystanders* to talking about criminality before. The structural change is from two orthographic sentences, which are independent clauses, to a compound sentence with the conjunction *and*.

In consideration of the changes made in (38) and Bakhtinian theory (1981) on the multiple meanings of words, response in communication, and transformation in paraphrasing, many of these paraphrases appear to involve changes in meaning. Sometimes there appears to be a relatively similar semantic difference and other times there is addition of information, which Yamada (2003) described model paraphrases as including. Indeed, Vila et al. (2014) discuss the issue of whether or not a paraphrase can completely equate to the original meaning without adding, changing or subtracting information; their conclusion is an overall "no."

5.1.1.3 Semantic consistencies and differences

Because of the assumption that paraphrases will always involve a transformation of some sort, it is important to not just analyze the amount of "correctness" or similarity of language but also how the paraphraser at once transforms the paraphrased text and weaves it into his/her own text. In the following, I finish with the last section of the paraphrase typology, semantic, and from there discuss a few cases of paraphrasing that appears to involve inferred meaning (Yamada, 2003), which can be intimidating for some students (Hirvela & Du, 2013).

In their typology and analyses of paraphrases, Vila et al. (2014) and Barron-Cedeno et al., (2013) focus mainly on morpholexical and structural features. Semantics is a single feature and is not discussed much, perhaps because it is due to similarities with the other categories and the difficulties they might pose with computational analyses. At any rate, they define semantic paraphrases as "those that involve a different lexicalization of the same content units" (Barron-Cedeno et al., 2013, p. 9). I interpret this to mean that the meaning remains mostly constant but

the words used to realize it change. The difference between this and a lexical change may be that a semantic change involves several words in a phrase, though the two appear fairly similar.

Table 17 provides some examples. For example, the original text in (42) pertains to the loss or destruction of things and the paraphrased text refers to partially destroyed things. Besides the *loss* aspect, the meaning is comparably the same, but realized in different lexical forms such that the individual list of items is summed up into a short phrase *personal properties*. In the context of the entire text, it is clear that the materials listed in the original are in fact objects belonging to people.

Table 17

<i>semantic</i>
40. biggest operational problem → biggest barrier to success (Candace)
41. behavior is exemplary in three domains → balanced set of skills (Candace)
42. lost or destroyed clothing, books, electronics or jewelry → damaged personal properties (Wes)
43. dropout and retention rates are still high → drop out rates continue to increase dramatically (Raquel)
44. could have negative implications → can create detrimental effects (Raquel)
45. Other bystanders frequently join in the bullying and begin to view the victims as somehow deserving of the treatment. → Bystanders may feel the same vulnerability and share the same effect on the victims (Wes)
46. The bullies themselves have a remarkably high probability of a criminal conviction by the time they reach their early 20s. → Researches show that a high percentage of bullies turn into criminals by their early 20s (Wes)

Examples (40) and (41) demonstrate a change that within the context of the paraphrased text makes sense. The *operational problem* references the setbacks companies face, or their *barriers to success*. The three domains of (41) are described as characteristics people should

have and could be considered a *set of skills*. Beyond being a synonym word substitution, different words and phrases altogether are used but the meanings are more or less the same.

However, categorizing paraphrases as semantic or not remains difficult, and examples (43) and (44) show the ambiguity and grey areas for changing the meaning of an original text by adding an evaluation of it, such as intensifying it or re-framing the subjects of the content. In (44), the original does not go as far to say that there are causal relations nor does it talk about damaging aspects; rather, it discusses aspects as *negative*, making it less assertive than the paraphrased text.

In (46), the bullies are discussed as people who get a conviction of a certain type but are not labeled criminals, as in the paraphrased text. With this problematic categorization of paraphrasing and nature of defining what is "the same," calling upon students to "paraphrase" effectively calls upon students to participate in fairly complex interactions with language, interpretation, and meaning. Efforts to "stay true" to a source also prove to be challenging

5.2.2 Inferred meaning, added meaning: Beyond a close paraphrase

When using theory that frames language in dialogic voicing, paraphrases are expected to have nuanced differences in meaning, making semantic analyses difficult. A word itself is multiply owned and understood; it references a variety of dialogues that have employed it. Given this variance in meaning, the intertextual differences of a synonym are just as varied, belonging to their own set of social contexts, disciplines, genres and registers, in the case of academic writing. Barron-Cedeno et al (2013) also note that there is no such thing as a direct paraphrase or true semantic equal. Adding to that is the argument that language is always evaluative, taking a stance on one viewpoint or another (Martin & White, 2005).

Understanding language from this framework, the semantic changes made in the previous

section should not be considered necessarily deceptive or inappropriately paraphrased. Although there are laws that designate ownership of what is written, how a reader responds to a text and appropriates its meanings and words cannot be completely controlled. Wes' description of the bullies as "criminals" rather than people who have been criminally convicted displays a part of this process.

Paraphrases involve more than a change in wording and may be a place where inference and critical thinking are done, again a proposed valued characteristic of paraphrases in academia (Yamada, 2003). Student paraphrases did at times involve adding information and mentioning "common knowledge" or inferences, including evaluation related to their argument.

The following examples illustrate paraphrasing that involves more than a reformulation of words and are similar to examples in Yamada (2003), the Purdue Owl ("Paraphrase Exercise: Possible Answers," n.d.) as well as the university's exemplary paraphrase¹⁶. One of those features is evaluation of the paraphrase, which may come from integrating the source author or making an inference of another kind. An example of how a paraphrase has added information from inference is shown in (1), with "Mishra (2010:172) sides with him."

(1) Original:

One of the challenges before a teacher of grammar is to make the teaching meaningful and relevant to the needs of the learners by contextualizing it using examples derived from the socio-cultural situations of the learners....A data based on the current form and

¹⁶ UC Davis' example of an appropriate paraphrase involves the inference that a totalitarian society will "suppress literature" because it does not allow for "truthful recording of facts." It also assumes that free speech ("free expression") is involved in "the truthful recording of facts":

Original: "[A totalitarian] society ... can never permit either the truthful recording of facts, or the emotional sincerity, that literary creation demands. ... Totalitarianism demands ... the continuous alteration of the past, and in the long run ... a disbelief in the very existence of objective truth.' 3"

Paraphrase: "Orwell believed that totalitarian societies must suppress literature and free expression because they cannot survive the truth, and thus they claim it does not exist. (Bowker) pp. 336-337"

socio-cultural situations will interest the learners rather than the archaic and obsolete data borrowed from the old writers.

Paraphrase:

Mishra (2010: 172) sides with him, arguing that traditional methods fall short of addressing many **socio-cultural situations** of the learners. (Mara)

The evaluation is based on logical thinking that two people with congruent opinions would *side* with each other. For Wes, this came with his paraphrase of some circumstances involving teachers, courts and prosecution (2). The original text spans a couple sentences and has conflicting propositions. Wes appears to recognize these opposing ideas when he reconciles them in his paraphrase with *even when*, which signals to the reader the truth of a statement despite contrary ideas.

(2) Original:

It is not difficult, of course, to understand why courts have been reluctant to **hold school officials liable** for ordinary negligence when bullying or violence injures students. The typical teacher makes dozens of decisions every day about how and whether to respond to various levels of student misbehavior. **It seems patently unfair to hold a teacher liable for a single decision** that would not have harmed a student were it not for the intentional act of another.

Paraphrase:

Even when school staffs are taken to courts **to question** about their responsibility, **most of the time courts are** reluctant to make charges against teachers **as** it would be seemingly unfair to punish teachers that made one wrong decision on dealing with students' misbehavior as they make dozens per day (Weddle, 2003) (Wes)

Another example of a paraphrase that draws conclusions based on the information in the original text is with (3). The description of Pettis' action indicates that Mara has made an assessment of the paraphrase as well, and has inferred that to *periodically assess* is a part of *ongoing professional growth*. Further added information is the reference to *skillset*, which is a repeated key word of the article.

(3) Original:

as educators we must make a personal commitment to our own **ongoing professional growth...**

Paraphrase:

This is congruent to how Pettis (1997:394) advocates that teachers uphold a **commitment to** professional development and **periodically assess** their own knowledge and **skillset** of the field of L2 teaching. (Mara)

In other instances, the paraphrases seemed to change in meaning from the paraphrase but not necessarily due to an evaluation. Rather they changed due to re-framing or assuming information to be true and drawing conclusions. For example in a sentence by Wes (4), the original text explains a correlation between two events—mild aggression and serious aggression— where one precedes the other. However, in the paraphrased text, there is the added clause of *if unchecked* which draws a conclusion that one event can be stopped before the other occurs. While the idea of a sequence of events remains, the paraphrase highlights additional information that is most likely true.

(4) Original:

Mildly aggressive behavior nearly always precedes serious aggression.

Paraphrase:

Mild aggression often escalates to serious aggression **if unchecked** (Weddle, 2003). (Wes)

(5) Original:

Since the mid-1980s, it has been generally accepted that it is the relationship between **socioeconomic status**, ethnicity, culture, and the delivery of therapeutic services that accounts for increased dropout rates by low-income **Latino** clients

Paraphrase: The need to understand the **Hispanic** background, **cultural barriers, language**, and **socio-economic status** is a must when working with Hispanics (Schwarzbaum, 2004). (Raquel)

(6) Original:

I would like to suggest that viable current approaches to language teaching are "principled", in that there is perhaps a finite number of general research-based principles on which classroom practice is grounded. [and then has a list, which includes **meaningful learning, motivation and self-confidence**]...as **teachers and teacher trainees** develop and carry out classroom techniques, **they** can benefit by grounding everything they do in well-established principles of language learning and teaching.

Paraphrase:

Principles that underlie classroom activities, suggests Brown (1997:12), should be woven into approaches and pedagogy to bolster strategies so that **students** can benefit from **meaning learning, develop motivation, and gain self-confidence** in their learning and in their L2. (Mara)

A similar conclusion can be made about Raquel's statement (5), where a reference to ethnicity and culture expands to include discussion of cultural barriers and also language. While the original text may have agreed that barriers existed, it does not state this, nor does it necessarily include bilingualism as a factor for *low-income Latino clients*. However, that distinction has been made in the paraphrase, and it seems a probable assumption for first or second generation Americans. Nevertheless, the original text does not reference this. Another reframing is seen in (6) where there is a discussion of who benefits from particular changes in teaching practices. In the original text, teachers are described as the ones receiving the benefits whereas in the paraphrase it is the students who benefit from such changes. As with the other examples, the assumption being made in the paraphrase seems probable, as an entire class would receive positive outcomes from particular approaches to learning.

These examples highlight a few points about paraphrasing. For one, they support Yamada's (2003) claim that the type of paraphrasing required in academic settings are not direct translations, so to speak. Rather, they are responsive because they include elements of inference and analysis from the authorial voice. Not only do paraphrases involve linguistic manipulation,

they also involve critique of the propositions in the source text. Another point that these examples from Mara, Raquel, and Wes highlight is student academic literacies and linguistic skills. While Mara and Raquel were never considered ESL and were fairly confident in their writing, Wes at times appeared unsure of his linguistic abilities and his writing at times had grammatical issues concerning word choice and sentence structure, as well as smaller concerns such as subject verb agreement and pluralization. Indeed, my analysis of proficiencies in Chapter 3 showed Mara and Raquel to be skilled in their use of academic vocabulary and writing, whereas Wes was mostly proficient but had some grammar issues as well as a lower usage of academic vocabulary. However, Wes' paraphrases consisted of many morphological and syntactic changes as well as "extra" information drawn from inferences made about the arguments similar to Mara and Raquel.

Other student texts display paraphrases that tend to add not only inferences but also additional meaning. They are similar to the previous examples but appear to be framed so that they are more congruent with the student's argument. For example, (7) is a paraphrase of a text that talks about the history of the Chinese entrance exam. The original text discusses its long-term existence and impact that it has had on schooling. The paraphrase, which is actually a combination of paraphrase and quotation, is ambiguous as to what is being paraphrased. Since there is a quotation accompanied by a page number in the end of text citation, it may appear that this sentence just quotes from the cited source. Considering the paraphrases being made, the student writer's text seems to add information that could be understood as a paraphrase. In particular, the independent clause (the first clause) discusses the entrance exam as *stringent* as well as China's *dependence* on tests. This information is not stated in the original text and seems to be information added by Candace in order to support her argument against the test-taking

system in China. Looking at the paraphrase again, it could be that the dependent clause (second clause) starting with *which* is in fact the paraphrase and quotation of the original text. However, its attachment to the main clause leaves room for readers to interpret the paraphrase as including the entire sentence, which means Candace's and the source authors' ideas are not clearly distinguished. At the least, with (7) being considered as a paraphrase, there is quite a bit of added meaning.

(7) Original:

With a history of more than a thousand years, testing has consistently and **profoundly shaped Chinese education in respect to its content, function, mission and value.**

Paraphrase:

Perhaps the most stringent and representative example of China's test-taking dependence is the Gao Kao, or College Entrance Examination (CEE), **which has had a profound impact in shaping Chinese education and its "content, function, mission and value"** (Harris, Zhao & Caldwell, 2009, p. 415). (Candace)

Though varied, the discussed paraphrases all make changes to the original texts in ways congruent to how Yamada (2003) defines exemplary paraphrases as going beyond a close translation to making inferences. Some students did this in ways that demonstrated their synthesis of information as well as cohesion. They also ensured a paraphrase supported the arguments they were making. The students in Keck's (2010) classes might have viewed these paraphrases as inappropriate because they include additional information, since they preferred close paraphrases that could be considered plagiarism. Their preference stemmed from believing that paraphrases should not add meaning and should be just a translation of the original text, which appears to be a normal characterization of paraphrasing, such as in Annette's class.

5.2.3 I guess you're always paraphrasing: Candace and appropriation of ideas and language

As discussed in the introduction, Candace seemed to question the finiteness of

paraphrasing and citation when stating that everything is a paraphrase while in school. I will now give a more extended analysis of Candace because of her unique approach to paraphrasing and also her strong concerns about plagiarism (more so than the other participants). Candace's way of incorporating sources might be considered a quotation (Jamieson et al., n.d.) or an example of paraphrasing and quoting in one (Hu & Wang, 2014). This is because Candace often just had a phrase of two or three words quoted.

In addition, Candace explained to me that she did not paraphrase her sources and that she had "kind of forgotten how to do that" (Interview, 11/27/12). However, Candace appears to have used the technique of quoting and paraphrasing a source at once. In the two examples given, short noun phrases from the source passage are quoted and the sentence order remains roughly the same. The lack of page number is notable, as it could suggest this is a paraphrase with some highlighted key terms.

For the first example, there are two identical phrases, one of which is in quotation marks, and the initial phrase and clause of the source text changes from *U.S.-owned enterprises to overseas countries in Shanghai* to *in China* and *37 percent of the companies that responded to roughly report*. Sentence structure has been changed, such as moving "*finding talent*" from a subject position in the reporting noun clause to an object of the main clause. While there are some issues with continuity of meaning, such as the change from U.S. to international companies, Candace's sentence looks like a paraphrase as well as some evaluated inferences, like making the assumption that an *operational problem* more closely means issues with profit and success.

(1) Original:

According to a recent survey of **U.S.-owned** enterprises conducted by the American Chamber of Commerce **in Shanghai**, 37 percent of the companies that **responded** said

that finding talent was their **biggest operational problem**.

Paraphrase/Quotation:

Many **overseas countries** stationed in China **report** "finding talent" as their biggest **barrier to success** (Zhao, 2010).

(2) Original:

There has been much criticism of China's GaoKao**system** - its emphasis on rote-learning and its strangling of children's creativity.

Paraphrase/Quotation:

The fundamental problem with the **exam** is its "emphasis on rote learning" and "strangling of children's creativity" (Liu, 2012).

The second example demonstrates as well a combination of paraphrase and quotation occurring in a sentence with an end of text citation. The main clause of the source text is changed from *much criticism* to *fundamental problem* and *GaoKao system* to *the exam*. In the context of the article, the source author sides with these descriptions. However, given that Candace was also arguing against the entrance exam, the initial unquoted text could be a combination of a paraphrase with her own evaluation on the subject.

Despite Candace's reported reluctance and inability to paraphrase, she appears to be doing so throughout her paper; part of this appears to stem from a lack of understanding on what a paraphrase is. In other words, it does not seem to be an issue of linguistic skills. Her lack of understanding could at times be considered transgressive intertextuality, because she noted not citing anything unless it has a direct quote, which theoretically would include paraphrases and summaries (Interview, 11/27/12). After mentioning that she did not know how "to do the like paraphrase thing," I briefly described how she could write something like "Barry 2005 talks about..." and then paraphrase (Interview, 11/27/12). She responded with "ooh, ok" and it seemed that information was new to her, and perhaps she was not clear how to reference a source

author within a sentence. When I asked again about her practices, she gave a response that suggested struggling with issues of paraphrasing, learning and knowledge:

I just ended up using quotes. I just felt like the paraphrasing maybe it was like *confusing* to me, so I didn't really want to use it in my writing because *I was scared*— I thought I would use it wrong or I would plagiarize, so *I just decided to avoid it altogether*. And then, that just kind of evolved into just using direct quotes in my writing. But I mean like—*I guess you're like always paraphrasing* kind of, somewhat. Like whatever you learn in class and we discuss in an essay ideas and concepts like that. I dunno, *I always thought of that as paraphrasing*. So *I don't really know like whether to cite that or not*. Because I feel like if you did, like *your entire paragraph would be like cited*.

(Candace, Interview, 11/27/12)

One theme that emerges from her response is the amount of concern she has over plagiarism, so much so that it drives her to avoid engaging in an important activity in academia (though again she actually did paraphrase). At the same time, Candace seems to be questioning the practice of paraphrasing when she noted that "you're always paraphrasing" such that citing each paraphrase would result in "your entire paragraph" being cited addresses fundamental concerns some students might have regarding what ideas are their own and which are not. It also relates to (not) knowing the appropriate ways of indicating a double-voicedness of course/instructor and the student within a written text. A paraphrased text appears to be half one's own and half another's (Bakhtin, 1981) and in classroom settings, students are learning new concepts and associated language, but at what point a concept or word becomes "known" —or owned remains unclear.

Moreover, paraphrasing can be considered a response to ideas, course concepts or research findings and may be where "understanding comes to fruition" because "understanding and response are dialectically merged and mutually condition each other; one is impossible without the other" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 282). Despite her misunderstandings and concerns,

Candace seemed to follow her own idea that "you're always paraphrasing," even when quotations are present. Considering her desire to attend graduate school after working for a while, Candace's practices for source incorporation would need to be addressed, partially so she is not driven by the fear of plagiarizing but rather by the utility of paraphrasing.

5.3 Conclusion: Paraphrasing as "the biggest challenge and constraint"

For the instructors and students of the study, paraphrasing involved a variety of meanings and activities and appeared to be understood and used differently at times. First, in a typical sense it is presented as one of three ways to incorporate a text and is often discussed in close relation to plagiarizing and patchwriting, with instructors and some students being concerned about plagiarizing and the need to avoid it. At the same time, it is also framed as the preferred way to incorporate a text because it helps writers maintain control of their text and it demonstrates a level of critical thinking and work. This is in contrast to quoting, which could "overtake" a text and not require much "work" or thinking. Definitions of paraphrasing stem from the proposed benefits of paraphrasing, control, and critical thinking.

In this sense, paraphrasing involves response and struggle (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986) with ideas and language of others, in the process of making words one's own. Furthermore, response and understanding are one and the same, and engaging outside sources involves not only creating opinion but also language. "Production" of these requires work and effort. Effective paraphrases demonstrate more than critical thinking or maintenance of voice because they entail a certain amount of labor-intensive background activity, including modifying and transforming language. In addition, some refer to the idea that a paraphrase involves not just changing words or switching around sentences via copy and paste; also it should not add meaning to a text but should transform sentence structure and words. This creates a paradox for paraphrasing, in that

the text remains the same, but is nevertheless different.

As for student paraphrases, those who paraphrased used a variety of linguistic forms to change the source text, similar to Keck's (2010) study. These forms could be considered at times close paraphrases while at others ones that added meaning. Students used synonyms to change words and also deleted some wording when paraphrasing, a practice similar to patchwriting, which could be considered plagiarism (Vila et al., 2014). But they also did a number of derivational changes and re-structuring of sentences and clauses accordingly. Sentences were re-ordered, clauses were embedded, and connecting words were used to change around sentence type. While many paraphrased texts appeared to maintain the meaning of the original text, some also made inferences about given, unstated information in the original text. They used knowledge of the topic and logic to make conclusions that the source author did not make but could have. This supports Yamada's (2003) finding that ideal paraphrases are not just close translations but involve making inferences and adding information. Beyond that, sometimes students seemed to be adding more than that, such as their own evaluations and how the paraphrased source fit into their argument.

Analysis of the text with such a typology brings into question definitions of plagiarism, and what features are considered transgressive or not, and for whom and when. While some researchers rely on ratios of verbatim strings of text (Jamieson et al., n.d.), others make sure to discount phrases or words that are used multiple times in a source text (Keck, 2006). However, it is not clear how grammatical changes such as derivations and embedding factor into perceived plagiarism (Keck, 2010). This question becomes particularly pressing when considering the research coming from corpus linguistics. Given that there are lexical bundles (Biber et al., 2004) and also phrases preferred in certain genres of writing (Cao & Hu, 2014; Cortes, 2004; Pérez-

Llantada, 2014), there is a legitimate question of whether or not a student should be discouraged from appropriating such common language.

Asking students in writing assignments to paraphrase a source involves much more than a re-phrasing and re-wording of a text. Paraphrasing claims its place in a variety of discussions, including issues of formulaic language and common knowledge, origination and negotiation of ideas, ownership of a text, and language and writing development. The drafts of texts in which students are appropriating academic language and style as well as retelling an idea may look like patchwriting in that various voices have been stitched together. It seems clear that a paraphrase is a “considerably more complex and dynamic organism than it appears when construed simply as a thing that articulates the intention of the person uttering it,” and should therefore not be considered a “direct, single-voiced vehicle for expression” (Bakhtin, 1981, pp. 354-355).

Concerns regarding unintentional plagiarizing, patchwriting, and paraphrasing focus on where in a text there is a clear demarcation of the self and other, or the authorial voice and source author, respectively. The challenge comes from understanding paraphrasing and source incorporation to involve a “blend” of voices (Campbell, 1998, as cited in Hirvela & Du, 2013) and an integration of voices (Paula, Interview, 4/3/13; Paula, Observation, 1/31/13; Annette, Observation, 11/28/12; Denise, Observation, 10/16/12). Moreover, the double-voiced nature of a paraphrase and the overlap of voices in the process of language appropriation (Bakhtin, 1981) may render the feasibility of the search for such a line questionable. Citations and quotations help mark such a distinction, though these typically mark the source author, not the authorial voice. This was an issue that arose for some students when they tried to indicate their own ideas. That is, since the ideas of others are typically referenced via citation, it would appear that the lack of quotations indicates that the words and ideas of a text are those of the authorial voice, not

the source authors. As discussed in Chapter 4, this ambiguity may become more explicit in paraphrases, as there is a lack of quotation marks to indicate speaker.

Incorporating outside sources remains a challenge due to its complex nature and factors. One of these is the *how* of incorporation and the idea that there are three options to choose from: summary, paraphrase, and quoting. Each involves its own challenges, including the crossover of summary and paraphrase at times. In addition, despite its typically concise definitions, paraphrasing is a difficult endeavor, as the instructor Denise observed regarding incorporating sources: "I think paraphrasing and knowing how to is the biggest challenges and constraints" (Interview, 4/10/13). As it turns out, identifying an appropriate from inappropriate paraphrase remains challenging, and its utility varies according to task, genre, and person.

Chapter 6: Heteroglossia, constraint agency, and researching the self

6.1 Introduction: Incorporating student experiences in research assignments

"The heteroglossic perspective emphasizes the role of language in *positioning speakers* and their *texts* within the heterogeneity of *social positions* and *world views* which operate in *any* culture."
(White, from "Engagement- a Bakhtinian perspective," 2012, para. 5)

In discussing Appraisal Theory (see Chapter 4), White describes an integral component of textual analysis that considers the social factors involved in speech, because of its layered meaning, such as word choice (e.g. illegal immigrants vs undocumented workers, discussed in Section 2.6). There are a number of ways to analyze discourse, and using a heteroglossic framework assumes that language is also always embedded in social contexts, meaning it has multiple interpretations and references, such that "no utterance is an island" ("Engagement- a Bakhtinian perspective," 2012, para. 4). As seen in Chapters 4 and 5, the focal participants' past experiences and perspectives interacted with the ways they used their sources, such as the type of

citation skills learned in writing classes and attitudes on the writing assignments for the course. The chapters also showed how social interactions affected drafting processes, such as with Wes in Chapter 4; participant background knowledge and positioning factored into how the students paraphrased, as seen with Candace in Chapter 5. In other words, people's language and writing practices are always embedded in particular but heterogeneous social spheres.

Because people carry their lived experiences into a conversation, all response and interactions involve a meeting of stances, world views, and realities. In relation to the use of outside sources, it may be important to consider how dialogic voicing and heteroglossia

address those *alternative realities* as expressed in *previous texts* and as they are expected to be realized in *future texts*. As a consequence, every *meaning* within a text occurs in a *social context* where a number of *alternative* or *contrary meanings* could have been made... ("Engagement- a Bakhtinian perspective," 2012, para. 5, italics added)

To illustrate, if a college student who is part of student-run organizations discusses reports about student-organizations, this person can both be speaking of his/her experiences and the findings of the report. Though there is a single utterance, multiple voices and references exist. This chapter seeks to explore in finer detail via two case studies how students negotiate their past experiences, social contexts and language while drafting a research-based text. Specifically, it looks at the spaces where personal experience and research meet and how one piece of writing can index multiple contexts.

Undergraduates in upper division courses are often expected to develop their interests through research related to the course. In the writing class for future educators, students were encouraged to approach assignments with personal interest and questions in mind. Agency and voice become integral with such classes and students often researched an issue in education

that they found personally engaging, from their studies, internships, or personal lives. They often approached their research project and incorporated their histories in ways that created a space for agency and authority. For two students, Martin and Raquel, this was particularly salient in their writing, and their educational experiences appeared to interact with the ways in which they approached writing and the writing process. This chapter seeks to address how Martin and Raquel's narratives of agency in schooling paralleled their approaches to writing; it also looks at how they were able to incorporate their lives into a research assignment and propose a change that would have benefited them in the past, which is something rather unique to the two of them.

In order to address the question of how participants draw upon past experiences when performing research based writing activities, I focus on two aspects relating to the two focal participants. First, the research question focuses not only on heteroglossia, but also the choices students make when writing and how they might incorporate their lives (or not) into their writing. This involves the types of activities Martin and Raquel participated in when drafting their texts, as they were able to exercise agency in the contexts of the writing assignment and overall academic setting. Addressed in section 6.2, I draw upon theories of agency and how students can demonstrate such determination (agency) despite limiting circumstances (constraints), labeled constraint agency (Varghese, 2012). To understand this, I look at how Martin and Raquel narrate their educational and writing experiences and how this might interact with their writing.

Second, in Sections 6.3 and 6.4, I look at the drafting processes of Martin and Raquel, considering how their narratives are expressed while researching and writing about a topic in education personally relevant to them. During this analysis, I consider aspects of heteroglossia and dialogic voicing, and continue exploring how they enact agency and reveal identities;

I address how Raquel and Martin's research texts described a broader "issue in education" while also illustrating their lived experiences. Because focusing on constraint agency narratives and heteroglossia in texts addresses issues of voice, background, and literacy, the three sections are separate but also related to each other.

I chose to look at Martin and Raquel first and foremost because initial coding and analyses revealed strong connections for these students between their past experiences and their writing assignment on an issue in education. In addition, though they both come from Latin@ families of similar working class SES (socio-economic status), Martin and Raquel had different perspectives on the role of their culture in their academic life. Besides cultural background, Martin and Raquel had different views of the writing course itself and writing in general. Thus they served as interesting comparisons in considerations of cultural and educational experiences.

Moreover, Martin and Raquel come from an underrepresented group of students in the university, Latinos, which includes Mexican-Americans (See Chapter 3, Section 3.2.1). For education, considering 2013-2014 school year statistics, while California k-12 system is comprised of over 50% Latinos ("Fingertip facts on education in California," n.d.), this proportion is not represented in higher education, specifically UC Davis, whose undergraduate population is 18% Latino ("UC Davis profile," 2014). Their presence continues to drop off, with only 10% of the graduate students coming from Latino backgrounds ("Data reports," n.d.).

Understanding their narratives and writing practices might help in knowing success strategies that some students may employ in order to graduate from college, after making it there (Harklau, McClanahan, & Mendez, 2012). Thus while trying not to essentialize, Section 6.2 focuses on understanding the success narratives of two individuals who come from backgrounds with relatively limited amounts of the economic and symbolic capital needed to not only enter

but also remain in higher education.

However, in many ways the experiences described in the Sections 6.3 and 6.4 could be characteristic of many undergraduate students regardless of background. In particular, attitudes on writing (e.g. being disengaged from a writing class) and performing difficult literacy skills (e.g. incorporating personal experience in academic settings) pertain to many student writers. For example, as discussed in Chapter 4, Mara struggled with weaving in her own opinion while discussing outside sources, despite her higher levels of proficiency as a writer. In an act that demonstrates the heteroglossic nature of any text, the analyses below serve to at once give a detailed view of two students from a particular background while also speaking to general struggles of undergraduate writers,

6.2 Constraint agency narratives and symbolic capital: Diverging paths to success in college

Raquel and Martin both focused on issues in education that affected their performance in school, or lack thereof, particularly the importance of mentorship, and tracking and student background, respectively. They discussed their struggles as related to cultural, social, and economic capital (Bourdieu, 1991) and the need for the educational system to address the lack of available capital for some Latino students. Though they had different topics and solutions, Martin and Raquel demonstrated in their research assignment that they were aware of the barriers set by lack of real and symbolic capital. They also discussed viable solutions to help students like them enter into university; both were confident their experiences counted as legitimate evidence to support their arguments, which showed a sense of identity and agency. However, Raquel and Martin relied on opposite means of support to navigate through school; while Martin relied on his own means and willpower, Raquel relied on mentors and other social supports. These

practices were echoed in the ways they approached feedback and the writing process.

Martin and Raquel often lacked the economic, cultural, and social capital needed during k-12 to prepare them for university. This includes being low income (lack of real economic capital), not completing AP or Honors classes (academic capital), receiving cultural messages that emphasized work and family commitments (cultural capital), and not having family members who attended college (social capital). While Raquel reported having liked school at times and having had some good teachers, her high school education overall was limited and inadequate. Furthermore, while encouraged to enroll in AP classes, she was reticent of the course load since she also worked, a fact that she later regretted. Her mother encouraged her to go to school, which is markedly different than how Raquel characterized Latino families and the pressure for girls to drop out of high school to take care of family members. It is unclear how her father viewed her educational endeavors, but lack of discussion of his disapproval suggests that he was at least fine with it. The slightly contradicting narrative here reflects problems that can come about when trying to essentialize a person or group of people.

Notably, at the university Raquel seemed to enjoy her classes, research, and helping others through her work. She also took the initiative to help her ailing father by researching potential conditions and seeking advice from her professors. Although never tracked as an English Language (EL) learner, Raquel spent the first few years of k-12 in a Spanish medium classroom before transitioning into English medium classes with bilingual teachers; however, Raquel felt this experience put her at a disadvantage for school and made her fall behind.

Martin was tracked as an English Learner in elementary school through high school, even though he discussed not perceiving himself as one (Interview, 12/7/12). He failed the 5th grade and reported spending most of his middle and high school years not paying attention and

sleeping in class. When he was enrolled in the honors and college-bound classes such as advanced Math and English, he was ridiculed by his peers and felt he did not fit in. Because of that, he dropped those courses and enrolled in basic classes, such as a two week accounting class his senior year which counted for math but which "gave them all the answers."

Once at the university, Martin and Raquel struggled to maintain a minimum GPA (Grade Point Average) and were placed on academic probation. Raquel was dismissed the end of her freshman year but attended a community college for a year, where she was able to raise her GPA and return to the university. Martin was dismissed permanently from the university in mid-2013, after the study had taken place. Interestingly, both told me that they had to change their majors to Sociology after failing to perform in their courses, at the behest of a "dean." Such a process may have involved more than one dean's office, but they did not describe this process much more and I did not inquire into the details. Martin explained that sociology was seen as generally easier than chemistry or another hard science. In general, both reported feeling "stupid" during school; for Martin, it was since elementary school but for Raquel it began as a freshman in high school.

Martin discussed his desire to prove that he was *not* stupid and both discussed their realization that it was not a matter of intelligence; rather, they were underprepared for university and received a poor education due to issues of access, as well as economic and cultural capital. Until middle school, Martin lived with his father and three siblings in a one room house and since his dad worked at a landfill early in the morning, he required the lights to be turned off in the house at 8 pm, thus making it difficult for Martin to do his homework. As a result, he performed poorly at school and developed an attitude of "I don't like school" (Interview, 11/20/12). Raquel realized after enrolling at the university that the aspirations and capabilities of the students at her high school were very low and that she was not given fair access or

preparation for college (Interview, 4/24/13). After, the paths by which they continued through university diverged, mainly in terms of social support and capital.

6.2.1 Martin: Individualism, boot-strapping, and rejection of culture

“Because they're like 'the system puts you down'
but it's more like '*your self puts you down.*'”
—Martin

In his school success narrative, Martin attributed his own personal agency as the driving force in his success through college. He adopted the bootstrapping mentality, which contrasted with how he characterized himself before entering university. Notably, Martin tended to focus on the actions of the individual, not the institution. Indeed, when talking about why other transfer students he knew dropped out or why his peers did not enroll in college, he explains that it is because they are "lazy" and don't want to work hard (Interview, 11/6/12). Martin did not involve himself in social groups or activities designed to help students through school, such as the academic success center at the university or the MESA (Math Education Science Achievement) program in high school even though he had the opportunity to. His reasoning for this is that "men are scared" (Interview, 11/20/12) and that they don't want to seem weak by seeking out help from others.

Some of this individualistic ideology could have stemmed from how he saw his father progress over the years at his job at a landfill. Though he started picking up stray trash and received a limited education in Mexico, he is now a manager. When discussing his father's work ethic, Martin described his father as working hard and putting in long hours. Likewise, Martin discussed his study habits of reading the entire textbook and staying up until the early morning studying for tests. Martin perceived himself as overcoming limitations in some of his classes and

he seemed to view his father's work ethic as a model for success and upward mobility, which I believe references cultural capital.

Emphasis on individual abilities and individuation was also observed in Martin's differentiation between himself and his perceptions of Latino culture. Martin discussed rejection of Hispanic culture from his town when discussing the way in which he changed his social circle, speech and dress and his dislike of Latino organizations. He had a marked shift away from his former identity as someone who hung out with gang members and dressed similarly as one. Martin also changed the way he spoke, such as he stopped using the word “foo”¹⁷ when addressing others, such as “what's up foo?,” because “you can't talk to a professor like that” (Interview, 11/6/12).

Furthermore, though bilingual, Martin rarely brought up the fact that he spoke Spanish, and even less so as an advantage. His one discussion of speaking Spanish was when he discussed a Spanish class he took at the university and the negative experiences he had. He felt the class highlighted the idea that he did not speak “real” Spanish because the Spanish he learned from his father was that of the uneducated and low social class. Martin also recognized that the way he dressed wasn't acceptable for higher education and he discussed how the “white students” in his honors classes in high school would call him a “cholo” (See Section 3.4.2) and tease him because of this clothing. Martin recognized in effect the cultural capital of dress and ways of speaking at the university and adopted these types of capital in order to succeed and fit in.

Another example of his identity shift was seen in his rejection of being associated with a latin@ (latino and latina) group on campus, MEChA (Movimiento Estudiantil Chicano de Aztlán,

¹⁷Shenk (2007) analyzed this word with Latino youth and defines “foo(l)” as originating from the word “fool” and being used between friends such as “dude or man” and that the deletion of the pronunciation of [l] comes from African American English (p. 202).

"Chican@ Student Movement of Aztlan"), a "student organization that promotes higher education, cultura, and historia" ("About us," n.d., para. 1), can be typically understood as a student group that works towards equality and representation for latin@s and Chican@s at the university. Martin attended one meeting of MEChA, but was turned off by them, explaining "I joined MEChA for a day but I didn't like it. I didn't like their views" (Interview, 11/6/12). When I asked what they were like, he discussed how they had "skewed views" and were "against everything...they blame everything" (Interview, 11/6/12). During that session, Martin and I came back to talking about MEChA a couple other times, and we spent some time talking about his views and his community. He spoke about being from a single family of five and 50 cents being "too much" money for his father, a fact that contrasted with other Mexican Americans he saw who had more economic capital but did much less with themselves, not wanting to work.

Martin rejects perceived notions of victimization and seems to dismiss the "constraint" part of constraint agency when it comes to himself as a Mexican and the MEChA members. He believed that he had much less economic capital than most of the MEChA students and again, comparing his father's work ethic, expressed ideologies of bootstrapping and self-sufficiency for success in life:

1 I'm Mexican but I really don't agree with a lot of Mexicans' views ...like they have a weird
2 way of thinking...I think with MEChA there's a lot of self-pity in there...like "ooh my
3 community did this" and I'm like "eh". Like I saw a lot of my friends growing up who had
4 better....My thing was when I was 18, I was like "I'm an adult now...I need to take care of
5 my own actions." But a lot of MEChA or something like that they don't see that—building it
6 themselves...I know it's hard to be like, "ohh, you're like starting at the bottom but you
7 have to move yourself up." It starts with each generation but the generation themselves,
8 they don't want to do anything...so that's why I didn't like MEChA... I think I get it from my
9 dad. My dad's like- I told him I was tired and he was like "you're lazy." 'Cus he goes to work
10 at 2 in the morning and then comes out at like 5 in the afternoon. So he works like a crazy
11 shift...They're like the system puts you down. But I think that your self puts you down.

(Interview, 11/6/12)

In this discussion of MEChA and his family background, Martin rejects outright any effect institutional constraints and capital could have on people's success in life. While maintaining his own Mexican identity, he characterizes Mexicans associated with MEChA as having "self-pity" (Line 2) and not wanting to work or "build" for themselves (Lines 5-6). Martin portrays change as lying in the individual and adopts the idea that people just need to work hard and "pick themselves up by the bootstraps," which is a more commonly accepted American narrative; he also refers to the narrative of "starting at the bottom" and moving up (Lines 6- 7). He again looks towards his father as an example of how to enact agency and progress in life(Lines 9-10). In addition to hard work, this ties in with ideologies of individual exceptionalism and the "ideology of giftedness," in which "social fate" such as in school is a result of one's "individual nature" as the driving force behind success in school, as discussed by Bourdieu (2012):

...the *ideology of giftedness*, the cornerstone of the whole educational and social system, helps to enclose the underprivileged classes...by making them see as *natural inability* things which are only a result of an *inferior social status*, and by persuading them that they owe their *social fate* (which is increasingly tied to their *educational fate*...) to their *individual nature* and their lack of gifts. (p. 42)

Martin's narrative aligned very closely with this idea of giftedness and he discussed on more than one occasion that he was "smart" and that he could do what the "smart" kids were doing in school. His study habits involved isolated activities such as reading and studying alone for extended periods of time.

At the same time, Martin at least partially recognized the constraints institutions can

impose on people, particularly the influences early education and high school can have on success in college. The writing class for future educators served as a platform for this realization to happen. Through class activities and the large research assignment, Martin learned about the system factors beyond his control that influenced his limited access to education, partially serving to undermine the ideology of giftedness narrative.

6.2.2 Raquel: Mentoring, social connections, and own culture as capital

"It is important that minority students *step up* and *ask for help*."
—Raquel

The emphasis on individualism and the agency in constraint agency in Martin's narrative contrasts with Raquel's story of her progress through the university. Raquel identified social contacts and interactions, such as through campus resources and time spent with Teaching Assistants (TAs), as the driving factors that helped her progress through university. However, it was not until she struggled through her first year as a freshman, was dismissed from the university, and spent a year at the community college that importance of social connections and getting help from others (forms of social capital) became more salient. Like Martin, Raquel's high school experience made her feel less prepared than the other students in her classes at the university. In fact, she expressed regret at not going to a community college first and then transferring (Interview, 4/24/12), but recognized at a later point that not all transfer students perform better in classes, such as when she noted one transfer student had weaker writing skills than she did.

Raquel discussed her agency while talking about writing at the university. When it came to preparation and abilities in writing, she felt that in middle and high school she had some good English teachers but did not receive the type of education needed to excel at the university.

Based on her university entrance writing exam, Raquel as a freshman was placed into a developmental writing class, in which she experienced shame and humiliation at being identified as a poor writer (Interview, 4/24/12). She discussed how she received a "C++" on one of her essays, which she saw as a slight to her writing abilities. However, Raquel also discussed not being open to criticism at that time and being too shy to receive help from others. In fact, in her initial education narrative, Raquel did not mention the fact that she was asked to leave the university after her first year. It was only a little while later through email exchange that she discussed her hiatus from the university with me and how she felt encouraged by her writing instructor, Paula, to discuss this part of her university experience in her personal statement writing assignment.

The process of dismissal and eventual re-enrollment at the university helped Raquel develop important practices and habits for success at the university. She recognized the need to seek social support for academic success and discussed going to the writing center and office hours more often once re-admitted to the university. Nonetheless, Raquel seemed slightly shy about discussing the topic. It wasn't until our conversation turned informal when we were wrapping up our discussion about her high school experience that she talked about the undergraduate student mentor who helped her prepare and apply to college, who Raquel described as "kind of like the one that pushed me to go to college" (Interview, 4/24/13). This indicates that the social interactions and support beyond the classroom are understood to be extra but not essential or "normal," even though they ended up being very important to her.

Raquel also worked during her time at the university at a high school in a mentoring program, where she worked with underprivileged youth in STEM (Success through Educational Mentoring) to help them prepare for college. In addition, in her lesson plan for the writing class,

she proposed teaching students about the different types of jobs they could do with a degree of their interest as well as what types of higher education institutions were available to her mentees; she also ended up doing this activity with her mentees in the program. Raquel used her bilingual abilities when translating for one English learner in the program, and she used her Spanish to translate between health care providers and her father. She seemed to draw upon her linguistic and cultural background and saw them as capital, having also minored in Chicano studies.

Raquel, like Martin, recognized the limitations that her migrant parents with minimal education have when it came to preparing her for higher education because the lack of cultural and social capital resulted in diminishing chances for her to attend college. While Martin's solution was to rely on himself and become more agentive on his own, Raquel saw the use of others through mentorship as a means to help students like her achieve success in college through providing the needed social capital. Raquel saw the lack of various types of capital she had as a Latina from a low SES and her avenue to overcome such a lack in capital was to interact with others and find support that provided social and cultural capital.

However, Raquel also very much demonstrated her own agency and will to overcome the constraints and limitations given to her. Raquel's decision to attend community college for a year and return to the university, as well as her pursuit of internships and research assistant positions in college, demonstrate her own agentive force in ensuring her success. In discussing the future success of minorities in high education, Raquel asked for students like her to "step up and ask for help" (Email Correspondence, 5/1/13). Raquel mentioned that she wanted to help others like her if possible, saying:

...If this helps with your research in any way I would be willing to share it with you. I think it is important that minority students step up and ask for help when they need it but many times they fail to do this and suffer the consequences.

(Email Correspondence, 5/1/13)

Her statement stresses the argument that social support drives student success at the university, but at the same time there is a subtle message that success and change ultimately lies with the individual exercising his/her agency, in this case "stepping up." Rather than framing minorities as complete victims, Raquel recognizes the essential role agency plays in student achievement despite the various constraints and lack of capital they might have.

6.2.3 Success narratives and research assignment as an act of agency

Raquel and Martin both demonstrated a drive to thrive in academia and with the writing class, they reflected on their experiences and the effects their educational and cultural backgrounds had on their success in college. They both also were productive in identifying setbacks they experienced on their way to college and offered concrete solutions to these issues. To illustrate, for their research paper assignment, both focused on issues that directly affected their education, like a form of "me-search," where the topic of inquiry stems from a personal interest and connection to one's personal life (Davis & Shadle, 2000). As discussed earlier, this was encouraged by the instructors for all students in order to make connections between writing and personal experiences with education. Martin researched the area of (unofficial) tracking in schools and during our meetings we would discuss how he was basically tracked to his disadvantage. However, Martin talked about specific ideas he had for how to fix unofficial tracking; one major push was to integrate content from college-bound courses into all levels of classes, since the skills learned in those classes could be useful anywhere.

Similarly, Raquel was able to discuss her struggles as a high school student through research and wrote her assignment in the form of a formal letter to a school district on the importance of mentorship for Latinos in high school. She first identified the discrepancies in her

community with those in the school system and then demonstrated how students like herself need access to people who encourage them to go to college, who show them the opportunities that a university degree could give them and who provide help in preparing and applying for college. Though they had different topics and solutions, Martin and Raquel showed through their research assignment that they were aware of the barriers set by lack of various types of capital but also that there were viable solutions to help students like them enter into university and be on their way towards success. Both seemed very self-aware and showed a clear purpose and opinion in their research topics and proposed ideas, thus demonstrating a clear sense of agency and identity. Notably, it was possible for any student in the class to approach the writing assignments in such a way, regardless of social class or capital.

6.3 Dialogic voicing, heteroglossia, and approaches to source use

"Bakhtin...contributed one of the most significant explorations of *personhood*— one that is *socially and historically* construed, yet *creative*."
(Holland et al 1998, p. 34)

Despite their differences, in general Raquel and Martin demonstrated a will to succeed in academia, which may be a characteristic particular to themselves and not necessarily a direct result of their past experiences. With the writing class, they had similar experiences during the process of researching and drafting an academic text on an issue in education. In some ways the research project and final document served to enact change and agency in their lives. While their texts included research on the topic, Raquel and Martin drew heavily on their personal experiences when making their arguments and giving examples. Furthermore, the Bakhtinian sense of self, described in the quote from Holland et al (1998), was reflected in their writing, in which they drew upon their past experiences and identities; during this time, they also crafted new

selves. Through the assignment they demonstrated a type of identity that is “socially and historically construed,” given their educational experiences and social circumstances. However, proposing a change in those experiences also served as a creative way to re-construct their past and express a different self to their readers, who for Raquel were her former school district; Martin addressed his essay to teachers who seemed similar to the ones he had.

Though they both told a type of narrative in their research assignment, the transparency of connection between the argument and personal experience varied. While Raquel overtly mentioned herself in the text, Martin did not. However, by referencing multiple realities, the heteroglossic text served to express his story in a double-voiced manner. Furthermore, while Raquel's letter showed similarities with her success narrative, Martin's argument in the essay conflicted somewhat with his success narrative of personal achievement and self-reliance. The ways in which Raquel and Martin communicated their experiences in the research assignment will now be addressed, along with how this relates to identity, heteroglossia, and constraint agency. It also discusses how despite educational background, students in general can blend personal experience into research projects and learn from the literature about their own circumstances, performing in a way a type of "me-search" (Davis & Shadle, 2000) that also achieves academic expectations of an argumentative, research-based text.

6.3.1 Martin: Individualism in research process and experience as covert evidence

“Humans are both blessed and cursed by their dialogic nature— their tendency to encompass a number of views in virtual simultaneity and tension, regardless of their logical compatibility.”
(Holland et al., 1998, p. 15)

Over the course of the writing class, Martin had a few opportunities to reflect on his educational history and why he often performed poorly in school. Our conversations and the

writing assignments suggested conflicting views on the role of school, the individual, social context, and agency. As previously discussed, Martin displayed a discourse of himself as the one who got him through school, which I described as "bootstrapping." However, over the course of working on his final project and in the final assignment document, Martin revealed another narrative about his past, in which economic, cultural and systemic factors played a large role in his academic struggles and poor performance in school.

As Holland et al (1998) note above, this is in fact a normal occurrence and that it can be understood that these conflicting perspectives can work toward creating an identity. For Martin, his participation in the writing class via class activities, reading, writing and researching helped him participate in a dialogue with his past and conflicting factors regarding his educational experience; he was able to both verify his previously held perspectives and establish new arguments concerning his educational trajectory, revealing the dialogic nature of learning. At times he found activities and research that validated his beliefs and at other times he discovered new arguments. His main discovery came from watching a documentary film on charter schools and the hardships faced by students from low socio-economic status. In his written proposal for the final research project on an issue in education, Martin explained this realization:

My topic for this research paper is dealing with tracking in the educational system. After seeing *Waiting for Superman* I **realized that the education system I was in was horrendous do [sic] to tracking.** I feel that since **they didn't believe** anyone in my high school was going to go to college they didn't bother teaching us, and left us **disenfranchised.** Although I'm **mpassionate** about this topic I don't know how **researching** will go, since I've only hear about this topic once in *Waiting for Superman*.

(Mini Research Proposal)

Martin discusses his realization that his experience in school was a systemic one and that his education outcomes were not completely due to his own work. He had discussed in other

assignments his feelings of being disenfranchised by not only the educational system but also teachers, and it appears that his experience in school was particularly difficult for him:

I had teachers who seemed to be more interested in putting me down than actually teaching. They didn't try and help me learn, but instead discouraged me from trying by putting me down in front of the class for not doing so well on my test. I felt that something was wrong with me, and that I wasn't as smart as the other kids in class.

(Reflection Assignment)

In his reflection, Martin notes having moments of humiliation (which he had mentioned during our interviews) and lack of faith from his teachers, as well as an internalization of his poor performance. What the documentary revealed for him was the notion that there was not anything wrong with him and that he was part of a tracking system, in which he went through EL (English Learner) placement and lower level courses which had limited his abilities to succeed. In addition, the final draft of the research text identifies ethnic and socio-economic factors to also be at play, as demonstrated in his thesis:

The fact of the matter is that tracking does not focus on all aspects that contribute to a student's success; tracking does not focus on the root issues that are affecting these students such as ethnic, gender, and family income issues as well as ignoring alternative methods that these students could possibly benefit from.

(Final Draft Research Paper)

During the process of drafting the paper, Martin discussed various aspects of his life as related to this topic and the texts and research he was reading. The final document has characteristics of a fairly objective, research-based essay, with no mention of the authorial voice, and it is in many ways exemplary of a standard academic text. In the paper, Martin explains his arguments and discusses opinions, statistics, and other research findings that support his ideas about tracking and student background; he also ends with a suggestion for an alternative system to tracking.

However, there is a double-voicedness or heteroglossic aspect to his paper, since Martin's personal narrative is revealed in the text, cited sources, and "facts." The research and writing process appeared to serve as practice in an important academic activity of research, argumentation, and writing, while at the same time serving as a way for Martin to "tell his story" and propose a change for individuals like him. This was in many ways a form of constraint agency, where he was able to argue for a change in his past circumstances. Researching, incorporating, and responding to texts helped this, which supports Bazerman's(2013) argument, "Intertextuality is ultimately about agency within the complex, historically evolved, and continuing mutating landscape of texts" (p. 182). Students such as Martin could use the writing assignment to reflect upon their past experiences, whether positive or negative, and propose changes when desired.

The ways in which multiple voices of sources are assembled in his project as well as his arguments are acts of agency. Through making claims and using outside sources as evidence, Martin creates a text that proposes changes teachers can make in order to help students like him. In this way, the text serves to take action against a system that did not support his educational development. It also serves as a letter of sorts to his past teachers, explaining why he did poorly. However, the final outcome was an argumentative academic text generated from personal experience that had a combination of voices. Thus, Martin's interaction with his project served a dual purpose of allowing him to propose an explanation for his academic struggles while at the same time participating in the academic activity of writing research-based documents.

6.3.1.1 Finding the evidence: Argument, outside sources, and proof

During our conversations about his drafts, Martin often discussed connections among his personal experience and research. In fact, the two aspects seemed to merge at times, as if Martin

was adjusting his ideas and arguments through engaging his outside sources. However, Martin would often separate this process and establish borders between himself and the sources. To illustrate, while discussing the opening sentence in his final draft, I was trying to clarify with Martin what he meant by "remove a student for low income." This question led to Martin discussing his process of drafting the paper as it related to argumentation and outside sources.

- 1 Martin ...And then I just try to argue about the other factors that contribute to people not succeeding in school
- 2 Miki And that schools aren't focusing on this, right?
- 3 Martin Yeah **that's my whole argument of my paper. That...I was thinking about the argument in my head. Like before I read stuff, I was like, I think there's an argument like that. I could probably find something. And then when I opened the book to...I didn't read the whole thing. Just when I was at the...what is it called?**
- 4 Miki The index in the back?
- 5 Martin No.
- 6 Miki The table of contents?
- 7 Martin Yeah. I read some of that.
- 8 Miki This is *Tracking Wars*?
- 9 Martin Yeah. *Tracking Wars* and *Beyond Tracking*. Those are the two main books I used. And I used *Kaleidoscope* and three scientific journals and one interview.
- 10 Miki You need eight right?
- 11 Martin Yeah. **I think I did my research.**

(Interview, 12/7/12)

In this conversation, Martin establishes the arguments of the article as originating from himself and the outside sources serving to validate his ideas. He appears to be satisfied with the sources he found and the validation they provided for his ideas. His comment of "I think I did my

research" suggeststhat his arguments could be recognized as legitimate because of the outside sources; Martin seemed to recognize the practices of academic writing and the role of research in argumentation. At the same time, aconversation we had before he wrote his first draft revealed his own personal experience as the foundation for his research paper around which his outside sources would center.

We had been discussing his home life and he stressed that his poor performance in school was not due to his lack of understanding of material but due to his home situation. After discussing this Martin remarked,

"That's what I'm going to write in my essay. There are a lot of factors that go into me being in a lower grade. And lower things. It's not that I didn't understand it. It's just that I had no help."

(Interview, 11/20/12)

His reference to his own personal experience "me being in a lower grade" and "it's just that I had no help" demonstrate the idea that his research essay on tracking, ethnicity, and socio-economic status is in many ways a narrative explaining his struggles throughout his k-12 education.

6.3.2 Stance, personal experience, and evidence: Draft 1

Another example demonstrates ways in which Martin negotiated discussing his personalexperience while writing an academic paper and discussing an outside source. It specifically addresses two issues in relation to Bakhtinian notions of language appropriation and heteroglossia. First,his successive draftsbecame morecongruent with academic discourse by providing outside sources for evidence and taking a stance that is not completely assertive or dialogically contractive. This could be described as appropriation of academic language and making words one's own. Second,it demonstrates the constraint agency (Varghese, 2012) Martin employs by addressing (his) teachers. The constraint agency can be seen through intertextuality

and heteroglossia. During one meeting, I read the following sentence Martin wrote, after discussing statistics showing Asian immigrants having higher education levels than Latino immigrants:

This shows that this is not an issue about English deficiency, but **social background**. Mexican American parents are **less likely to encourage their kids** to go to college and usually **don't see the importance** of going to college or are unaware of the requirement needed to attend college.

(Research paper, draft 1)

I thought that the "don't see the importance of going to college" aspect of describing "Mexican American parents" to be an overstatement and controversial for an academic text, so I asked Martin about it. We had just been discussing his text and trying to determine which part of the text was his and which belonged to the outside source:

- 1 Martin **This is mine**
- 2 Miki Starting with "this shows that"?
- 3 Martin Yeah...**this is mine**
- 4 Miki Yeah 'cus that's a pretty strong statement. That Mexican American parents don't encourage their kids to go to school? Do you have any evidence to prove that?
- 5 Martin That- That- **those are my words**. But then I can use uhh. One of the books we read says that. I think 'why parents don't go to school' or something like that
- 6 Miki Ok
- 7 Martin I can support that. I have all these **supported facts**
- 8 Miki Do you think most Mexican American parents- Do they want them to? You say they don't encourage them to go to college.
- 9 Martin Even school. My friends. I mean I'm using **personal experience** and I've read things but it's a **widespread thing**
- 10 Miki Yeah that's fine.

(Interview, 11/29/12)

I initiate the topic of evidence and academic writing, asking him for "evidence to prove that," displaying my participation in the discourse that claims need to be supported by factual, published data. Martin responded to my question with "those are my words," suggesting that the evidence comes from him and his own experience. However, recognizing the need for outside sources to justify this claim, he notes that he had a reading in mind that he could use. Martin then explained that he could support this claim and that he had "all these supported facts," emphasizing the legitimacy of his claim against parents like his father, who Martin had described on multiple occasions as not supportive of his education: for example, when Martin told his father that he received an A in class, his father responded "what's that?" (Interview, 11/1/12).

I was still surprised by what I perceived to be a strong stance, so I asked him again about whether there was a difference between wanting and encouraging. Martin responded with additional evidence from personal experience to justify his claim, adding that he had "read things but it's a widespread thing." What I believe this interaction demonstrates is a bit of a push-back from Martin against tendencies to value evidence over personal experience. I also was questioning the credibility of his statement, which students from a variety of backgrounds might experience. Perhaps he saw it as dismissing his past rather than questioning the generalization he could make from it, and I recognize power dynamics factored into our conversation, such as our interviewer/interviewee, researcher/participant, graduate student/undergraduate relationships and possibly others based on gender (Talmy, 2010). Furthermore, the transcription lacks intonation and other communicative markers, but my general, subjective assessment is that in this case and in general, Martin spoke in a fairly friendly, matter-of-fact, and at times humorous manner. In many ways this example demonstrates negotiations students from a variety of backgrounds must make when learning to write academic texts and the challenges of talking about personal

experience from a research-based perspective.

6.3.2.1 The second draft: Trying out language and enacting dialogue

Nevertheless, in the next draft there were two main changes to these sentences. For one, there was no mention of Mexican American parents and the statement of them being "less likely to encourage their kids to go to college." Also, there was an addition of a quote from an outside source which Martin had mentioned, about "why parents don't go to school" (Line 5-7).

Regarding the change in sentences, Martin frames the discussion in terms of an "underlying issue" (Line 1) and relates parental degree of education with student success, which changed from "social background" in the first draft.

- 1 The **underlying issue** is that what the parent know and understand about school will
- 2 greatly affect the student's outcome. **If parents don't understand what the kids have to**
- 3 **face while at school then they don't see the importance of helping their kids.** In a quote
- 4 from Why Some Parents Don't Come to School there is a **clear example of this mentality**
- 5 "It's her education, not mine. I've had to teach her to take care of herself. I work nights,
- 6 so she's had to get up and **get herself ready** for school. **I'm not going to be there** all the
- 7 time (Kaleidoscope 126)."

(Draft 2, 12/4/12)

Further, the sentence preceding the quotation (Line 2-3) became a conditional-result format with *if* and the use of the present tense, which typically describes a general truth or occurrence with *if* being interchangeable with *when*; however, I would argue that this creates more of a dialogically expansive space than a bare assertion because of the link between the subordinating conjunction *if* and hypothetical statements. The condition was described as parents not being familiar with the school system and the result is not helping their children.

Overall, the argument remains that uneducated parents will not help or encourage their children in school. However, Martin adds an outside source, noting that the quote "is a clear

example of this mentality." The quotation is a first person account of a parent distancing herself from her child's education, which supports Martin's main argument. The draft now had the support of an outside source for evidence—a quote from the class reader on education—and the intertextual referencing of a published document helped create legitimacy for the argument; the draft possessed characteristics of a research-driven argumentative text.

Concerning issues of how the source was integrated, there are a couple incongruent features of the text, such as the closing quotation mark coming after the parenthetical citation. In addition, while the source text is integrated into the sentence, there is an ambiguity of voice and the quote lacks a speaker, making it less coherent. During our meeting to discuss this second draft, Martin and I focused on issues of evidence and source incorporation, such as where to put in the interview data from a high school teacher whose class Martin had observed, and how to organize his argument about unintentional tracking of students like him due to ethnicity, language, gender, and income. At one point I asked him about a lone quotation mark at the beginning of a sentence and he had noted that he didn't know why there was a quote because it was "kind of like a paraphrase" and that he hadn't "looked up how to cite yet" or "done APA or MLA" (Interview, 12/4/12).

This discussion led me to ask Martin (about fifteen minutes later) where he learned to cite his sources as I looked at the quotation from the class reader discussed above. He responded:

"I never learned that's why I'm looking it up. Everything I do now is more like. More like for my need...I never learned how to cite and be like 'Oh ok, that's how.'"

(Interview, 12/4/12).

I pointed out the sentence and he asked me, "Is that bad to do that?" at which point we began a detailed discussion about how to incorporate his source and the importance of the source author and phrasing. It is displayed below in full with my part of the conversation as well, since there

was an exchange of information and I was making suggestions on how to incorporate a source.

My response to his question about his use of the quote being "bad" was:

- 1 Miki Well, no...one thing you don't want to do is you put the quotation marks after the word. But I mean also in terms of **how you introduce a quote**. So like you use a quote from this and this is a—
- 2 Martin A short story within the Kaleidoscope. They use a lot of short stories.
- 3 Miki So was it written by a researcher?
- 4 Martin I think just by some person. It could be a researcher. **But it's just more about like the issues and quotes.**
- 5 Miki 'Cus **that really matters** when you talk about a quote. Like is it important that the **reader knows what the title of the piece is?** That's what I'm asking. When you think about **incorporating the quote, you think about what matters**, like is this person super famous and should I mention their name because they're super awesome, right? Does it matter that I mention the title? Does the reader need to know it?
- 6 Martin **I don't think so at this point.**
- 7 Miki Right, so if you think they don't have to, you don't have to put the title.
- 8 Martin **I just I didn't know how to introduce it so I was like— It sounded right to introduce this this way.**
- 9 Miki Yeah. *People don't usually get taught this.* Anyways go back and look at the author and **Google him or her** and see if they're well known. But you just want to **introduce the context like the person** and they're talking about.
- 10 Martin **So if they're an important person, I say something like** "a quote from, article who is whatever, who's like has done studies" or something like that?
- 11 Miki Yeah, yeah.
- 12 Martin "shows that...the community has the mentality" or **something like that and then insert the quote?**
- 13 Miki Yeah. Yeah 'cus this is the mom talking?
- 14 Martin Yeah.
- 15 Miki Yeah, so you want to introduce that. You **don't have to say "a quote from"** because they know because there's already quotes here.
- 16 Martin Uh huh.

- 17 Miki You could say something like **“in her article about”** whatever, “parental influence on student success,” whatever, **“Rogers discusses a point of view”**
- 18 Martin Cultural difference?
- 19 Miki **‘Cus the author isn’t saying this right? She’s quoting.** Discussed the mother’s point of view that-
- 20 Martin The differences in the cultures of education.
- 21 Miki Yeah. And you can put a colon. Make sense?
- 22 Martin **Yeah like define why I’m bringing it in an make it more understandable for the reader and help them see the importance of what I’m saying**
- 23 Miki Yeah and who’s saying this, ‘cus it’s not the author. It’s the interviewee. So what you also want to do is what they call **“unpacking” the quote before moving on, tell the reader what the quote means**
- 24 Martin So “This shows that there’s— I forgot the word. Like. An importance of education in the Latin community” **something like that. But more nice.**
- 25 Miki Yeah cus it is...this is from...also mention that it’s Latino mom...

Focusing on what this conversation says in terms of source use, one feature is that Martin and I are "trying out" the language for introducing a quote, such as *shows that* (Line 12) and *in her article about* (Line 17), and by discussing example phrases are determining what the linguistic parameters and tastes (Bakhtin, 1981) for this type of academic discourse are for source incorporation. According to the handout on academic writing and source use given by Annette, these are at least partially formulaic (Graff & Birkenstein, 2010).

This brainstorming of languaging may be particularly important considering Martin just expressed not knowing how to introduce a quote and was perhaps embarrassed from my questioning about the way he introduced the quote, as our conversation may have been constructed (Talmy, 2010) to position Martin as the learner and me as the knower of academic discourse. My question in Line 5 could have been interpreted as rhetorical, such that I was trying to tell him that his writing was in fact "bad" and that I am framing the conversation to conclude

with the fact that the title of the cited source is in fact not as useful here as the source author's name might be, which I allude to with suggesting Martin look up the author's background.¹⁸

Stressing the importance of the source author and credibility was also a feature seen in class discussions and assignments, such as the pre-drafting annotated bibliography assignment in which students had to explain the background and credibility of the source authors (but in which Martin did not include this source). Martin seems to recognize the importance of recognizing authoritative voices (Bakhtin, 1981) with his comment in Line 10 about referencing someone if they are "important" and discussing research and the legitimacy that comes with it. Thus it appears that in some ways Martin is aware of academic practices for source incorporation.

Furthermore, in class Martin's instructor Denise had discussed the possibility of integrating the source author of a quote, stating:

And you may integrate it [the quote] in the sentence...so you could say 'Miki argues in her essay in second language learning that quotation is *blablabla*' and then parenthesis and the page number if you're doing MLA or the date if you're doing APA.

(Denise, Observation, 10/16/12)

What Denise and I are suggesting is the need for dialogue with the source authors. Martin recognized the need for dialogue with his audience when stated in Line 22 "Yeah like define why I'm bringing it in a make it more understandable for the reader and help them see the importance of what I'm saying." Martin notes the need for a dialogic interaction in the text and that providing a quote involves more than the quotation; intelligibility for his audience is needed.

6.3.2.2 The final draft: Intertextuality and constraint agency

The final draft demonstrates Martin's use of the academic discourse strategies we discussed during his second draft. There were three main changes made to the draft relating to

¹⁸ I may have realized this when I expressed agreement with his response by rationalizing that "people don't usually get taught this"; it was a bit of "back peddling" and trying to mitigate ideas that his draft was "bad."

explanation of argument, integration of the speaker, and the end of text citation, which changed to including the source author and page number rather than title of the source. Also, Martin added two clauses before the quotation, starting with "Since these parents..." (Line 5) the sentences described the reasoning behind parents' behavior with their children on schooling. There is also mitigation of the argument with "some parents" (Line 7), which opens up the space for readers to consider the possibility that not all parents may behave in this manner; the statement of probability is much more dialogically expansive than the pronouncement made in the first draft that included all Mexican American parents.

1 **The underlying issue** is that the degree of education the parents has obtained **will**
2 affect what they know and understand about school, in turn this **will** greatly affect the
3 student's outcome. If parents are unaware of what their kids have to face while at
4 school then they are unable to understand the importance of helping their kids
5 educationally. **Since these parents have never gone to school or never been within the**
6 **school system it is difficult for them to understand the difficulties their kids may face.**
7 **Some parents are unaware that a proper education requires a support system in the**
8 **household, this is apparent as one Latin American mother speaks of her daughter's**
9 **schooling; "It's her education, not mine. I've had to teach her to take care of herself. I**
10 **work nights, so she's had to get up and get herself ready for school. I'm not going to**
11 **be there all the time" (Cooper, Ryan 126).**

(Draft 3, 12/8/12)

Another change is that Martin referred to the speaker, a "Latin American mother" (Line 8), and what she is addressing in the quoted text. The speaker integration helps contextualize the quote and not be a "hit and run" as the instructor Annette noted in a class lesson on quoting, echoing the words from a handout on effective quoting (Observation, 11/28/12). The use of "this is apparent" (Line 8) was not discussed during our conversation, suggesting Martin participated in further practice of generating academic language.

Last, the argument or "underlying issue" (Line 1) as Martin called it generated from his

own interactions with his father as well as the experiences of peers. He described his father as not understanding Martin's "difficulties" in school. He illustrated this idea by describing his father's absence during the official administrative meeting held to decide whether Martin should fail the fifth grade (which they decided 'yes'), due to being "too tired" to attend (Interview, 11/20/12). Martin often spoke of his father in a way that he was indeed "unaware that a proper education requires a support system in the household;" an example of this is Martin not having any place in the house to do his homework (Interview, 11/20/12). Furthermore, his father's early work schedule required Martin to also "get up and get [him]self ready for school," echoing the voice of the quoted Latin American mother. With this and narrowing the example to experience of Latinos, Martin creates a double-voiced text, in that he is at once talking about general truths and the experience of one mother while also telling his own story with his father.

This is an example of heteroglossia (Bakhtin, 1981) and of double-voiced discourse since the quoted text and argument "serves two speakers at the same time and expresses simultaneously two different intentions" (p. 324). Martin's discussion of parents and involvement with their children's schooling is in a "dialogized heteroglossia" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 272) partially because it includes the words of an outside source; the generalization made with the conditional statement *if..then* and the sentence with *Some parents* demonstrates how it is "anonymous and social as language" (Bakhtin, 1981). However, it is also "concrete, filled with specific content," which is Martin's lived experience. Moreover, these multiple voices and references are all packaged in the paragraph, an "individual utterance."

In addition, the final draft could demonstrate how agency and intertextuality work together in writing (Bazerman, 2013). With this section of his essay, Martin uses the multiple layers of meaning to exert his own *constraint agency* (Mills & Gale, 2007) by explaining the

various constraints and factors that went in to his struggles with schooling; he changes his schooling narrative from one that frames him as "stupid" and "lazy" to someone who is embedded in a system and circumstances that constrain his opportunities and abilities to thrive academically. In this way, he proposes that teachers, similar to the ones he had, not only understand students like him but also treat them differently. In some ways this conflicts with his narrative of having made it on his own, but the two identity narratives could be understood as Martin recognizing the limitations he had but being able to rise above his circumstances through self-determination and self-reliance. Martin does this within the context of writing an academic research paper, at once engaging in an academic and personal practice.

6.4 Raquel: Social support and approaches to source use

Similar to Martin, Raquel's research assignment also stemmed from her personal experiences and struggles with school, family, and ethnicity. In addition, the final text served as a way for her to assert her agency and propose a change in education that would have helped her academic achievements. To reiterate, Raquel chose to write a letter to her high school district in which she discussed the need for the district to adopt a formal mentoring program for Latinos in order to assist in graduation and college attendance. The proposal echoed Raquel's struggles in school and eventual realization that social support was critical for success in school.

Raquel appeared to approach outside sources and research from a slightly different angle than Martin, which may have stemmed from her enthusiastic interest in research on issues related to her life such as the Latino population, education, and health. Although she looked to resources to support her arguments, she also discussed outside sources to generate new ideas and findings for her, a notion that was downplayed in my interactions with Martin, who at times sought out sources to confirm ideas that he already had. It should be noted that this could be a result of their

individual differences and is not necessarily solely related to their backgrounds. Raquel's background in sociology played a role in how she understood and appropriated academic writing literacy, which included what factors to consider when deciding how to incorporate an outside source. Like Martin, she changed in the way she used sources over the drafting process. Dialogic voicing and response were salient features not only in Raquel's interactions with others during the writing process but also in the drafted letter itself.

6.4.1 Receiving mentorship, promoting mentorship

The thematic focus of Raquel's letter was proposing the formation of a mentoring program for at-risk Latino youth, an activity which would grant access to resources for college preparation and discuss the role of culture and education. Raquel's central and supporting arguments in the second paragraph demonstrate this:

- 1 In order to begin to see higher rates of high school graduates and possibly college
- 2 students coming out of Greenville, the Hispanic youth **must be** mentored along this
- 3 educational path that **they cannot walk on their own** without the guidance from
- 4 important figures in their life who are **aware of the educational system**. Greenville Public
- 5 Schools **must** target Hispanic groups and give them the necessary tools to complete high
- 6 school. **Targeting issues such as acculturative stress and by implementing mentoring**
- 7 **services in the schools**, the Hispanic youth **can show** an increase in high school
- 8 graduation rates. By **emphasizing and supporting diversity, bilingualism and issues of**
- 9 **acculturation**, students **can realize** that they are not alone and help is available to them in
- 10 order to **graduate high school**.

(Raquel, Final Draft)

The paragraph highlights key terms such as mentored (Line 2), acculturative stress and mentoring (Line 6), help (Line 9). It also gives specific actions to be taken (Line 2, 5) and stresses these proposals with *must*. The essay establishes the two problems for Hispanic youth and then proposes a solution, mentoring. In establishing the problem, Raquel discusses how some students struggle with reconciling their cultural backgrounds with the dominant school

culture as well as the lack of help they have about attending college due to their family's limited financial and educational resources. Like Martin, the narrative parallels Raquel's experience in high school and university and her own experiences are indexed in the descriptions made, leading again to heteroglossic texts. For issues of acculturation, Raquel notes in the final draft:

- 1 **Acculturative stress** is experience by minority groups that acculturate to **dominant groups**
- 2 in society caused by individual, social and cultural changes. **Unfortunately**, Hispanic
- 3 students tend to be affected by such stress that creates symptoms such as confusion,
- 4 anxiety, depression, **marginality and identity confusion** when trying to juggle their
- 5 cultural differences in comparison to the dominant culture.

(Raquel, Final Draft)

Acculturative stress is associated with cultural changes and students (Line 2), marginality and identity confusion (Line 4) and simply dealing with conflicting ways of being (Line 4). Raquel's entrance as a freshman into the university was an example of the changes undergone, and her struggle through the first year and dismissal are signs of stress and also marginality. In her personal statement assignment, Raquel reflected on her acculturation experiences:

- 1 Being **the first in my family to go to college** has always been my motivation to **excel**
- 2 **academically**, yet my first year of college reflected how **unprepared** I was. I was placed in
- 3 **remedial classes and experienced culture shock** from being away from my family and
- 4 community while dealing with issues of **acculturation** as well.

(Raquel, Personal Statement)

Similar to the description in the letter, Raquel had troubles stemming from a type of lifestyle that was foreign to her (Lines 3-4). Being unprepared for college (Line 2) and placed in remedial classes (Line 3) may have contributed to her feelings of marginalization. One way in which she was able to overcome these stressors was to participate in socially and academically supportive activities on campus, receiving help from teaching assistants and academic tutors. These helped her gain skills and resources needed to perform well at a university.

As described in the letter, Raquel offered a solution to the issue many Latinos face with “feeling tied between their Hispanic identity and the identity of the dominant culture.” She proposed that high school students work with culturally competent mentors who could help them learn about higher education, how to access it, and how to draw on their cultural backgrounds to excel. While Raquel did not have a program like that in her high school, she worked with a volunteer mentor from a local university (Interview, 4/24/13). The mentor served as one of Raquel's few connections to college, noting,

She's kind of like the one that pushed me to go to college too...She was like 'you can do it' and I mean we didn't have a lot of resources. We didn't have money, so she would tell me about different programs to help you go check out colleges.

(Interview, 4/24/13)

This mentor supplied her with emotional support as well as social support for accessing information on college. Since Raquel had mentioned this woman as a kind of aside at the end of our interview, I wanted to know more about the impact she had on Raquel, so I asked:

Miki So do you think if you didn't have a mentor like her, how do you think you would have fared applying for colleges? Would you even applied?

Raquel I dunno it's just like **she's the only person that I knew that went to college** and like **we looked up to her** a lot my friends and I. And **she would go out of her way to help us out**, especially for applications for certain things. You know, if we didn't submit them on time she'd be like '**OK you're gonna go.**' And she helped us with our personal statements. Before I applied to the universities she looked over my application and helped.

(Interview 4/24/13)

Having studied cultural studies and focusing on Hispanic populations, the mentor presumably had an awareness of and interest in cultural factors affecting academic success for students like Raquel. Considering the fact that Raquel was the first in a family of limited formal education to go to college, this mentor was able to provide Raquel with the necessary

information and social and academic capital, although Raquel's family in contrast to Martin were fairly supportive of her academic career. Her experience with the mentor resonates in Raquel's thesis paragraph, which references help from "important figures in their life who are aware of the educational system," demonstrating the ways in which texts are multilayered in meaning (Bakhtin, 1981).

6.4.2 Draft revision: Vocalization from source author to authorial voice

In addition to looking at heteroglossia and writing as related to personal experience, Raquel's writing process revealed changes in interaction with the source authors and reader. Over the drafting changes, Raquel's text went from having a fair amount of source author integration to having end of text citation only. In addition, the text changed from referencing Raquel explicit intra-vocalization on multiple occasions. That is, there was a shift in voice or prominence of speaker in the final draft. On a related note, the final draft included more dialogic interaction between Raquel and the reader. The textual voicing moved from Raquel appealing to the source authors for persuasion to including more of her own authority as a person who was a living testimony of the positive outcomes mentors can have on the Latino population.

Unlike Martin, Raquel draws explicit connections between her own life and the topic being explored, as in her addition of the following sentence in the final draft:

Being Hispanic and realizing some of the issues I faced while in the Greenville Public Schools while being the daughter of immigrant parents, allows me to relate with some of the issues these kids face due to not having any guidance and as a result, not being fully prepared to attend a four year university.

(Final Draft of Research Assignment)

These explicit uses of intra-vocalization and personal experience as evidence work together with the heteroglossic sentences in the previous section (6.4.1), serving not only to include her

(legitimate) voice but also make more salient the idea that her letter is an example of constraint agency by making changes given the circumstances around her.

To illustrate the ways in which source integration and vocalization changed, I will discuss two sample sentences and how they differed in the two drafts. The first example (1) highlights an official government report, explaining its contents in the first draft with "This brief states that..." In the final draft, there is no source author integration or discussion of a study but a statement of the findings. In the rough draft of the second example (2), there is a quotation which is introduced with the phrase "as stated by" followed by the source author. However, the final draft removes Schwarzbaum, focusing instead on the paraphrased content, which was a revision observed in other sentences.

(1) *Rough Draft:* **This brief states that** the participation of Hispanics in educational attainment continues to be low while dropping out rates continue to increase dramatically. This specific demographic group continues to grow in comparison to any other group. **A significant number of these kids are undocumented immigrants or have undocumented immigrant parents** (Kohler & Lazarin, 2007).

Final Draft: The participation of Hispanics in educational attainment continues to be low and drop out rates continue to increase dramatically as this specific demographic group continues to grow in comparison to any other group (Kohler & Lazarin, 2007).

(2) *Rough Draft:* **As stated by** Schwarzbaum, having "multicultural organizational competent" staff that can give back to the Hispanic population is high on demand.

Final Draft: The need to understand the Hispanic background, cultural barriers, language, and socio-economic status is a must when working with Hispanics (Schwarzbaum, 2004).

Some ways in which the dialogue changed vocalization also include the integration of first person referencing and Raquel's personal experience and credibility, which shifted focus from the voice of the source author to the authorial voice in the section, or at least highlighted the authorial voice. For example, the rough draft (3) discussion of Sanchez's argument around mentorship and resources eliminates Sanchez as a participant of the dialogue, removing his role

as the subject and agent of the first sentence. The final draft adds in Raquel's experience with the topic, positioning her as a source of evidence and credibility. While there is dialogue with the reader in both drafts, the final draft focuses more on Raquel as a point of information:

(3) *Rough Draft*

Sanchez shows the importance of support in academic achievement since **our** growing population rate **can** have negative implications on the economic and social conditions of this country. In order for the Hispanic youth to succeed academically, they **must** relationships that provide them with the resources and guidance needed for success (Sanchez et al, 2006).

Final Draft

The importance of support through mentorship in order to pursue higher education is highly important. In order for the Hispanic youth to succeed academically, they **must create** relationships that provide them with the resources and guidance needed for success (Sanchez et al, 2006). **Working as a mentor with at-risk high school students in Graville has made me realize the importance of having someone guide you through the process of graduating high school and going to go to college since Hispanic parents usually can't provide any educational assistance.**

Another shift in voicing came with the inclusion of *we* in the final draft, which created a text that was more of a conversation between the authorial voice and reader, with the source author's voice serving as support but being reserved for end of text citation only:

Rough Draft

Robert Aviles and his colleagues looked at the perceptions of Latino students who have dropped out of school and found that they continue to face adversity in their educational attainment in comparison to other groups. **Again, these findings showed that** Hispanics are the most undereducated group with only 50% of Hispanics completing high school (Aviles et al, 1999).

Final Draft

*When looking at the perceptions of Latino students who have dropped out of school, **we are able to see that** they continue to face difficulties in their educational attainment in comparison to other groups. **These findings showed that** Hispanics are the most*

undereducated group with only 50% of Hispanics completing high school (Aviles et al, 1999). Overall, *we can see* the negative effects that a Hispanic adolescent living in the Greenville community *could be* experiencing and what their future could possibly look like if an early intervention is not done.

This example demonstrates how Raquel frames the discussion from what someone else did (the source authors) to what the authorial voice and reader can conclude, noting that "we are able to see that" and "we can see." Including the reader with first person plural pronouns opens up the dialogic space for the reader and creates a sense of agreement with Raquel's propositions. Considering the drafting changes, it may appear that removal of source authors from the text might create a less dialogic and perhaps more contractive text. However, the dialogue remains; what changes are the speakers.

6.4.2.1 Academic literacy and source use: Finding evidence, knowing audience

As for why Raquel might have made the changes in source incorporation, the answer remains unclear and may have been due to a variety of factors. One way to consider the conditions that led to such changes is through discussing Raquel's use of outside sources in general as well as specific discussions during her research project. First, one factor may have been word count. The drafts only have a 30 word difference and were at the threshold of word count for the assignment, which was 1,500 (Research Paper 2 Writing Assignment, Paula's course). Removal of discussing the source authors and what their studies found may have stemmed from a need to keep the assignment to the required words while still adding personal evidence and explanation. Perhaps one was negotiated in consideration for the other.

In addition, Raquel mentioned in a revision reflection how she needed to work on the way she incorporated sources:

When sources are brought up, I need to make sure I get to the point without rambling

and repeating myself...I feel that I have the ideas and evidence to support them; it's just that I have a difficult saying them without rambling

(Raquel, Revision Reflection, 2/5/13)

This focus on concision and in-text discussion of sources as unneeded information was echoed in Raquel's discussion of one professor's requirement to not introduce their sources because it was "wasting time" and they needed to "get to the point" (Interview, 4/24/13).

In fact, Raquel discussed having received conflicting opinions from professors on source incorporation, ranging from the professor seeing source integration as "wasting time" to another who wanted them to use quotations. However, Raquel demonstrated her academic literacy when she recognized that ways to incorporate sources in an assignment should be guided by the professor's preferences and directions. She discussed learning to write in upper division classes and when asked about style, she said how "a lot of times I'm giving you [the professor] the same argument and giving you the same thing but I'm not saying it how you want me to say it. That happened a lot" (Interview, 4/24/13). Suggesting that performance on assignments relates to aspects beyond understanding content, Raquel recognizes writing styles vary according to personal preference. This realization may demonstrate her appropriation of academic discourse and the interpersonal, dialogic aspect of writing (Bakhtin, 1981) in that her audience is at once a theoretical (in her case a school district) and real one (the writing instructor).

On a related note, Raquel also seemed to recognize the power dynamics and the idea that writing in the context of classes involves demonstrating abilities to instructors, an understanding important for success in academia. She used the sample assignments provided by the instructor to discover any kind of personal preference, explaining:

Yeah they were useful...cus you could look at what she's looking for. Some were good and some weren't, so it helped me look at what to avoid and what she's looking for. 'Cus

that's a problem for me. *Knowing what they want*. But she let us know exactly what she was looking for and an example.

(Raquel, Interview, 4/24/13)

Raquel understands the writing process to involve other people and that preferences vary in terms of source incorporation, evidence used, formatting and rhetorical strategies. When interviewing Raquel's instructor, Paula, the idea of preference and source use was discussed, showing Paula's emphasis on the presence of student voice:

I've never had a student ask me "would you prefer me to paraphrase or quote?" ...I know when *they're over relying on quoting* and when *their voice doesn't show through* and when their sources are being used to *support rather than lead*.

(Paula, Interview, 4/3/13).

Raquel's final draft of her letter was more characteristic of a text that had her voice "show through" and the sources "are being used to support rather than lead."

6.5 Conclusion: Expressing a story and identity

“You don't teach students to write by telling them that their views on issues that concern them or their *narratives* about events that shaped them... *don't count as content* or count only as *naive opinions to be corrected* during the course.”
—(Tobin, 2001p. 14)

“I can't really think of anything of this class that really sticks out. *I really did enjoy it*, and it did *make me understand* somewhat *how early childhood education affect a person* as they get older...I do however think writing in small portions over a period of time did *help me write better*.”
—Martin (Email correspondence, 3/9/2013)

“I was able to focus on how issues in education precisely affect Latinos, which allowed me to *improve on my writing through the revision and writing process*. Since it was a topic I was passionate about, I was always motivated to write since I felt like I was one step closer to *creating social change for my people* or at least *writing* about ways to do so.”
—Raquel (Final Exam)

Tobin (2001) addresses questions of how much students should incorporate their experiences and personal background into the writing classroom and projects. When discussing

this, he was referencing students in general rather than just a particular group; the argument is that it is important to encourage students to make connections between their lives and writing activities, regardless of literacy skills or personal narrative. What the quotes from Martin and Raquel demonstrate are two different views on writing as related to their learning experience at the end of the writing course. Raquel's experience exemplifies beneficial approaches to writing according to Tobin (2001) because of the assignments being designed around the particular interests of the students.

Raquel's quote also shows how driven and concerned she was about helping Latinos, and more so how the writing class was a space where she could do so and become "one step closer to creating social change." The writing process helped her connect with issues that were important to her culturally, similar to the Japanese American student's continuing interest in learning about the internment of Japanese Americans through a research-based project (Davis & Shadle, 2000). While the narratives of Raquel and Martin speak to experiences of some California Latin@s, they also speak to experiences of upper division students in writing classes with varying degrees of interest in the course and writing skills, with Raquel being more interested in the course content and better equipped with academic literacies than Martin.

Raquel discussed plans for post-baccalaureate research concerning Latinos and health, and planned to continue on that path through graduate school. Through focusing on mentorship and academic success for her research paper, Raquel was able to express her own history while at the same time writing academically. She used her background as a complementary element to her argument, serving to enhance the persuasiveness, as recommended by Comfort (2000). Her writing processes also seemed to parallel her use of resources for academic development.

Martin did not have many strong views on the class (though he wrote me a few months

after the class ended, so the memories may have not been strong) but did learn from it, such as the factors beyond his control that influenced his past. He had earlier noted as well that "through my research it became apparent that I wasn't the only one with my background to fall through the cracks of the educational system" (Draft 1, Research Project, Martin). He also referenced the idea of writing in "small portions over a period of time," which allude to the scaffolding his instructor Denise incorporated for working on the research project in small steps, such as with proposals, an annotated bibliography, and multiple drafts. In some ways his explanation of making it to the university due to individual means seems to contradict his writing; perhaps he gained insight into the system that constrained him but which he had to overcome on his own. The differing stances taken in his success narrative discussed with me and his experience discussed in the research paper may suggest a possession of "often contradictory, self-understandings and identities...spread over the material and social environment" (Holland et al., 1998, p. 8).

Both Martin and Raquel employed various rhetorical and linguistic cues to incorporate evidence that supported their argument in ways characteristic of academic writing, and both understood that discussing the work of others is essential for academic writing. However, Martin at times seemed to resist the authority and legitimacy that came from source authors rather than his own experience, similar to what Ivanic(1998)found with her mature adult writers participants. Raquel appeared to view outside sources as resources for new information as well as evidence to support claims. They also used their writing as a way to respond to the structures and factors that limited their opportunities to excel in school; they demonstrated a sense of constraint agency (Varghese, 2012) by telling their story and proposing changes for those under similar constraints. In some ways outside sources served to enhance and legitimize their experiences. Being in a writing class that encouraged students to explore topics that interested them and consider their

educational experiences helped create a space for Raquel and Martin to do so.

During the process of completing their research project, Martin and Raquel came to see their personal experiences as part of larger, documented phenomena. They were also able to participate in academically valuable activities such as researching literature, synthesizing data, drafting arguments, using effective evidence, and incorporating outside sources. That is, they were able to develop academic literacy skills, including the language used to incorporate sources as well as understanding the functions of outside sources in an argument text. The cited portions of the text offered heteroglossic voicing, where the students communicated personal experience while also practicing academic writing literacies. When discussing an argument or citing examples, Martin and Raquel's texts spoke to not only the literature but also their lived experiences. By providing multiple meanings in their texts, they told their stories through an academic text rather than a personal narrative.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

“Because I’m specifying all of the above sources so I don’t think I need to *cite my own opinions* right?”

—Wes

“Can *I make those statements*? Do I need to? Who do I cite? Do I *cite myself*?”

—Mara

The above quotes from Wes and Mara came during some of our discussions on their drafts and incorporating sources. With Wes, he was struggling with expressing his own opinion and voice on an issue, particularly without the use of *I think* or *I believe*. When I asked him how he might make it clear that something is his opinion, he responded with the quote above. I believe his response demonstrates the ambiguities in intertextual writing and distinguishing one's

authorial voice from those of source authors. Wes seems to be operating on the assumption that if a sentence is not cited, then it belongs to the authorial voice. However, the notion that a sentence with an end of text citation does *not* include the authorial voice's opinion is not necessarily true, as Bakhtin would emphasize, and has been shown in my research.

Mara's quote also involves question of voice, opinion, and academic writing. Not only does she also ask if she should cite herself, she questions her right to put forth certain claims. In the process of creating a text that draws upon various voices and opinions of others, Mara is unclear of her role in the dialogue and how she might respond to the source authors' propositions. She later questioned her credibility as a student writer in conversation with experts in her field. Though Mara questions the type of response she should give, she nonetheless recognizes the need to respond to the propositions and words she is incorporating into her text. As this project has also showed, students responded in a variety of ways during the writing process, and demonstration of stance and attitude part and parcel to the writing process.

Wes and Mara discussed uncertainty with identifying their own ideas in a text but they are also talking about specific sentences or utterances. Thus their quotes also speak to the broader focus of my study, which was to understand how students make language (and ideas) *their own* and appropriate academic literacy while interacting with outside sources. Student writers must participate in the precarious tasks of developing academic literacy from model texts, integrating multiple voices into a text, and ensuring their own voices and experiences get heard. I wanted to know how students acted in such activities and negotiated boundaries of linguistic ownership, given the importance for students to have academic literacies and become members of an academic community. I also wanted make connections between these students as multilinguals with a variety of educational backgrounds and linguistic skillsets, and to what

extent their experiences might be characteristic of upper division undergraduate students in general.

Focusing particularly on source incorporation, I considered three areas in writing where students might build upon their skillsets: expressing attitude and opinion; paraphrasing; and discussing personal experiences. The overarching theme connecting these three areas is the ownership of academic language and literacies, and subsequently, the process of acquiring them. Chapter 4 dealt with expressing (or not) attitudes towards particular ideas and individuals, and to what extent it is clear who owns which ideas in a text that cites outside sources. Chapter 5 looked at acquiring language via paraphrasing, again looking at the boundaries of ownership in language. Chapter 6 looked at experiences and evidence as aspects of a written text that can be owned.

In this final chapter, I will re-examine the guiding research questions and discuss my findings, as a way to begin drawing the dissertation to a close. Limitations will also be discussed, followed by discussion what the study implies for theory and pedagogy. While discussing implications, I will at once highlight what my research findings suggest and what areas still need to be addressed in the literature.

7.1 Research questions

7.1.1 Question 1

1. How do the focal participants integrate source authors and express stance and attitude, and how do their language and literacy skills factor in?

As a whole, students varied in whether or not they quoted or summarized a text as well as

whether or not they included the source author in their sentence. Common traits found among the participants included expressing agreement with the source author while making strong propositional stances, closing off the dialogic space. These examples were at once dialogic in that a cited source was used and contractive in that a pronouncement was made which offered little space for the reader to question propositions put forth.

For textual integration, students incorporated their sources in a variety of ways, some due to personal preference, such as Raquel and Wes' exclusive use of paraphrases and Mara and Claudia's use of a mixture of quotations and paraphrases. These personal preferences may have stemmed from various academic literacies and ideas students had on effective ways of incorporating texts and also various levels of interest in the writing course. For example, Patrick nearly exclusively quoted sources but he also had large amounts of text copied verbatim, in an attempt that I would not characterize as patchwriting, since no attempts were made to change the text's language or order. Patrick's English language skills were in many ways proficient but he still had issues relating to sentence structure and vocabulary; these may have been contributing factors to his lack of attempts to paraphrase sources and could be an aspect of source incorporation that monolinguals deal with as well. Moreover, Patrick thought very poorly of his writing abilities, wrote the research assignment at the last minute, and seemed overall disengaged from the writing course and project. These too may answer why Patrick tended to use quotes.

In regards to integration of source author, whether or not the source author was mentioned within the text varied across students and within drafts. To take Wes and Raquel for example, Raquel's rough drafts had in text references to the source authors, but they were removed in the final draft. Wes had the opposite changes in his drafts, having added phrases such as *according to* in his final essay. Elaborating on non-integrated texts, sometimes the writers

referenced themselves with the intra-vocalized *I* or *we*, but more often used the *it* subject placemaker or other abstract subjects to discuss propositions. These include terms such as *study*, *researchers*, and *this*. Analysis of vocalization showed that students created a variety of sentence types when discussing an outside source, such as highlighting the source authors or reserving their presence to an end of text citation only.

As for the function of outside sources, for the most part students employed cited research and opinions in order to validate their own propositions, regardless of the type of vocalization or incorporation used and regardless of students' linguistic skills and literacies. To illustrate, Mara, Becky, and Claudia integrated source authors as subjects of a sentence followed by a quote from the source. Martin and Patrick paraphrased and used the place marker *it* in a complement clause, such as *it is known*, followed by an end of text citation. However, both types were used in such a way to show that the student writer endorsed what the source author had to say.

While students were consistent in using outside sources to echo their own arguments, they varied in how expansive or contractive their stances were. Some sentences were strong assertions and portrayed the information as true and indisputable, whether cited or not, such as *it is known*. There was less opportunity for the reader to consider alternate viewpoints or challenge the propositions. Although academic English literacy mattered during the writing process, such as appropriate ways to be assertive, some variation seemed to relate to the type of text being written. For example, Raquel wrote a letter to her former school district asking for them to take action on helping students like her gain access to higher education, while Mara wrote a text that described and critiqued the various theories on language learning. Raquel tended to make more assertive claims than Mara, which may have been partially due to the text-type.

In respect to stance and quotations, I noted differences with long block quotes and short quotations; this initially stemmed from my difficulty in discerning stance via reference to a source author when no source author was mentioned within a text. Becky and Patrick inserted block quotations of entire sentences and they were not introduced nor was there mention of a quotation being used. However, referencing information via theme/rheme made the block quotes more integrated. That is, the non-quoted text would end with a certain topic, from which the quoted text would begin with or elaborate on. Though unconventional, Becky and Patrick showed their endorsement of the quotes by referencing the information into their own argument. Despite resistance to writing and thinking poorly of their own skills, Becky and Patrick used sources in a way that demonstrated their stance, even if in a subtle, less-explicit manner.

Another interesting case regarding use of quotation marks was Candace's source use, because she used short quotes that could be interpreted as "scare quotes." Since the source author was only in end-of-text citations, it was not entirely clear if she was trying to distance herself from the language by using scare quotes, or if she was trying to highlight key terms. Some quotes did not seem particularly unique in construction, such as "finding talent" and "outdated" but it could be that the quotes served to introduce terms that Candace did not feel she had ownership over. This is despite Candace's relatively proficient language skills and her ability to paraphrase outside sources despite thinking otherwise. While she attended a high school system known for equipping students with academic literacies needed for college, Candace at times seemed unsure of her capabilities in forming her own opinion and expressing it.

Besides quotations, some paraphrases showed ambiguity of stance and ownership when they did not integrate the source author; in this case, there was a lack of a clear voice since the vocalization was a non-human subject, as in *it* or *studies*. When Wes had a paragraph where

nearly every sentence was like this, the overall effect was that the voice belonged to the source author. After receiving Paula's feedback regarding over-reliance on one source and lack of voice and opinion, Wes was able to make changes in his final draft by integrating the source author into cited sentences, thus creating a more dialogic text. Moreover, Wes was aware of his lack of voice in his writing, and it is not clear if his perceived and real academic skills influenced such writing. Although he was mostly proficient in his language skills, Wes thought his language might be "awkward" for his American peers. He mentioned this when we discussed peer feedback on a printed rough draft, where his peers had crossed out some phrases, replacing them with their own words.

However, Mara also struggled with identifying her voice when discussing outside sources, despite her relatively high English language proficiencies and academic literacy. Mara revised her drafts in such a way to make her own voice clearer as well as her attitude toward her source authors. What Mara and Wes' experiences demonstrate are the challenges that students in general face when negotiating voices within an academic text.

7.1.2 Question 2

2. How is paraphrasing discussed by the instructors and students and how do the students from different educational and literacy backgrounds paraphrase sources?

The instructors and students described paraphrasing in ways similar to past research findings, as in fears of plagiarism steering how sources were used, rather than rhetorical functions. Instructors issued words of caution around the topic of paraphrasing and some students expressed concerns with not knowing when their paraphrases were free of plagiarism. Some instructors asked students to raise paraphrasing concerns via email or office hours, where

they could discuss whether or not something was paraphrased properly. Furthermore, while paraphrasing was discussed as having equal value to summarizing and quoting, it was often spoke of as the preferred way to incorporate sources; sometimes participants discussed this preference as a sort of hearsay from other professors and classes. Some reasons why paraphrasing was preferred included so the student writer could maintain control of the text and not be overrun with someone else's words; they also appeared to indicate proof of understanding a text and use of critical thinking. Though less overt, paraphrasing also appeared to involve engaging in response and dialogue with a source as well as putting in work and effort during the process of incorporating outside sources.

Students also varied in their past education on source incorporation. For example, Candace reported learning that quoting long amounts of text was undesirable, and Raquel said that paraphrases were preferred by most professors, but not all. Overall, students seemed to receive a variety of perspectives on source incorporation and some had little to no instruction on the linguistic and rhetorical moves one can use to incorporate a source, whether by paraphrasing or quoting. Martin and Raquel both struggled with introducing quotes, such as whether or not to mention the title of the text and how to create a sentence that ends in a quote.

As for specific student perspectives, some seemed more concerned with plagiarizing, with Candace reporting that she avoided paraphrasing altogether (even though her texts looked paraphrased). Like Candace, Wesfelt insecure about paraphrasing due to lack of understanding how to appropriately incorporate a source via paraphrase. Contrastingly, Martin reported finding it easier to paraphrase because quoting left him in danger of plagiarizing. Nevertheless, some of his paraphrases included long strings of verbatim text that could be considered plagiarism. The experience of Martin demonstrates general trends in which students felt unequipped with the

knowledge on how to incorporate outside sources appropriately, regardless of educational experience. However, some students demonstrated abilities to paraphrase (Mara, Raquel, and Candace) more than others (Patrick and Martin). Given that I did not systematically ask about plagiarism, discussions I had with students came from their own initiative. Patrick, Claudia and Becky did not discuss issues of paraphrasing and plagiarism with me.

In addition, paraphrasing was not clearly defined by instructors or students, although some mentioned the need for changes in sentence structure in addition to words. Denise and Annette discussed paraphrasing as involving a small amount of text that gets translated; Annette discussed the need to not change the source author's meaning, as well as the contrasting need to change the text "completely." She also discussed not switching between source author and their own words while paraphrasing, as this was patchwriting and "technically" plagiarism. Denise noted that a sentence was not appropriately paraphrased because it maintained the original sentence structure. As for the students, in response to her observation of a class lesson I taught on paraphrasing, Mara expressed surprise at the notion that paraphrasing must be more than translating jargon and that sentence structure needed to be re-arranged.

Despite these concerns and perceptions of paraphrasing, many students who paraphrased made linguistic changes beyond inserting synonyms or deleting words, thus paraphrasing in ways which would not typically be seen as plagiarism. Certainly, little can be said of the paraphrases of those who tended to not paraphrase, such as Patrick and Becky, except for why they chose not to, as discussed in 7.1.1. Some students had what Pecorari and Shaw (2012) term "unconventional" paraphrasing methods, where verbatim strings of text were cited but not put into quotation marks; thus while citing sources, such methods did not align with conventional formatting methods. This is in contrast to some groups of text from Patrick that were verbatim

but had no citation, which would be categorized as "deceptive" use of a source text.

In terms of the paraphrasing typology from computational linguistics used to analyze paraphrases (Barron-Cedeno et al., 2013), a variety of types of paraphrasing were observed, including the frequently occurring synonym exchange or text deletion. However, for morphological changes, students also utilized derivations, such as changing nouns to adjectives. Few inflectional changes were seen, but the ones that were observed involved tense shift and pluralization. Sometimes students replaced words not with synonyms but antonyms, adjusting the sentence structure to maintain meaning. As for structural changes, there were some reversing of topics and content in single- and multiple sentences. Change in sentence type also was observed, such as compounding two independent clauses from two different sentences or making an embedded dependent clause an independent clause. Furthermore, modifications to a source text were often a combination of changes in language such as synonym use and subordination. Nevertheless, sometimes paraphrases with these changes still had verbatim text.

Another interesting aspect of the paraphrases was considering whether or not a change in meaning took place. In fact, it seemed common for paraphrased sentences to involve extra information either inferred or added by the student writer. Close paraphrases that involved roughly the same amount of words and minimally changed meaning were not as common. Inferred meaning included making statements about the content of a paraphrase that seemed likely to be true but not said in the original text, such as Mara's paraphrase of *periodically assess*, a phrase which she appeared to change to *ongoing professional growth*. In the context of the text, this inference was accurate, as the assessment was proposed for instructors to improve their practices.

Closely related to the added information in paraphrases were those pieces of information

that seemed to be more than drawing conclusions based on common knowledge. In these cases, participants appeared to add their own interpretations in ways that advanced their arguments or created a propositional link between the paraphrased text and their own writing. Some of these added meanings evaluated the source author's stance. That is, the student author paraphrased the text in such a way to add an evaluative response toward the source author, such as agreement or disagreement. Some paraphrases appeared to change the meaning of the original text as well, though it is unclear if this was a misinterpretation or an intentional alteration. In addition, some paraphrases translated information from a larger amount of text. However, identifying the paraphrased text in the original source proved challenging at times, with information located in separate parts of the text or sometimes discussed more than once.

Concerning paraphrasing, students were faced with conflicting ideas as well as tensions within their own writing. They had to negotiate working through patchwriting and formulating ways to create a dialogue with the source author while identifying ownership of words and ideas. To varying degrees, all students struggled through the process of making language “one’s own” and addressing authoritative discourse (Bakhtin, 1981). Overall, paraphrased texts contained a variety of lexical, morphological, and syntactic changes. Some of these changes could be characteristic of an acceptable paraphrase if syntactic and lexical changes are required. Students at times made close paraphrases and at other times added in meaning.

7.1.3 Question 3

3. How do the students draw upon past experiences when performing research based writing activities, considering issues of voice, background, and literacy?

The answer to this question comes in two parts, with the first part describing the

educational background and life experiences of the two focal participants Raquel and Martin. Second, understanding this background allowed for the analysis of their texts and the ways in which they frequently drew upon their past experiences during the writing process, starting with which topics they choose to study. The students generated ideas and evidence for their research project from their own backgrounds and were able to share their personal experience in an academic text, thus enacting a sense of agency. They were able to do this through heteroglossia and double-voicing, in which their central argument and supporting evidence spoke both to research in general and their own lived experiences.

Comparing the two focal participants proved fruitful because on the one hand, Raquel and Martin had shared some characteristics. They were both bilingual, 2nd generation Mexican Americans and from low income families with limited education. Also, they lacked access to educational opportunities in high school and were put on academic probation their first year at the university. However, they differed in other ways, including how they managed arriving at and going through college. Raquel discussed relying on social resources such as mentors, programs, and services in order to graduate from high school and re-enroll (and thrive) at the university. On the other hand, Martin discussed relying on his own means in order to graduate from high school, attend community college, and transfer to the university. In addition, while Raquel enjoyed writing, found the class very useful, and wanted to continue writing after the course ended, Martin was less interested, had some positive experiences in the writing course, and reported writing very little, partially due to a lack of need.

They also differed in how they incorporated personal experiences into their writing, with Raquel making more explicit references to her life. Thus the heteroglossic element of Raquel's writing was more salient. Raquel used her own experiences to provide themes in the letter and she

referenced herself explicitly as a model example of someone who benefited from mentorship, thus creating a heteroglossic text. She also described herself as a Latina who was able to thrive in the university because of social support. It was possible to see in the generic examples and those that mentioned her life overtly how the letter served as a performance of agency and storytelling to the people who did not support her during high school. It was a way to rewrite her history. Furthermore, the drafts revealed changes in source integration, such as source author voices becoming less prominent as her own emerged. She talked about research as a place where she could find answers but also generate new ideas. The final draft overall had a clear stance as well as a prominence of her voice and personal experience as sources of legitimacy and authority.

However, Martin's research topic seemed slightly contradictory to his personal narrative. This contradiction suggests the complex nature of identity and how individuals can interact with such an issue by writing on a topic relevant to their lives. To reiterate, he wrote about how the education system tracks people like himself, ignoring factors related to income, ethnicity, culture, and gender. Martin found this idea through the class, when he realized his experience was similar to those in a documentary on tracking. During the drafting process, Martin drew upon his experiences to create an argument, showing the constraints and limitations put on students like him. Although Martin did not explicitly mention himself in his research essay addressed to teachers (his experiences were generalized), the arguments and examples paralleled his experiences and were still heteroglossic. However, like Raquel, the project served as a way for Martin to recognize factors beyond his control that influenced his struggles in school; in addition, the document was a way for him to communicate with teachers in order to propose a change to how he and people like him get treated in school.

Overall, Martin and Raquel's personal lives and experiences factored into the writing

classroom, and the heteroglossic nature of writing research-based texts allowed for them to have agency by proposing a change in their educational experiences. They were also able to learn about the systemic aspects of their academic struggles and compose a document that proposed a change in their circumstances. While particularly focused on two students from Latin@ backgrounds and working class families, their experiences could be representative of undergraduate writers in general. Specifically, I mean they incorporated their lives into their writing practices in ways other students could as well; furthermore, the different attitudes on writing that the two had and how this affected their class performance could be observed in students from a variety of backgrounds.

7.1.4 Limitations

This study has limitations to consider when interpreting findings. For one, it is a case study of a small group of students and instructors in a particular context. It cannot be generalized across contexts because it does not meet the parameters to do so. Findings and arguments need to be considered and approached from the situation-specific research context. What the reader could do is consider similarities other case studies might have, such as the population or type of writing being done, and compare them in order to understand multiple perspectives and experiences; in other words, readers can "explore the meanings that a similar experience has" (Menard-Warwick et al., 2013, pp. 969-970).

Another consideration that limits the interpretation of results is the amount of observations, interviews, and analyses done. As I did not observe every class, readers may need to take into consideration the activities and conversations on source engagement and use that were not observed. Furthermore, as discussed in Chapter 3, time spent with participants varied as

well as the amount and types of texts to analyze, such as copies of feedback. Some but not all of the courses had built in reflection assignments that I could access for understanding perspectives on the drafting process. All of these considerations are within the normal parameters of a classroom ethnographic case study, but it may be important to be reminded of them. Along the same lines, this research involves subjective activities and has the researcher as the instrument, such that my background affected how data was understood and approached.

Regarding one last aspect, though beyond the scope of the study, it is important to recognize that response does not start with the writing process. Rather, engagement with sources begins with the act of reading. Furthermore, the drafting process involves a mixture of reading and writing when responding. Studies focusing on source incorporation from the reading response standpoint, such as (McCulloch, 2013), are needed for holistic understanding of the process starting not with the writing process but with reading. Last, researchers (Petrić, 2012; Swales, 2014) are considering the importance of focusing on features of exemplary student writing rather than just weak student writing or exemplary journal articles. This aspect was not a scope of this study, as consideration of grades or classroom performance was not made when analyzing data. However, in general, compared with other students, Mara's writing had characteristics of an exemplary type of writing in the way she used sources and constructed sentences (See Section 3.3.9 and Chapters 4 and 5).

7.2 Research and theory: Implications

This study drew upon various aspects of Bakhtinian theory (Bakhtin, 1981, 1986) as a framework through which to view language, writing, and learning. Some of these include approaching language as social, historical, multi-faceted in meaning and multiply owned, as well

as difficult to acquire because of such factors. Such beliefs are at odds with current academic writing practices regarding ownership of language. Appraisal Theory (Martin & White, 2005) elaborates on Bakhtinian ideas by focusing on ways in which people evaluate others and give their opinions and stances. In academic writing settings, where referencing past research and literature is an integral activity, questions come up regarding dialogue, voice, ownership, and attitude. When viewed from a standpoint that sees language as owned by many and never just one person, topics such as plagiarism, paraphrasing, endorsement of sources, and use of personal experience become more relevant sites of inquiry; such a standpoint can also reveal how such topics connect to one another.

As discussed in Section 2.5.1, dialogic voicing as it relates to paraphrasing appears to be an unexplored yet potentially fruitful area for research. While the Bakhtinian notion of dialogic voicing has been discussed in terms of quotations in writing (Baynham, 1999), previous paraphrasing studies have not addressed this, which is why I tried to do so in this dissertation. I found that paraphrases are not just complete re-tellings of an idea; rather, they contain a varying degree of linguistic and stylistic elements of the cited source. Thus not just one voice is being heard in a paraphrase, but two, though the extent to which the two voices are distinguishable most likely varies. This has been discussed by Bakhtin (1986) regarding Dickens' sporadic uses of particular registers of speech during sections of his novels that were narrated (meaning they did not contain dialogue from characters). While Dickens moves in and out of voices in order to poke fun at a particular type of speaker, this may not be the case when (student) writers paraphrase a source, particularly of a respectable author whose views are endorsed. Exploring this area of Bakhtinian theory to paraphrasing in this dissertation has had theoretical uses, and it added new avenues through which his theory can be applied to fields. I found it has also

been constructive to approach paraphrasing through a dialogic lens in order to answer questions of ownership, (in)appropriate language borrowing, and language development.

7.2.1 Paraphrasing parameters: Pluralizing paraphrasing

A few considerations can be drawn from the research I did both looking at perspectives on paraphrasing and the student paraphrases themselves. The focal participants and instructors appeared to have varying and vaguely defined understanding of paraphrasing, particularly with markers that set apart an appropriate paraphrase from a plagiarized one. However, there is no "right definition," as experts also dispute the conditions for plagiarism, such as the minimum number of consecutive words required to constitute a transgressive text (Deckert, 1994; Pennycook, 1994, 1996; Shi, 2006). That is, definitive parameters are not entirely possible given the subjectivity of the topic, but I found that finding ways to analyze a paraphrased text beyond ratio of verbatim language was useful, particularly by adopting the typology created by Barron, Vila, Marti and Rosso (2013) and Vila, Marti and Rodriguez (2014). The categorization system based on grammar allowed for analysis of text beyond a switching of words and clarifies what people might mean when they discuss the need to change the sentence structure of a source text and not just "switch words." I believe the field of plagiarism and paraphrasing inquiries would grow by adopting methods of analysis used in this dissertation that look at the close linguistic structures of original and paraphrased texts. Such research allows for discussions based on concrete linguistic features, which may help unveil the ambiguities behind paraphrasing, patchwriting, and plagiarism.

On a related note, the term "paraphrase" marks a number of varying activities in varying contexts, such as in a decontextualized writing exercise versus a research paper. Just as Howard

and Robillard(2008) call for a pluralizing of plagiarism, I believe that paraphrasing needs to be broken down according to context, form, and use. For one, this includes the similarities between summarizing and paraphrasing when used in a text and the limited utility of describing source incorporation solely as quoting, summarizing, or paraphrasing. A paraphrasing typology like the one I adopted for my research allows researchers to analyze differences, in factors such as the function (e.g. incorporation of added meaning) and the form (e.g. the blending of quotation and paraphrase within a single clause). Other ideas for classification when analyzing paraphrases will be discussed in the next few paragraphs.

First, breaking down parameters of paraphrasing can help as well with understanding the role of making inferences in university-sanctioned paraphrases (Yamada, 2003). Looking at what types of assumptions are being made about the reader, content, and common knowledge could help with understanding what added elements of a paraphrase are deemed appropriate and which might be seen as deviating too much from the source author's ideas. This is especially relevant given findings that some students prefer close paraphrases because they think the ones with added inference change the meaning (Keck, 2010). Approaches that consider the role of inference speak to larger rhetorical issues of the use of paraphrasing in writing, such as under which circumstances certain disciplines paraphrase. Moreover, analyses of paraphrases need to address how the source author is discussed, such as whether s/he is mentioned within a text, which I addressed in Chapter 4.

Paraphrasing typologies could also be used to identify features and functions of paraphrases in published texts versus those in a classroom writing exercise (Liu & Tannacito, 2013). The former require cohesion with the text in which it is embedded while the other may be decontextualized sentences. Both are valid forms of paraphrasing, in that the latter could help

with language learners when working with embedding clauses, vocabulary development and other forms. However, considerations need to be made for helping student make the connection between paraphrasing exercises done in class and the paraphrasing done in their own writing. Through use of a typology, both paraphrasing and plagiarism could be explored in addition to the ratio of verbatim to non-verbatim text.

In addition, paraphrases judged as appropriate may be a combination of verbatim strings of text and new linguistic forms made from morphological, lexical, and syntactic changes. It may be that certain clusters of features are more acceptable than others. This can be considered in light of lexical bundles and formulaic sentence structure common in academia, such as the use (or not) of a nominalized phrase. When a source text uses exemplary yet frequently occurring academic language, the question of ownership arises. In addition, it may be counterproductive to request a student writer move away from academic sentence structures or forms based on the argument to avoid plagiarizing.

Using a theoretical framework which recognizes paraphrases as demonstrating a critical interaction with an outside source helps appreciate the work that goes into paraphrasing. It is never just a mirroring of a source; as shown in the student paraphrases in Chapters 4 and 5, the dialogic nature of paraphrasing signals analysis and critique from the authorial voice. The students often drew upon inferential information and made an evaluation of the source author. Thus, even a poor paraphrase or patchwritten sentence indicates to readers and instructors that the students are practicing activities which the academy values and hopes to develop in students. Pecorari(2003) expressed a similar idea succinctly, when she noted, "today's patch-writer is tomorrow's competent academic writer, given the necessary support to develop" (Pecorari, 2003, p. 338).

A final consideration needs to be discussed regarding effort. At times, participants described paraphrasing as preferable to quotations because it involved a certain amount of work from a student writer. If connections are made between effort and changing the text from a cited source via linguistic manipulation, then it needs to be determined which linguistic changes qualify as work; this includes the role of derivations (where grammatical changes are made but the root remains the same), word choice, and syntactic structure. If unintentional plagiarism due to patchwriting relates to effort in altering language, then it would prove useful to understand what type of linguistic changes (using a synonym versus changing the class of the word) index “effort” to teachers. Moreover, researchers need to explore this assumption that more work is better for students in light of arguments that academic writing already poses many challenges. While *work* is elemental to paraphrasing and source incorporation, perhaps the appropriateness of a paraphrased text needs to be judged beyond amount of time spent creating it.

7.2.2 Features of source use: Source integration and vocalization

For researching distinctive features of source incorporation, it may prove beneficial to address other linguistic aspects than marking a citation as a paraphrase, summary, or quotation. Variations found in previous research seemed to already suggest this (Lee, 2010; Petrić, 2012). Paraphrasing, summarizing, and quoting are not three equal mediums for incorporating a source; rather, decisions on source incorporation affect how a source is framed and understood. Language is multiple indexed and never owned by just one person (Bakhtin, 1981). Therefore, approaching the study of source use from a dialogic and heteroglossic perspective (Bakhtin, 1981) opened up research to explore important features beyond the discourse of paraphrase, summary, and quotation, as seen in Chapter 4 and 6.

This approach looks at source use as it pertains to engagement via Appraisal Theory (2005) and understanding the interactions between the authorial voice and the source author. Looking at such a dialogue can be particularly useful for understanding variations across disciplines and text type. I found analyzing student writing in such a manner led to discoveries on how students were able to effectively weave in outside sources to support their arguments, even students who really struggled or disliked writing (e.g. Patrick and Becky). I could describe student writing beyond *paraphrase*, *summary* or *quote* by addressing whether or not they had in-text citations, if the source was used to support student arguments, and how dialogically expansive or contractive a student's text was.

One feature to consider is the way in which stance toward a topic and a source author is expressed in particular genres. Exemplary texts in a discipline may tend to engage their sources in a particular way, such as using them when making strong claims rather than entertaining ideas. In addition, source author integration appears to be an important feature yet to be understood across disciplines and contexts, such as under what circumstances writers address the source author by name, reference the source as an abstract concept, or only use end of text citations. These relate to aspects of vocalization, such as whether the agent or subject in a cited sentence is the authorial voice, source author, or a non-human entity, such as *the research* or *studies*. While Hu and Wang (2014) make only a binary distinction between integration of the source author's proper name or not, there appears to be rhetorical differences in other types of vocalization, such as the use of abstract or animate subjects. For example, identifying a source by use of *researchers* but not proper names might have a specific rhetorical use, as discussed in Chapter 4.

It is clear that the overall perceived effectiveness of a writing assignment involves multiple factors, whose weights vary in importance. Ambiguity in endorsement may be

associated with certain types of texts or writing styles, which leaves room to understand the role of voice and control over a text. When making pronouncements or critiques, using abstract nouns for agents may be a way to mitigate responsibility of the authorial voice.

A last consideration that helped contextualize my findings relates to writing in ways that are congruent with norms of a discipline or genre. Discussions of norms or tendencies stem from analyses of patterns in large amounts of texts. This corpus-based perspective, which focuses on understanding the role of lexical bundles and formulaic language, may be useful when considering how endorsements and propositions of possibilities are made. Though I did not perform analysis on large corpora, I still found it insightful to consider whether or not the focal participants used formulaic language in ways similar to academic journal articles or students in other contexts. It helped contextualize the student writing beyond individual differences and to see the socially-constructed, heteroglossic quality of language use, as well as the precarious nature of language ownership and “originality.”

Furthermore, given that grammatical structures are also used widely in corpus data, it may prove useful to analyze such forms with source use for application to language development. Contextualized features should also be given consideration, such as the various uses of *according to* as a marker for endorsement or one of distancing. Another example is whether a source author is integrated via a noun phrase, *Smith's (1999) study*, or subject of a verb phrase, *Smith (1999) showed*, as this appears to vary based on writer expertise (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). So, formulaic grammatical structures are just as important to consider as formulaic bundles of text.

7.2.3 Student voice: Constraint agency and discussing the self

Though some courses are designed to have students draw upon personal experiences when researching topics, there are other ways in which the lives of students factor into assignments. One way may be the practices students employ in order to succeed in the educational system despite economic and social constraints. For two students, the research assignments in the writing course became places where self-reflection could occur, as well as discovery that others had similar experiences.

Understanding Raquel and Martin's backgrounds as contextualized in the writing class allowed for exploration of identities and learning. It allowed for analysis that explored, not whether one 'self' is more 'real' than another, but rather to what extent individuals hang on to 'a sense of continuous identity' across multiple social contexts and instances of discourse—and to what extent this sense affects opportunities to learn new languages and literacies (Menard-Warwick, 2005, p. 270).

Senses of identity and the self appeared to affect opportunities for academic literacy development and appropriation of discipline specific discourses. In my analysis, Martin and Raquel were in fact able to display a continuity of self by writing in a heteroglossic manner which highlighted their personal experiences. Notably, students from a variety of backgrounds and upbringings could write in such a way. The students were able to do this in a way that displayed their membership in an academic community, marking educational achievement, including emphasizing research-based evidence over personal narrative. Furthermore, there are multiple ways to express personal experience in a written text besides a narrative format. Martin and Raquel were creative in using examples and outside sources to represent their own lives and broadly occurring phenomena in a way that created a heteroglossic text.

In examining Martin's and Raquel's essays, I found that the written text itself may serve as a medium through which students can enact an agentic response to the educational system which had failed them in many ways. Moreover, the research-based writing projects functioned as a way for students to engage literature and the field of study while making connections to their own histories. For those who faced multiple barriers during their school years and struggled through school, such as Raquel and Martin, learning about systemic socio-cultural factors that limit mobility provided some possible explanations for why they struggled in higher education.

As potential future educators and members of society, contextualizing individual experiences in largely researched phenomena may help such students become better teachers and community members who can effectively assist future students from similar backgrounds. Moreover, they also wrote more involved pieces of writing (Comfort, 2000), which was an integral goal of the observed writing classes. In this context, students can practice being a part of a discourse community, learning the important practices, while at the same time using their interaction with sources to participate in "new ways to mean" (Bakhtin, 1981, p. 343).

7.3 Pedagogy: Implications

7.3.1 Appraisal theory and discourse appropriation: Participating in academic communities

Appraisal Theory offers a useful framework through which to analyze argument and interaction in language, including in media outlets such as newspapers, which have been shown to demonstrate biases via reported speech and quotations (Jullian, 2011). In academic settings, sources are used to frame and construct an argument, and having a system through which to analyze and teach effective writing in various disciplines may help students acquire the literacies needed to excel in academia. Practitioners and researchers have proposed using Appraisal

Theory and its parent theory, Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), for these purposes in education. Coffin and Donahue (2012) describe this approach as understanding

that there are certain varieties of *meaning – making* (such as those relating to disciplinary discourses) which are not equally distributed in society. In response, it aims to support more *equal access* to these *discourses*...it can be seen as a model which equips students and equally disciplinary lecturers with the resources to see language for *what it is* i.e. *ideologically* shaped and constitutive of *knowledge* and *identity*. (p. 72, italics added)

Beyond using sources to support an argument, students can participate in larger practices of how knowledge and evidence are constructed in their discipline. They could also look at issues of authoritative discourses (Bakhtin, 1981) and under what circumstances a person's language and ideas are valued. Likewise, Martin (2011) describes such teaching practices and curriculum as “democratic literacy pedagogy,” which he labels “subversive” (p. 35, as discussed in Coffin & Donahue, 2012). While there are arguments as to whether or not academic writing should be subversive, what writing classes can do for students is “provide the linguistic potential for them (if they choose) to critique from within and renegotiate their position (and in some sense their identity/identities) in society” (Coffin & Donahue, 2012, p. 72). The linguistic potential comes from understanding language that evaluates, intensifies or occludes, and opens or closes dialogue. Appraisal Theory systems can identify and organize such linguistic activity.

Pecorari and Shaw (2012) call for the need to connect form and function when it comes to source use and appropriation of academic literacy. However, understanding such practices as complex is important, since incorporating outside sources involves a “constellation of linguistic resources” (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 9). The work required to take research findings from discourse analysis via Appraisal Theory and corpus linguistics to classroom practices and

application seems substantial. Ferris (2011) notes the potential that such type of research can have on teaching writing and the need for practical translations for curriculum development. At the same time, she recognizes the complexity in approaches such as Systemic Functional Linguistics (from which Appraisal Theory originates), in that there is a large gap between what it does and how it can be used in a classroom. Therefore, an essential component to bridging research and curriculum is to focus on

recognizable features of texts produced for specific audiences or discourse communities, and on ways to help novices trying to enter those communities *analyze* the characteristics of those text-types so that they can successfully produce texts that will be *understandable* and—more importantly—*acceptable* to their target audiences. (Ferris, 2011, p. 654, on *genre studies*, italics added)

Nevertheless, with careful planning and attention to writing activities that involve reflection and recursion, such practices may be feasible for writing practitioners to use with their students (See Hyland, 2007, for more discussion).

For source incorporation, further considerations beyond type of incorporation (the triad of summarizing, paraphrasing, or quoting) is needed, including discussion of integration of a source author, expression of stance and endorsement toward a cited source, and linguistic features such as reporting verbs, modality, and subject type (such as *it, research*, or the source author). Looking at model texts for ways in which sources are used could help students find patterns they might want to incorporate into their own writing, and this may be particularly true for students working on developing academic English in the form of complex syntactic features and vocabulary. Referencing the literature on structural templates and tendencies beyond the “reporting verb + *that*” noun clause may also help, such as the use of *it* complement clauses and the role noun

phrases can play in integrating a source author, such as *Smith's (1999) work*. However, it is important to stress that students should not just use bundles or structures as steadfast rules (Ferris, 2011). Rather, students should consider these patterns selectively and as they see fitting for their own writing styles and purposes, allowing for space to make the language “one’s own.”

7.3.2 Focused practice and paraphrasing: Patchwriting and formulaic language

Writing practitioners could think about different ways to approach paraphrasing in their classes. Students may benefit from lessons and exercises that look at how paraphrases are used by journals or exemplary student texts, in order to analyze linguistic changes and how the source was integrated. Analysis could also focus on the closeness of the paraphrase and whether new meanings were included. Comparing paraphrases of this type with those in controlled exercises could help students like the one from Liu and Tannacitos's(2013) study, who felt unable to transition from paraphrasing in decontextualized handouts to argumentative essays.

Another avenue to consider in classes is to complicate the commonplace idea that sources can be paraphrased, summarized, or quoted when in reality they can be a blend, as seen with Candace; also, some texts appearing to lie between being a paraphrase and a summary. With quotations, it may be beneficial to go beyond discouraging students from using long quotes or keeping their quotes short. The additional skill to be taught is quoting clauses and phrases within a sentence and considering embedding, placement, and function. This may involve having students look for features and patterns in model texts in terms of type of quotations and length, placement in the text (i.e. in the introduction, as evidence, etc.), and rhetorical function. Furthermore, students may incorporate a source by paraphrasing part of it and quoting another part, which may involve challenging manipulation of language similar to the

incorporation of short quotes.

For writing assignments, creating a space where students can practice paraphrasing texts may prove useful, even if the paraphrases are fairly similar to the original text. Past practitioners and researchers have suggested this (Li & Casanave, 2012; Pecorari & Shaw, 2012), including distinguishing between high- and low stakes writing practices, with patchwriting activities reserved for the latter. For writing assignments that include annotated bibliographies, it may be useful to include a section where students must select quotations and paraphrasing them.

When discussing source incorporation in writing, students and instructors may also benefit from actually discussing Bakhtinian theory, such as notions of dialogism, intertextuality, and language appropriation. Halasek (1999) suggests this idea, noting:

No work is ever original in that it is always already part of a *complex set of discursive relationships*. By asking students to understand discourse in Bakhtinian terms, we demand that they become *self-conscious* about and *attentive* to the language they use. (p. 6, italics added)

By establishing all language and writing as social and collaborative, students may feel more open to receiving feedback and seeking help. Drawing student's attention to the heteroglossic aspect of language and writing may also be sensible grounds for discussion of academic honesty, plagiarism, and ownership of words. Such an approach may help clarify confusion around learning language from sources, paraphrasing and citing sources, as well as the role of intertextuality in academia in general.

7.3.3 Dialogic practices: Annotated bibliographies

Perhaps recognizing the importance of response in all forms of communication (Bakhtin,

1986), the writing instructors appear to value source engagement through response. Response took many forms, such as in assignments that encouraged students to think about the background of the source author and how that might factor into their stances on issues. Paraphrasing also was discussed with the idea of response, when instructors stressed the need to put in work with integrating another's language. Such efforts seemed to represent a degree of student response. Denise and Paula recognized the need to assist students in engaging with their sources, by using the scaffolding activity of an annotated bibliography, where students summarize their sources for the research project, discuss the credibility of the author, and explain why and how the source will be used. The instructor Paula noted, "It's like a miracle assignment!" when discussing the difference she saw in her students' papers from when she did not have them do an annotated bibliography to when she began to incorporate it into her syllabus (Interview, 4/3/13).

One reason annotated bibliographies may be effective is because students must make connections among the various arguments being made, including their own, and it "forces them to make that distinction" between summarizing a source and figuring out how to incorporate it into one's argument (Paula, Interview, 4/3/13). Another instructor, Denise, used the annotated bibliography for similar reasons and provided feedback on the students' citations (Interview, 4/10/13). The annotated bibliography as used by Paula and Denise requires students to be in dialogue with their sources and formulate responses through summarizing, with Denise asking them to respond with "this is useful to me because..." (Observation, 11/6/12).

Though not very many students seemed familiar with this type of text (Paula, Observations, 12/3/12; Denise, Observations, 11/1/12), I observed Wes and a small group of peers discuss their annotated bibliographies; the students discussed their topics, sources, and solicited feedback on their ideas and findings so far (Paula, Observations, 12/3/12). In Wes'

annotated bibliography, he summarized six sources and described how they were useful to him. At the least, it appears that this assignment helps students begin discussion not only with their sources but also their peers on their research topic. Claudia discussed learning how to use MLA formatting through annotated bibliographies (Interview, 11/7/12), though the other students did not express much of an opinion on the assignment. Nevertheless, this activity makes students consider the propositions being made by a source and respond via guided questions.

Incorporating such practices may be useful for writing courses not only to practice argumentation and synthesizing but also for academic language development. Though not directly observed, annotated bibliographies could be a place where students practice different types of paraphrasing and can be a low-stakes space to work on language appropriation or change without fears of accusations of plagiarism.

7.4 Final thoughts

Considering this research project in the larger discussion of education, linguistics and writing, I see my work as addressing some questions while opening up spaces for many more to be asked and hopefully answered. It is my response to wanting to both explore a complex phenomenon in the literature (Casanave, 2003) and understand how students can succeed in college. The central focus involved issues of ownership and language, which are topics embedded in various conversations because of their connections to pedagogy and the academy. I wanted to know how students develop academic literacies through interacting with outside sources. One of the project's main points is understanding that academic writing is quite socially-embedded, partially because of the amount of shared information and language involved. Burnham (2001) described this phenomena succinctly when saying, "Remember, however, that

bibliographic entries begin with names of persons. These are the people who have shaped my thinking..." (p. 21). Certainly, for my project, I found this to be true.

Appendix A

Survey on Language Background and Use

IF THERE IS ANY QUESTION YOU DON'T WANT TO ANSWER, IT'S FINE TO SKIP IT. IF YOU NEED MORE SPACE, CONTINUE ON THE BACK OR ALONG THE SIDES.

Name _____ Age ____ Gender _____ Ethnicity(ies) _____
Year in school _____ Major _____ Transfer Student ____ Career Plans _____

1. What was/were the first language(s) you learned at home?
2. What language(s) do your parents speak?
3. In what language(s) do you and your parents communicate?
4. In what language(s) do you and your siblings/other relatives communicate?
5. In what language(s) do you and your friends communicate?
6. What language(s) do you use to communicate at work?
7. What language(s) have you studied at school? How many years?
8. What language(s) have you learned/used in other ways (e.g. travel, work, in the community)?
9. Besides English, in what language(s) can you read and write?
 - a) For each language, what kinds of things do you read (e.g. novels, emails)?
 - b) And what kinds of things do you write (e.g. instant messages, poems)?
 - c) Is there any other way you regularly use a language that you know besides English (e.g. watching movies)?
10. Where were you born?
11. In what countries have you lived for 6 months or longer? When and for how long?
12. In what regions of the United States have you lived for 6 months or longer? How long?
13. Where did you attend high school?
14. Do you use any dialect or non-standard variety of English on a regular basis? Please explain.
15. Self-rate your English language abilities from 1-4 with "1" being "weak" and "4" being "very strong."
Listening (1-4) ____ Speaking (1-4) ____ Reading (1-4) ____ Writing (1-4) ____
16. Outside of school, what percentage of the time do you use English? (Circle answer)
> 25% 25-50% 51-75% 76-100%
17. Are you interested in working with me on your essays as a tutor?
Yes ____ Maybe ____ No ____

Appendix B

“Grading Standards for Advanced Writing Courses”: Rubric for the University Writing Program at UC Davis

General characteristics by letter grade of university-level student papers

The A paper	The B paper	The C paper	The D paper	The F paper
<p>Excels in responding to assignment. Interesting, demonstrates sophistication of thought. Central idea/thesis is clearly communicated, worth developing, limited enough to be manageable. Paper recognizes some complexity of its thesis: may acknowledge its contradictions, qualifications, or limits and follow out their logical implications. Understands and critically evaluates its sources; appropriately limits and defines terms.</p> <p>Uses a logical structure appropriate to paper's subject, purpose, audience, thesis, and disciplinary field. Sophisticated transitional sentences often develop one idea from the previous one or identify their logical relations. It guides the reader through the chain of reasoning or progression of ideas.</p> <p>Uses evidence appropriately and effectively, providing sufficient evidence and explanation to convince.</p> <p>Chooses words for their precise meanings and uses an appropriate level of specificity. Sentence style fits paper's audience and purpose. Sentences are varied, yet clearly structured and carefully focused, not long and rambling.</p> <p>Almost entirely free of spelling, punctuation, and grammatical errors.</p>	<p>A solid paper, responding appropriately to assignment. Has clearly stated thesis or idea, but may have minor lapses in development. Begins to acknowledge the complexity of central idea and the possibility of other points of view. Shows careful reading of sources, but may not evaluate them critically. Attempts to define terms, not always successfully.</p> <p>Shows a logical progression of ideas and uses fairly sophisticated transitional devices: e.g., may move from least to most important idea. Some logical links may be faulty, but each ¶ clearly relates to paper's central idea.</p> <p>Begins to offer reasons to support its points, perhaps using varied kinds of evidence. Begins to interpret the evidence and explain connections between evidence and main ideas. Its examples bear some relevance.</p> <p>Generally uses words accurately and effectively, but may sometimes be too general. Sentences generally clear, well structured, focused - though some may be awkward and ineffective.</p> <p>May contain a few errors, which may annoy the reader but not impede understanding.</p>	<p>Adequate but weaker and less effective, possibly responding less well to assignment. Presents central idea in general terms often depending on platitudes or clichés. Usually does not acknowledge other views. Shows basic comprehension of sources, perhaps with some lapses in understanding. If it defines terms, often depends on dictionary definitions.</p> <p>May list ideas or arrange them randomly rather than using any evident logical structure. May use transitions, but they are likely to be sequential (first, second, third) rather than logic based. While each ¶ may relate to a central idea, logic is not always clear. ¶s have topic sentences but may be overly general, and arrangement of sentences within ¶s may lack coherence.</p> <p>Often uses generalizations to support its points. May use examples, but they may be obvious or not relevant. Often depends on unsupported opinion or personal experience, or assumes that evidence speaks for itself and needs no application to point being discussed. Often has lapses in logic.</p> <p>Uses relatively vague and general words, may use some inappropriate language. Sentence structure generally correct, but sentences may be wordy, unfocused, repetitive, or confusing.</p> <p>Usually contains several mechanical errors, which may temporarily confuse the reader but not impede overall understanding.</p>	<p>Does not have a clear central idea or does not respond appropriately to the assignment. Thesis may be too vague or obvious to be developed effectively. Paper may misunderstand sources.</p> <p>May have random organization, lacking internal ¶ coherence and using few or inappropriate transitions. ¶s may lack topic sentences or main ideas, or may be too general or too specific to be effective. ¶s may not all relate to paper's thesis.</p> <p>Depends on clichés or overgeneralizations for support, or offers little evidence of any kind. May be personal narrative rather than essay, or summary rather than analysis.</p> <p>May be vague and abstract, or very personal and specific. Usually contains several awkward or ungrammatical sentences; sentence structure is simple or monotonous.</p> <p>Usually contains either many mechanical errors or a few important errors that block the reader's understanding and ability to see connections between thoughts.</p>	<p>Does not assign central idea to use so necessary</p> <p>No appropriate coherence</p> <p>Uses irrelevant evidence entirely.</p> <p>Usually contains awkward language</p> <p>Usually contains many mechanical errors that block the reader's understanding and ability to see connections between thoughts.</p>

References

Abasi, A. R., & Akbari, N. (2008). Are we encouraging patchwriting? Reconsidering the role of the pedagogical context in ESL student writers' transgressive intertextuality. *English for Specific Purposes*, 27(3), 267-284. doi: 10.1016/j.esp.2008.02.001

- Abasi, A. R., Akbari, N., & Graves, B. (2006). Discourse appropriation, construction of identities, and the complex issue of plagiarism: ESL students writing in graduate school. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 15*(2), 102-117. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2006.05.001
- "About us," (n.d.) Movimiento estudiantil chican@ de aztlán: Official national website. Retrieved from <http://www.nationalmecha.org/about.html>
- Ädel, A., & Erman, B. (2012). Recurrent word combinations in academic writing by native and non-native speakers of English: A lexical bundles approach. *English for Specific Purposes, 31*(2), 81-92. doi: 10.1016/j.esp.2011.08.004
- Ahearn, L. (2001). Language and agency. *Annual Review of Anthropology, 30*, 109-137.
- Allison, D. (1995). Assertions and alternatives: Helping ESL undergraduates extend their choices in academic writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 4*(1), 1-15.
- Angelos, J. (2013). "German Minister Quits Over Plagiarism Charge." Retrieved from <http://online.wsj.com/news/articles/SB10001424127887324590904578294254011117238>
- "Background of the GVAR" (n.d.). California State University Dominguez Hills website. Retrieved from <http://www4.csudh.edu/testing-center/gwar/background-of-the-requirement/index> o
- Bakhtin, M. (1981). *The dialogic imagination: Four essays*. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Bakhtin, M. (1986). The problem of speech genres. In C. Emerson & M. Holquist (Eds.), *Speech genres and other late essays* (pp. 60-102). Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Ball, A., & Freedman, W. (Eds.). (2004). *Bakhtinian perspectives on language, literacy, and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Barron-Cedeno, A., Vila, M., Martí, M. A., & Rosso, P. (2013). Plagiarism meets paraphrasing: insights for the next generation in automatic plagiarism detection. *Computational Linguistics*, 39(4), 917-947.
- Bartholomae, D. (1995). Writing with teachers: A conversation with Peter Elbow. *College Composition and Communication*, 46(1), 62-71.
- Baynham, M. (1999). Double-voicing and the scholarly "I": On incorporating the words of others in academic discourse. *Text*, 19, 485–504.
- Bazerman, C. (2003). Rhetorical research for reflective practice: A multi-layered narrative *Research & practice in professional discourse*. Hong Kong: City University of Hong Kong Press.
- Bazerman, C. (2013). *A theory of literate action: literate action volume 2*. Fort Collins, Colorado: The WAC Clearinghouse and Parlor Press.
- Benesch, S. (2008). “Generation 1.5” and its discourses of partiality: A critical analysis. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 7(3-4), 294-311. doi: 10.1080/15348450802237954
- Biber, D. (2006). Stance in spoken and written university registers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5(2), 97-116. doi: 10.1016/j.jeap.2006.05.001
- Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Cortes, V. (2004). If you look at...Lexical bundles in university teaching and textbooks. *Applied Linguistics*, 25(3), 371-405.
- Biber, D., Conrad, S., Reppen, R., Byrd, P., & Helt, M. (2002). Speaking and writing in the university: A multidimensional comparison. *TESOL Quarterly*. 36(1), 9-48.
- Bloch, J. (2001). Plagiarism and the ESL Student. In D. Belcher & A. Hirvela (Eds.), *Linking Literacies: Perspectives on L2 Reading-Writing Connections* (pp. 209-228). Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

- Bloch, J. (2012). *Plagiarism, intellectual property and the teaching of L2 writing*. Buffalo, New York: Multilingual Matters.
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). Cultural reproduction and social reproduction. In J. Karabel & A. H. Halsey (Eds.), *Power and ideology in education* (pp. 487-511). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (1991). *Language and symbolic power*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Polity Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (2012). The school as a conservative force: scholastic and cultural inequalities. In J. Eggleston (Ed.), *Contemporary research in the sociology of education* (pp. 32-46). New York: Routledge.
- Bredo, E., & Feinberg, W. (1982). *Knowledge and values in social and educational research*. Philadelphia: Temple University Press.
- Brockman, E., Taylor, M., Kreth, M., & Crawford, M. K. (2011). What do professors really say about college writing? *English Journal*, 100(3), 75-81.
- Burnham, C. (2001). Expressive pedagogy: Practice/theory, theory/practice. In G. Tate, A. Rupiper & K. Schick (Eds.), *A guide to composition studies* (pp. 19-35). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Butler, J. (1999). *Gender trouble: Feminism and the subversion of identity*. New York: Routledge.
- Byrd, P., & Coxhead, A. (2010). On the other hand: Lexical bundles in academic writing and in the teaching of EAP. *University of Sydney Papers in TESOL*, 5, 31-64.
- Campbell, C. (1998). *Teaching second language writing: Interacting with text*. Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle.
- Canagarajah, A. S. (2003). *Critical academic writing and multilingual students*. Michigan: University of Michigan.

- Canagarajah, S. (2006). Changing communicative needs, revised assessment objectives: Testing English as an international language. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 3(3), 229-242. doi: 10.1207/s15434311laq0303_1
- Cao, F., & Hu, G. (2014). Interactive metadiscourse in research articles: A comparative study of paradigmatic and disciplinary influences. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 66, 15-31. doi: 10.1016/j.pragma.2014.02.007
- Casanave, C. P. (2003). Looking ahead to more sociopolitically-oriented case study research in L2 writing scholarship. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 12(1), 85-102. doi: 10.1016/s1060-3743(03)00002-x
- Cassanave, C. (2004). *Controversies in second language writing: Dilemmas and decisions in research and instruction*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press.
- "State & county quickFacts: California." (2014). The U.S. census bureau. Retrieved from <http://quickfacts.census.gov/qfd/states/06000.html>
- Chandrasoma, R., Thompson, C., & Pennycook, A. (2004). Beyond plagiarism: Transgressive and nontransgressive intertextuality. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 3(3), 171-193. doi: 10.1207/s15327701jlie0303_1
- Charles, M. (2006). The construction of stance in reporting clauses: A cross-disciplinary study of theses. *Applied Linguistics*, 27(3), 492-518. doi: 10.1093/applin/aml021
- Charles, M. (2006). Phraseological patterns in reporting clauses used in citation: A corpus-based study of theses in two disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 25(3), 310-331. doi: 10.1016/j.esp.2005.05.003
- Chen, Y.-H., & Baker, P. (2010). Lexical Bundles in L1 and L2 academic writing. *Language Learning and Technology*, 14(2), pp. 30-49.

- Cimasko, T. (2013). The Purdue OWL: Paraphrasing. Retrieved from <https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/976/02/>
- Cobb, T. (n.d) Web Vocabprofile, an adaptation of Heatley, Nation & Coxhead's (2002) Range. Retrieved from <http://www.lextutor.ca/vp/>
- Coffin, C., & Donohue, J. P. (2012). Academic Literacies and systemic functional linguistics: How do they relate? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11(1), 64-75. doi: 10.1016/j.jeap.2011.11.004
- Comfort, J. R. (2000). Becoming a writerly self: College writers engaging black feminist essays. *College Composition and Communication*. 51(4), 540-549.
- Cortes, V. (2004). Lexical bundles in published and student disciplinary writing: Examples from history and biology. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23(4), 397-423. doi: 10.1016/j.esp.2003.12.001
- Currie, P. (1998). Staying out of trouble: Apparent plagiarism and academic survival. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 7(1), 1-18.
- D'Angelo, F. J. (1979). The art of paraphrase. *College Composition and Communication*, 30(3), 255-259.
- "Data reports" (n.d.). University of California, Davis. Retrieved from <http://gradstudies.ucdavis.edu/faculty-staff/reports-publications/data-reports-ucd-login>
- Davis, M. (2013). The development of source use by international postgraduate students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), 125-135. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.008>
- Davis, R., & Shadle, M. (2000). "Building a mystery": Alternative research writing and the academic act of seeking. *College Composition and Communication*, 51(3), 417-446.

- Deckert, G. D. (1993). Perspectives on plagiarism from ESL students in Hong Kong. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 2(2), 131-148.
- Deckert, G. D. (1994). Author's response to Pennycook's objections. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 3(3), 285-289.
- "Dialogistic expansion and contraction" (2012). The Appraisal Theory website developed by P.R.R. White. Retrieved from <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/appraisalguide/framed/Stage5-Engagement-09.htm>
- Diesing, P. (1971). *Patterns of discovery in the social sciences*. New York: Aldine.
- Duff, P. (2008). *Case study research in applied linguistics*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Duggan, F. (2006). Plagiarism: prevention, practice and policy. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 31(2), 151-154. doi: 10.1080/02602930500262452
- Durrant, P. (2009). Investigating the viability of a collocation list for students of English for academic purposes. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28(3), 157-169. doi: 10.1016/j.esp.2009.02.002
- Durrant, P., & Mathews-Aydinli, J. (2011). A function-first approach to identifying formulaic language in academic writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, 30(1), 58-72. doi: 10.1016/j.esp.2010.05.002
- Emerson, R. M., Fretz, R. I., & Shaw, L. L. (1995). *Writing ethnographic fieldnotes*. Chicago: Chicago University Press.

- "Engagement- a Bakhtinian perspective." (2012). The Appraisal Theory website developed by P.R.R. White. Retrieved from <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/appraisaloutline/framed/AppraisalOutline-15.htm>.
- Fairclough, N. (1992). Intertextuality in critical discourse analysis. *Linguistics and Education*, 4, 269-293.
- Faltis, C. (1997). Case study methods in researching language and education. In N. H. H. D. Corson (Ed.), *Research methods in language and education* (pp. 145-152). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishing.
- Ferris, D. R. (2009). *Teaching college writing to diverse student populations*. Michigan: University of Michigan Press.
- Ferris, D. R. (2011). Written discourse and second language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. 2, pp. 645-662). New York: Routledge.
- Ferris, D. R., & Thaiss, C. (2011). Writing at UC Davis: Addressing the needs of second language writers. *Across the Disciplines*, 8(4). Retrieved from <http://wac.colostate.edu/atd/ell/ferris-thaiss.cfm>
- "Fingertip facts on education in California- CalEdFacts" (n.d.). California Department of Education. Retrieved from <http://www.cde.ca.gov/ds/sd/cb/ceffingertipfacts.asp>
- Flowerdew, J., & Li, Y. (2007). Language re-use among Chinese apprentice scientists writing for publication. *Applied Linguistics*, 28(3), 440-465. doi: 10.1093/applin/amm031
- Gardner, D. (2013). *Exploring vocabulary: Language in action*. New York: Routledge.
- Geertz, C. (1973). *The interpretation of cultures: Selected essays*. New York: Basic Books.
- Glaser, B., & Strauss, A. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory*. Chicago: Aldine.

- Gourlay, L., & Deane, J. (2012). Loss, responsibility, blame? Staff discourses of student plagiarism. *Innovations in Education and Teaching International*, 49(1), 19-29. doi: 10.1080/14703297.2012.647780
- "Governor's budget summary 2014-15" (2013). The California legislature regular session 2013-14. Retrieved from <http://www.ebudget.ca.gov/2014-15/pdf/BudgetSummary/FullBudgetSummary.pdf>
- "Grading standards for advanced writing courses" (n.d.). Rubric for the University Writing Program at UC Davis. Retrieved from <http://writing.ucdavis.edu/instructor-resources/grading-standards-1/>
- Graff, G., & Birkenstein, C. (2010). *I say: The moves that matter in academic writing*. New York: W.W Norton & Company, Inc.
- Gu, Q., & Brooks, J. (2008). Beyond the accusation of plagiarism. *System*, 36(3), 337-352. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2008.01.004
- Halasek, K. (2005). An enriching methodology: Bakhtin's "dialogic origin and dialogic pedagogy of grammar" and the teaching of writing. *Written Communication*, 22(3), 355-362. doi: 10.1177/0741088305278031
- Hall, S. (1996). Introduction: Who needs 'identity'? In S. Hall & P. du Gay (Eds.), *Questions of cultural identity* (pp. 1-17). London: Sage.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Harklau, L., McClanahan, S., & Mendez, M. (2012). How Paola got to college: One Latina's unlikely college success story. In Y. Kanno & L. Harklau (Eds.), *Language minority students go to college: Preparation, access, and persistence* (pp. 74-90). New York: Routledge.

- Hayes, N., & Introna, L. D. (2005). Cultural values, plagiarism, and fairness: When plagiarism gets in the way of learning. *Ethics and Behavior*, 15(3), 213-231.
- Heath, S. B. (1982). What no bedtime story means: Narrative skills at home and school. *Language in Society*, 11(1), 49-76.
- Heatley, A., Nation, I.S.P., & Coxhead, A. (2002). RANGE and FREQUENCY programs. Retrieved from <http://www.victoria.ac.nz/lals/staff/paul-nation.aspx>
- Hewings, A., Lillis, T., & Vladimirou, D. (2010). Who's citing whose writings? A corpus based study of citations as interpersonal resource in English medium national and English medium international journals. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9(2), 102-115. doi: 10.1016/j.jeap.2010.02.005
- Hewings, M., & Hewings, A. (2002). "It is interesting to note that...": a comparative study of anticipatory 'it' in student and published writing. *English for Specific Purposes*, 21, 367-383.
- Hinkel, E. (2002). *Second language writer's text: Linguistic and rhetorical features*. New York: Routledge.
- Hirvela, A., & Du, Q. (2013). "Why am I paraphrasing?": Undergraduate ESL writers' engagement with source-based academic writing and reading. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), 87-98. doi: 10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.005
- Holland, D., Lachicotte Jr., W., Skinner, D., & Cain, C. (1998). *Identity and agency in cultural worlds*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press.
- Hood, S. (2004). Managing attitude in undergraduate academic writing: A focus on the introductions to research reports. In L. Ravelli & R. Ellis (Eds.), *Analyzing academic writing: Contextualized frameworks* (pp. 24-44). London: Continuum.

- Howard, R. M. (1992). A plagiarism penitence. *Journal of Teaching Writing*, 11(2), 233-245.
- Howard, R. M. (1999). *Standing in shadow giants: Plagiarists, authors, collaborators*. Stamford, Connecticut: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Howard, R. M., & Robillard, A. E. (Eds.). (2008). *Pluralizing plagiarism: Identities, context, pedagogies*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook.
- Howard, R.M., Serviss, T. & Rodrigue, T. (2010). Writing from sources, writing from sentences. *Writing & Pedagogy*, 2(2), 177-192.
- Hu, G., & Wang, G. (2014). Disciplinary and ethnolinguistic influences on citation in research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 14, 14-28. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2013.11.001>
- Hudson, R. (2010). *An introduction to word grammar*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hutchings, C. (2014). Referencing and identity, voice and agency: Adult learners' transformations within literacy practices. *Higher Education Research & Development*, 33(2), 312-324. doi: 10.1080/07294360.2013.832159
- Hyland, K. (1994). Hedging in academic writing and eap textbooks. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13(3), 239-256.
- Hyland, K. (1997). Scientific claims and community values: articulating an academic culture. *Language and Communication*, 17(1), 19-31.
- Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*: New York: Pearson Education.
- Hyland, K. (2004). Patterns of engagement: Dialogic features and L2 undergraduate writing. In L. Ravelli & R. Ellis (Eds.), *Analyzing academic writing: contextualized frameworks* (pp. 5-23). London: Continuum.

- Hyland, K. (2005). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, 7(2), 173-192. doi: 10.1177/1461445605050365
- Hyland, K. (2007). Genre pedagogy: Language, literacy and L2 writing instruction. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 16(3), 148-164. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2007.07.005
- Hyland, K. (2008). Make your academic writing assertive and certain. In J. Reid (Ed.), *Writing myths: Applying second language research to classroom teaching* (pp. 70-89). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Hyland, K. (2012). Bundles in academic discourse. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 32, 150-169. doi: 10.1017/s0267190512000037
- Ivanic, R. (1998). *Writing and identity: The discorsal construction of identity in academic writing*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Ivanic, R., & Camps, D. (2001). I am how I sound: Voice as self-representation in L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10(1), 3-33.
- Jamieson, S., Howard, R. M., & Serviss, T. (n.d.). "The citation project: Preventing plagiarism, teaching writing." Retrieved from <http://site.citationproject.net/>
- Jamieson, S., Serviss, T., & Howard, R.M. (2014). "The citation project: Understanding undergraduate and graduate students' source choices and uses." Symposia. *Writing Research Across Borders International Conference*, (International Society for the Advancement of Writing Research). Paris, February 19-22, 2014.
- Jullian, P. M. (2011). Appraising through someone else's words: The evaluative power of quotations in news reports. *Discourse & Society*, 22(6), 766-780. doi: 10.1177/0957926511411697

- Keck, C. (2006). The use of paraphrase in summary writing: A comparison of L1 and L2 writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 15(4), 261-278. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2006.09.006
- Keck, C. (2010). How do university students attempt to avoid plagiarism? A grammatical analysis of undergraduate paraphrasing strategies. *Writing & Pedagogy*, 2(2), 193-222. doi: 10.1558/wap.v2i2.193
- Keck, C. (2014). Copying, paraphrasing, and academic writing development: A re-examination of L1 and L2 summarization practices. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 25, 4-22. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2014.05.005
- Le Ha, P. (2006). Plagiarism and overseas students: stereotypes again? *JLT Journal*, 60(1), 76-78.
- Le Ha, P. (2009). Strategic, passionate, but academic: Am I allowed in my writing? *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 8(2), 134-146. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2008.09.003
- Lee, S. H. (2010). Attribution in high- and low-graded persuasive essays by tertiary students. *Functions of Language*, 17(2), 181-206.
- Leonard, E. A. (1997). Assignment #9. A text which engages the socially constructed identity of its writer. *College Composition and Communication*, 48(2), 215-230.
- Li, Y. (2013). Three ESL students writing a policy paper assignment: An activity-analytic perspective. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), 73-86. doi:http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.006
- Li, Y., & Casanave, C. P. (2012). Two first-year students' strategies for writing from sources: Patchwriting or plagiarism? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(2), 165-180. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2012.03.002

- Liu, D. (2012). The most frequently-used multi-word constructions in academic written English: A multi-corpus study. *English for Specific Purposes*, 31(1), 25-35. doi: 10.1016/j.esp.2011.07.002
- Liu, P. H. E., & Tannacito, D. J. (2013). Resistance by L2 writers: The role of racial and language ideology in imagined community and identity investment. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 22(4), 355-373. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2013.05.001
- Mansourizadeh, K., & Ahmad, U. K. (2011). Citation practices among non-native expert and novice scientific writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10(3), 152-161. doi: 10.1016/j.jeap.2011.03.004
- Martin, J. R. (2011). Bridging troubled waters: interdisciplinarity. In F. Christie & K. Maton (Eds.), *Disciplinary: Functional linguistic and sociological perspectives* (pp. 35-61). London: Continuum.
- Martin, J. R., & White, P. R. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation: Appraisal in English*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Matsuda, A., & Duran, C. S. (2013). Problematizing the construction of Americans as monolingual English speakers. In V. Ramanathan (Ed.), *Language policies and (Dis)Citizenship: Right, access, pedagogies* (pp. 35-51). Bristol, United Kingdom: Multilingual Matters.
- McCarthy, S. J. (2008) The impact of No Child Left Behind on teachers' writing instruction. *Written Communication*, 25(4), 462-505.
- McCulloch, S. (2013). Investigating the reading-to-write processes and source use of L2 postgraduate students in real-life academic tasks: An exploratory study. *Journal of*

- English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), 136-147. doi:
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.009>
- Mei, W. S. (2007). The use of engagement resources in high- and low-rated undergraduate geography essays. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6(3), 254-271.
- Mei, W. S., & Allison, D. (2005). Evaluative expressions in analytical arguments: Aspects of appraisal in assigned english language essays. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(1), 105-127.
- Menard-Warwick, J. (2004). *Identity and learning in the narratives of Latina/o immigrants: Contextualizing classroom literacy practices in adult ESL*. (PhD), University of California Berkeley, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses. (Order No. 3146948, University of California, Berkeley)
- Menard-Warwick, J. (2005). Both a fiction and an existential fact: Theorizing identity in second language acquisition and literacy studies. *Linguistics and Education*, 16(3), 253-274. doi: 10.1016/j.linged.2006.02.001
- Menard-Warwick, J. (2006). The words become one's own: Immigrant women's perspectives on family literacy activities. *The CATESOL Journal*, 18(1), 96-108.
- Menard-Warwick, J., Heredia-Herrera, A., & Palmer, D. S. (2013). Local and global identities in an EFL internet chat exchange. *The Modern Language Journal*, 97(4), 965-980. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2013.12048.x
- Middendorf, M. (1998). Bakhtin and the dialogic writing class. In F. Farmer (Ed.), *Landmark Essays on Bakhtin, Rhetoric, and Writing* (pp. 205-214). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

- Mills, C., & Gale, T. (2007). Researching social inequalities in education: Towards a Bourdieuan methodology. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 20(4), 433-447. doi: 10.1080/09518390601176523
- "Modelling engagement" (2012). The Appraisal Theory Website. Retrieved from <http://www.grammatics.com/appraisal/AppraisalOutline/Framed/Frame.htm>.
- National Writing Project, & Nagin, C.(2003). *Because writing matters: Improving student writing in our schools*, Hoboken: NJ: Jossey-Bass.
- Norton, B. (1997). Language, identity, and the ownership of English. *TESOL Quarterly*, 31(3), 409-429.
- Nunez, A. M., & Sparks, P. J. (2012). Who are linguistic minority students in higher education?: An analysis of the Beginning Postsecondary Students Study 2004. In Y. Kanno & L. Harklau (Eds.), *Linguistic minority students go to college: Preparation, access, and persistence* (pp. 110-129). New York: Routledge.
- Ortmeir-Hooper, C. (2008). "English may be my second language, but I'm not 'ESL'". *College Composition and Communication*, 59(3) 389-419.
- Pang, W. (2010). Lexical bundles and the construction of an academic voice: A pedagogical perspective. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 47, 1-13.
- Pecorari, D. (2001). Plagiarism and international students: How the English-speaking university responds. In D. Belcher & A. Hirvela (Eds.), *Linking literacies: Perspectives on l2 reading-writing connections* (pp. 229-245). Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.

- Pecorari, D. (2003). Good and original: Plagiarism and patchwriting in academic second-language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*(4), 317-345. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2003.08.004
- Pecorari, D. (2008a). *Academic writing and plagiarism: A linguistic analysis*. London: Continuum.
- Pecorari, D. (2008b). Repeated language in academic discourse: The case of biology background statements. *Nordic Journal of English Studies, 7*(3), 9-33.
- Pecorari, D., & Shaw, P. (2012). Types of student intertextuality and faculty attitudes. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 21*(2), 149-164. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2012.03.006
- Pennycook, A. (1994). The complex contexts of plagiarism: A reply to Deckert. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 3*(3), 277-284.
- Pennycook, A. (1996). Borrowing others' words: Text, ownership, memory and plagiarism. *TESOL Quarterly, 30*, 201-230.
- Pérez-Llantada, C. (2014). Formulaic language in L1 and L2 expert academic writing: Convergent and divergent usage. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 14*, 84-94. doi: 10.1016/j.jeap.2014.01.002
- Petrić, B. (2007). Rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-rated master's theses. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 6*(3), 238-253. doi: 10.1016/j.jeap.2007.09.002
- Petrić, B. (2012). Legitimate textual borrowing: Direct quotation in L2 student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 21*(2), 102-117. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2012.03.005
- Petrić, B., & Harwood, N. (2013). Task requirements, task representation, and self-reported citation functions: An exploratory study of a successful L2 student's writing. *Journal of*

- English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), 110-124.
doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2013.01.002>
- Polio, C., & Shi, L. (2012). Perceptions and beliefs about textual appropriation and source use in second language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(2), 95-101. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2012.03.001
- "Public law 107-110" (2002). No Child Left Behind. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/index.html>
- "Program history" (n.d). In the UWP University Writing Program. Retrieved from <http://writing.ucdavis.edu/about-uwp/program-history/>.
- Rabab'ah, G., & Al-Marshadi, A. (2013). Integrative vs. non-integrative citations among native and nonnative English writers. *International Education Studies*, 6(7), 78-87. doi: 10.5539/ies.v6n7p78
- Ramanathan, V., & Atkinson, D. (1999a). Ethnographic approaches to L2 writing research: A critical guide and review. *Applied Linguistics*, 20(1), 44-70.
- Ramanathan, V., & Atkinson, D. (1999b). Individualism, academic writing, and ESL writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(1), 45-75.
- Ramoroka, B. T. (2014). Integration of sources in academic writing: A corpus-based study of citation practices in essay writing in two departments at the University of Botswana. *Reading & Writing*, 5(1), 1-7. doi: 10.4102/rw.v5i1.41
- Ritter, K., & Matsuda, P. K. (Eds.). (2012). *Exploring composition studies: Sites, issues and perspectives*. Boulder, Colorado: Utah State University Press.
- Roig, M. (2001). Plagiarism and paraphrasing criteria of college and university professors. *Ethics & Behavior*, 11(3), 307-323. doi: 10.1207/s15327019eb1103_8

- Schleppegrell, M. (2004). *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Scollon, R. (1995). Plagiarism and ideology: identity in intercultural discourse. *Language in Society*, 24, 1-28.
- Shapiro, S. (2011). Studck in the remedial rut: Confronting resistance to ESL curriculum reform. *Journal of Basic Writing*, 30(2), 24-52.
- Shaw, P., & Pecorari, D. (2013). Source use in academic writing: An introduction to the special issue. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), A1-A3.
doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.001>
- Shi, L. (2004). Textual borrowing in second-language writing. *Written Communication*, 21(2), 171-200. doi: 10.1177/0741088303262846
- Shi, L. (2006). Cultural Backgrounds and Textual Appropriation. *Language Awareness*, 15(4), 264-282. doi: 10.2167/la406.0
- Shi, L. (2012). Rewriting and paraphrasing source texts in second language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21(2), 134-148. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2012.03.003
- Sowden, C. (2005). Plagiarism and the culture of multilingual students in higher education abroad. *ELT Journal*, 59(3), 226-233.
- Starfield, S. (2002). "I'm a second-language English speaker": Negotiating writer identity and authority in sociology one. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 1(2), 121-140.
doi: 10.1207/s15327701jlie0102_02
- Stolley, K., Brizee, A., & Paiz, J. M. (2013). The Purdue OWL: Overview and Contradiction.
Retrieved from <https://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/589/01/>

- Strauss, A. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sun, Y.C. (2013). Do journal authors plagiarize? Using plagiarism detection software to uncover matching text across disciplines. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(4), 264-272. doi:<http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jeap.2013.07.002>
- Swain, E. (2007). Constructing an effective 'voice' in academic discussion writing: An appraisal theory perspective. In A. McCabe, M. O'Donnell, & R. Whittaker (Eds.), *Advances in language and education* (pp. 166–184). London: Continuum.
- Swales, J. M. (1986). Citation analysis and discourse analysis. *Applied Linguistics*, 7(1), 39-56.
- Swales, J. M. (2014). Variation in citational practice in a corpus of student biology papers: From parenthetical plonking to intertextual storytelling. *Written Communication*, 31(1), 118-141. doi: 10.1177/0741088313515166
- Talmy, S. (2008). The cultural productions of the ESL student at tradewinds high: Contingency, multidirectionality, and identity in L2 socialization. *Applied Linguistics*, 29(4), 619-644. doi: 10.1093/applin/amn011
- Talmy, S. (2010). Qualitative interviews in applied linguistics: From research instrument to social practice. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 30, 128-148. doi: 10.1017/s0267190510000085
- Tardy, C. (2011). Enacting and transforming local language policies. *College Composition and Communication*, 62(4), 634-661.
- "The 2020 initiative: A path to academic excellence and economic opportunity" (n.d.). Chancellor Linda P.B. Katehi of UC Davis. Retrieved from http://chancellor.ucdavis.edu/initiatives/2020_Initiative/index.html

- "The IB diploma programme" (n.d.). Retrieved from <http://www.ibo.org/diploma/>
- Thompson, C., Morton, J., & Storch, N. (2013). Where from, who, why and how? A study of the use of sources by first year L2 university students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 12*(2), 99-109. doi: 10.1016/j.jeap.2012.11.004
- Thompson, C., & Pennycook, A. (2008). Intertextuality in the transcultural contact zone. In R. M. Howard & A. E. Robillard (Eds.), *Pluralizing plagiarism: Identities, context, pedagogies* (pp. 124-139). Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Boynton/Cook, Heinemann.
- Thompson, G., & Ye, Y. (1991). Evaluation in the reporting verbs used in academic papers. *Applied Linguistics, 12*(4), 365-382.
- Tobin, L. (2001). Process pedagogy. In G. Tate, A. Rupiper & K. Schick (Eds.), *A guide to composition pedagogies* (pp. 1-18). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- "UC Davis profile" (2014). University of California, Davis. Retrieved from http://www.ucdavis.edu/about/facts/uc_davis_profile.pdf
- Vargese, M. (2012). A linguistic minority student's discursive framing of agency and structure. In Y. Kanno & L. Harklau (Eds.), *Linguistic minority immigrants go to college: Preparation, access, and persistence*. New York: Routledge.
- Vila, M., Martí, M. A., & Rodríguez, H. (2014). Is this a paraphrase? What kind? Paraphrase boundaries and typology. *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics, 4*(1), 205-218. doi: 10.4236/ojml.2014.41016
- Watson-Gegeo, K. (1988). Ethnography in ESL: Defining the essentials. *TESOL Quarterly, 22*(4), 575-592.

- Watson-Gegeo, K. (1992). Thick explanation in the ethnographic study of child socialization: A longitudinal study of the problem of schooling for Kwara'ae (Solomon Islands) Children. *New Directions for Child Development*, 58, 51-66.
- Welch, N. (1996). Revising a writer's identity: Reading and "re-Modeling" in a composition class. *College Composition and Communication*, 47(1), 41-61.
- Wheeler, G. (2009). Plagiarism in the Japanese universities: Truly a cultural matter? *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18(1), 17-29. doi: 10.1016/j.jslw.2008.09.004
- White, P. R. R. (2003). Beyond modality and hedging: A dialogic view of the language of intersubjective stance. *Text*, 23(2), 259-284.
- "Writing in the disciplines" (2014). U.S. news university ranking. Retrieved from <http://colleges.usnews.rankingsandreviews.com/best-colleges/rankings/writing-programs>
- Yamada, K. (2003). What prevents ESL/EFL writers from avoiding plagiarism?: Analyses of 10 North-American college websites. *System*, 31(2), 247-258. doi: 10.1016/s0346-251x(03)00023-x