

**PARAPHRASE APPROACHES CHALLENGES
AND STRATEGIES OF GRADUATE STUDENTS
IN THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE
TEACHING**

Hatice ÇEŞME

**Master's Thesis
Department of Foreign Languages Teaching
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2015**

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T.C.
ATATÜRK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI
İNGİLİZ DİLİ VE EĞİTİMİ BİLİM DALI

İNGİLİZCE EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜ LİSANSÜSTÜ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN
METİN DEĞİŞTİRMEDEKİ YAKLAŞIM GÜÇLÜK VE
STRATEJİLERİ

(Paraphrase Approaches, Challenges and Strategies of Graduate Students in
the Department of English Language Teaching)

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Hatice ÇEŞME

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ERZURUM
Temmuz, 2015

KABUL VE ONAY TUTANAĞI

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ danışmanlığında, Hatice ÇEŞME tarafından hazırlanan “İNGİLİZCE EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜ LİSANSÜSTÜ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN METİN DEĞİŞTİRMEDEKİ YAKLAŞIM GÜÇLÜK VE STRATEJİLERİ” başlıklı çalışma 22 / 07 / 2015 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından. Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı’nda Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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22 07/ 2015


Prof. Dr. H. Ahmet KIRKKILIÇ

Enstitü Müdürü



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Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak sunduğum “İNGİLİZCE EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜ LİSANSÜSTÜ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN METİN DEĞİŞTİRMEDEKİ YAKLAŞIM GÜÇLÜK VE STRATEJİLERİ” başlıklı çalışmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlanılan eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden olduğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve onurumla doğrularım.

Tezimin kâğıt ve elektronik kopyalarının Atatürk Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü arşivlerinde aşağıda belirttiğim koşullarda saklanmasına izin verdiğimi onaylarım.

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22 / 07 / 2015

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ÖZET

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

İNGİLİZCE EĞİTİMİ BÖLÜMÜ LİSANSÜSTÜ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN METİN DEĞİŞTİRMEDEKİ YAKLAŞIM GÜÇLÜK VE STRATEJİLERİ

Hatice ÇEŞME

2015, 196 Sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bölümü'ndeki lisansüstü öğrencilerin metin değiştirmedeki yaklaşım, güçlük ve stratejilerini dil yeterlilikleri, dil altyapıları ve yazım türü açısından incelemektir. Çalışma nitel araştırma yöntemi kullanılarak yürütülmüştür. Doktora çalışmalarını yürüten ve tez ya da araştırma makalesi yazmak gibi deneyimlere sahip olan 12 lisansüstü öğrenci çalışmanın katılımcıları olmuştur. Katılımcılar farklı uzunlukta sürelerde akademik yazım dersini almışlardır. Ana çalışmadan önce 9 doktora öğrencisi ile pilot çalışma yürütülmüştür. Ana çalışmada veri toplama işlemi iki aşamada gerçekleştirilmiştir. İlk aşamada, demografik anket ve yarı yapılandırılmış mülakat uygulanmıştır. Veri toplamanın ikinci aşamasında katılımcılar seçilen metni yeniden yazmışlardır. Veri analizi iki temel aşamada gerçekleştirilmiştir. İlk olarak, mülakat yoluyla elde edilen veri içerik analizi yoluyla incelendi. İkinci aşamada, katılımcılar tarafından yeniden yazılan metin Keck' in (2006) Metin Değiştirme Türleri Taksonomisi ve araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen dilbilgisel ve yapısal ölçek ile incelendi. Çalışmanın sonuçları lisansüstü öğrencilerin metin değiştirmenin önemini farkında olduklarını ancak metin değiştirmeyi uygun bir şekilde uygulamada katılımcıların zorluk çektiklerini ortaya çıkardı. Öğrencilerin metin değiştirme performansları yazım türünün yanı sıra ikinci dil yeterlilikleri ve metin değiştirmenin zorlayıcı doğasından etkilenmiştir. Aynı zamanda, öğrencilerin metin değiştirme ile ilgili teorik bilgileri ile performansları arasında eksiklikler bulundu. Aynı seviyede ikinci dil yeterliliğine sahip olmalarına rağmen metin değiştirme performansları birbirlerinden oldukça farklıdır. Diğer önemli bir sonuç ise Keck'in Metin Değiştirme Türleri Taksonomisi'ne beşinci metin değiştirme türünün, Anlam Sapması, eklenmesidir. Araştırma sonuçları katılımcıların nasıl uygun bir şekilde metin değiştirmeleri gerektiğini öğrenmek için iyi ve kötü metin değiştirme örnekleriyle desteklenmiş eğitime ve daha fazla pratik yapmaya ihtiyaç duyduklarını önermektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Metin Değiştirme; İntihal; Metinsel Alıntı; Akademik Yazım

ABSTRACT

MASTER'S THESIS

PARAPHRASE APPROACHES CHALLENGES AND STRATEGIES OF GRADUATE STUDENTS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Hatice ÇEŞME

2015, 196 Pages

This study aims to investigate paraphrase approaches, challenges and strategies of graduate students in the Department of English Language Teaching in terms of language proficiency, language background and type of writing task. The study was based on qualitative research design. 12 graduate students who were pursuing their doctoral studies and had some writing experiences in their academic fields such as writing thesis or research articles were the participants in this study. The participants had academic writing instructions in different periods. At first, a pilot study was conducted with nine graduate students. Later, the main data were collected in two steps. At the first step, a demographic questionnaire and a semi-structured interviews were conducted. In the second step of data collection, graduate students paraphrased a text chosen. Data analysis was carried out in two major steps. The data obtained through interviews were, firstly, analyzed through content analysis. Then, the text paraphrased by the participants was analyzed with Keck's (2006) the Taxonomy of Paraphrase Types and a grammatical and structural rubric developed by the researcher. The results of the study revealed that graduate students were aware of the importance of paraphrasing, but they had challenges in the appropriately implementation of paraphrasing in their task. Their paraphrasing performance was affected by both their L2 proficiency and demanding nature of paraphrasing as well as writing task. There was also found a gap between their theoretical knowledge on paraphrase and their paraphrasing performance. Although they had the same level of L2 proficiency, their paraphrase performances were significantly different from each other. Another main finding was that the fifth paraphrase type, Deviated Meaning, added to Keck's (2006) the Taxonomy of Paraphrase Types. These findings suggest that they need an explicit paraphrasing instruction supported by good and bad paraphrase examples and more practice in order to learn how to paraphrase appropriately.

Key Words: Paraphrasing; Plagiarism; Textual Borrowing; Academic Writing

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all for giving me the strength to continue, and leading me when I felt I could not make it. Without their kind support, I could not have completed my master degree.

Firstly, a special thank to my supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ. He supported me, encouraged me, enlightened me and provided me valuable advice during numerous meetings with me. I am deeply indebted to him. I know that the dissertation would not exist without him.

I would also like to thank my thesis examination committee members Assist. Prof. Dr. Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR. And I would like to thank my dear instructor Assist. Prof. Dr. M. Yavuz Konca.

I want to express my gratitude to the participants in my study. Thanks to their voluntary participation, I could conduct this study.

My hearty thanks go to my great colleague as well as close friend Fatma KAYA. We shared days and nights both helping each other and studying. Her friendship, support and kindness made me much happier during this long journey.

Finally, I would like to thank my loving family. It is impossible to express my gratefulness in any words that I know. My mother and my father, you have always been my supporter of strength. I am happy to have you in my life. My brothers, M. Lütfi, İ.Hakkı, M. Nuri, A. Hamit and Hasan; you believed me that I could be successful and supported me when I felt I could not make it. And my sisters, Fatma and Ayşe... Thank you for your unwavering love, confidence in me. All of you supported and tolerated me throughout this long process. Without you, I could not complete. Thank you for everything...

I wish to dedicate my study to my pretty nephews, Elif Yağmur and Mehmet Emir.

Erzurum-2015

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CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Writing from sources while creating an academic study such as a research article, a thesis or dissertation and assignments or exams, paraphrasing is an important way or method of rewriting or restating source texts in one's own words by using strategies about how to paraphrase. However; students have challenges in understanding and implementing how to paraphrase because of complex nature of it. In this regard, to investigate the reasons behind these challenges in terms of language proficiency, language background and type of writing task is necessary to identify specific paraphrase strategies and help graduate students develop themselves as confident and successful academic writers.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Paraphrasing is one of the significant language concern in academic writing for second language students because, it is fundamental technique which writers use to say the ideas of other authors in their own words (Chatterjee, 2007; Flowerdew&Li, 2007; Keck, 2006, as cited in Davis, 2013, p.126). Before reviewing particular studies, first, it is necessary to establish what paraphrasing is. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) defined paraphrasing as "relating the material to what is already known while also restating it in one's own words" (p. 320, as cited in Augustine, 1992, p.6). According to Hirvela and Du (2013), paraphrase is recreating the content and structure of the source text. It is an important skill for English second language learners to use source texts into their writing.

Many studies examining English academic assignments in (Bridgeman & Carlson, 1983; Hale, Taylor, Bridgeman, Carson, Kroll and Kantor,1996; Carson, 2001) reveal that it is necessary for students to often use in completion their exams or tasks

(as cited in Keck, 2006, p.261). However; studies show that source text use is difficult for EFL and they commonly have poor paraphrasing performance which are often called 'patchwriting, a term defined by Howard (as cited in Davis, 2013, p.126) as copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one synonym substitutes. Stressing that paraphrasing is a challenge for many students writers, Suh (2008) expresses:

'Putting someone else's ideas and language into one's own words, especially in a L2, is fraught with challenges and pitfalls, as there are varying degrees of plagiarism from apparent copying to more subtle forms. The difficulty stems in part from keeping the meaning intact, on the one hand, and finding the right balance for using one's own words and ideas alongside another's words and ideas, on the other hand, without distorting the original meaning or crossing the line into plagiarism' (pp.14-15).

A close relationship between language proficiency and paraphrasing performance has been found in novice writers' inappropriate use of source texts. For example, based on interviews, case studies, and personal observations, researchers and classroom teachers have noted that many L2 written products of university students are patchwriting, interwoven with sentences or phrases copied from original sources (e.g., Currie,1998; Myers, 1998; LoCastro & Masuko, 1997; Pennycook, 1996; Matelena, 1985, as cited in Shi, 2004 p.173). This tendency to copy might stem from the nature of tasks that demand an advanced sense of language and the ability to paraphrase (Shi, 2004). Furthermore; text readability and familiarity with the sentence structures and words that appear in source texts also affect paraphrasing performance (Liao & Tseng,2010, p.188). In other words, students can have difficulties in understanding how to paraphrase due to the lack of academic literacy skill which requires advanced language content knowledge, the disciplinary nature of citation practices, and the rhetorical purposes of using citations in a specific context of disciplinary writing. Establishing main ideas, using synonyms, changing active to passive voice, knowing when to quote or keep certain expressions, and re-ordering sentence structure demand a high lexical proficiency, advanced reading comprehension, as well as syntactical sophistication (Barks & Watts, 2001,as cited in McInnis, 2009, p.6). Therefore, the

more research focuses on finding out the causes of student writers' poor paraphrasing attempts the more benefit can be gained regarding the relationship between language proficiency and 'acceptable' paraphrasing.

Despite being one of the most principal means of textual borrowing strategies, paraphrasing has received relatively little attention in both the pedagogical and English second language writing research literature. According to Hayland, many of the studies about paraphrasing have subsumed within summary writing (as cited in Hirvela & Du, 2013, p. 88) as well as plagiarism, and patchwriting. As both reading and writing skill, summarizing requires the writer to express the main points of a text she has read succinctly and in her own words (Hedgock & Ferris, 2009, p.185, as cited in Hirvela & Du, 2013, p. 88) as in paraphrasing. In fact; paraphrasing as a textual borrowing strategy, is one of the summarizing devices.

John and Mayes (1990) and Campbell (1990) are among first L2 summary researchers who compared the summary writing of L2 writers in low and high proficiency, and the source text use of L1 and ESL university students. While John and Mayes (1990) found that L2 writers' language proficiency was not a point their engagement with summary writing, Campbell (1990) found similarities showing less reliance on the original text and they used more their own words in the main paragraphs but, they preferred to use more same words from the source material in conclusions. ESL students copied much more from source text material in their introductory paragraphs than L1 English students.

Shi also investigated textual borrowing comparing university students in Canada with English writers in China in two different kinds of task; summary and opinion tasks. She found (2004) that task and participants' native language affected textual borrowing. While writing summary, they copied more same words from the sourced text material and L2 students (Chinese) commonly copied without using references. She also made a valuable distinction between close and total paraphrasing.

Casey Keck' (2006) article on the use of paraphrase in summary writing and her (2007) Ph.D thesis on university students' textual borrowing strategies compared L1 with L2 students' summaries and developed a Taxonomy of Paraphrase Types, near copy (one or two changes), minor revision (a few lexical changes), moderate revision

(several lexical changes) and substantial revision (many lexical and structural changes), which can be used to classify paraphrases. The term ‘ attempted paraphrase’ was also created by her.

Finally, Machbeth’ two recent works (2006, 2010) support the previous studies about both summary writing and paraphrasing. In her 2006 study, analysing of summary writing tasks of 19 L2 university students, found that most of students failed to comprehend deep understanding in summary writing, and thus, were unable to grasp the main idea of the original material due to their L2 literacy abilities, and ‘curriculum of judgments’ which limited their both understanding of summarizing and paraphrasing.

Machbeth investigated in her other study (2010) paraphrasing and the summary writing besides other textual borrowing strategies of ESL undergraduates. Using of models, including the use of direct quotations and paraphrases, of what the students were expected to produce, found that they were unable to form deeper understanding of the necessities of academic writing.

Relevant studies in this area show that act of summarizing and paraphrasing are problematic for L2 student writers choosing primarily a summary task because researchers have found this task as an appropriate instrument to investigate students’ paraphrasing strategies. However ; studies have commonly focused on product-oriented process and text-based analysis that are insufficient to explain why students should paraphrase and how they can, what perceptions students have in paraphrasing. In order to emphasize the limitation of using only text-based analysis, Keck (2007) mentions as follows:

Certainly, text-based analyses alone cannot answer all of the questions that educators may have about student strategy use. While such analyses provide us with the important information regarding the frequency of strategy use, they are limited in what they can tell us about why students use particular strategies more than others (p.207).

Moreover; the techniques, only fixed response options (e.g., likertscale questionnaires) have limited the scope of students' perceptions about textual borrowing and paraphrasing.

The studies are different from one another considerably in their operational definitions regarding the closeness or the distance that should stand between a paraphrased text and the original source (Campbell 1990; Pecorari 2003; Shi 2004; Sutherland-Smith 2005; Yamada 2003, as cited in Sun 2009, p.400). Sun (2009) expresses the differences in the related studies as follows:

Some studies have imposed a rigid prohibition on any trace of the source text. For example, Benos et al. (2005, p. 62) defined plagiarism as any situation in which the “duplication of words and phrases, however brief, may be indicative of plagiarism.” Oshima and Hogue (1999, p. 90) defined inappropriate sourcing thus: “a paraphrase is unacceptable when it contains the same vocabulary and sentence structure as the original.” Shi (2004) defined a total paraphrase as “no trace of direct borrowing of two or three consecutive words from source texts” (pp. 178–179).

However, Keck (2006) and Pecorari (2003) have specified a certain percentage in appropriate paraphrasing and plagiarism in terms of the frequency of words copied from the original text. While according to Pecorari (2003), in a passage, if 40% or more of the words are almost copied from original source it is plagiarism, Keck (2006) considered “Near Copy” textual borrowing (50% or more) to be unacceptable and textual borrowing in the 20–49% range to be debatable.

Paraphrasing, as a key element in academic writing to avoid plagiarism, has some strategies or rules. Some writing handbooks, articles and, writing websites offer steps or strategies of paraphrasing. Purdue's Online Writing Lab (no date), for instance, listed six steps to effective paraphrasing and Madhavi (2013) also established rubrics in her study to students about how to paraphrase a text.

However; such instructional materials are shown to be inadequate and limited (Campbell, 1990; Frodesen, 2007) and do little to help learners develop their lexical knowledge (Currie, 1998; Deckert, 1993, as cited in Chang, Huang, Chen & Liou, 2013,

p.2). Furthermore, through only these techniques, students may not be able to understand the role of paraphrasing in academic writing. On the other hand, dictionaries and thesauri may also be used while paraphrasing; but they usually provide single-word inputs or little or no usage information. Student writers also can encounter with challenge in choosing with the correct word instead of original words. In addition, the transition from exercises to authentic uses of paraphrasing (as cited in Hirvela & Du p.97) is also difficult for the novice writers. That is, there is a difference or gap between theory and practice.

Finally, it is concluded that novice writers know little about paraphrase as a textual borrowing strategies. Even if they have had instructions on paraphrasing, it is still problematic for them. Moreover, despite many studies about writing from sources, it has been overlooked its complex cognitive process, and paraphrase strategy training . Thus, it should be done studies on students' perspectives on paraphrase strategies instead of only product-oriented researches, and should be given priority to help students develop appropriate and effective paraphrasing strategies, and help professional writing instructors create a method describing different paraphrasing types that students usually use. It also should be kept in mind that paraphrasing is a writing skill and it cannot be developed in a limited time.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the use of different paraphrase types across such as type of writing task, language proficiency or language background. This study is also expected to enrich our understanding of the range of borrowing and paraphrase strategies employed by L2 students or writers.

The research questions are:

1. Which paraphrase strategies or methods do students commonly prefer to use when writing a summary of a source text or a research paper ?
2. Is there a relationship between academic writers' language competence and paraphrase strategies they choose when a writing research paper ?
3. How language background, language proficiency, writing task type do affect good paraphrasing ?

4. Does students' language problem affect paraphrasing achievement?

1.4. Significance of the Study

This study is expected to gain deeper insight into the student writers' perspectives on paraphrase strategies, and provide linguistic strategies employed by L2 writing instructors and writers. The results obtained from the study can be beneficial in better understanding the paraphrasing challenges of the student writers face while writing from sources. This study can provide possible solutions and the developments of pedagogical interventions for these challenges from which both writing instructions and novice writers can benefit during paraphrase training process.

1.5. Overview of Methodology

1.5.1. Data Collection Instruments and Procedure

This study is based on the qualitative case study research design. Qualitative investigation is a common method to obtain detailed information about perceptions, challenges and approaches of the participants. One of the important benefits of this research design is that it gives participants the opportunity to be able to express themselves more fluently and accurately, rather than forcing them to choose fixed responses. Case study involves the close analysis of people, issues, problems or programs and is a collection and presentation of detailed information about a particular participant or participants. Case study tries to obtain in-depth understanding and interpretations of questions.

A pilot study was carried out with the participants before the qualitative interview and the text analysis of the main study. The aim of the pilot study was to identify potential practical problems in the research procedure. Besides, this pilot study enabled the researcher to test the research process and the adequacy of the research instruments.

Semi-structural interviews with open-ended questions were carried out to better understand participants' approaches, challenges and strategies. The open-ended questions were developed from the views of academics and graduate students and the

result of the related literature review. A demographic query helped the researcher find out the effect of participants' gender, age, academic level, and language background.

In the main study, the data were collected in two steps. Firstly, a demographic questionnaire and semi-structural interviews with open-ended questions developed by the researcher were conducted. In the second step of data collection, a text was chosen which was suitable for the participants in terms of comprehensibility and their language level. The participants paraphrased this task.

1.6. Setting and Participants

The study was conducted in English Language Teaching Department of Atatürk University. The participants were graduate students who were pursuing their doctoral studies and had some writing experiences in their academic fields such as writing research article or thesis.

1.7. Data Analysis

Data analysis was carried out in two major steps. In the first step, codes and categories of the data obtained from semi-structural interviews were identified and commented on relation to the relevant studies. In the second step, the text paraphrased by the participants was analyzed with Keck's (2007) the taxonomy of paraphrase types in terms of lexical level analysis and a grammatical level and structural rubric which was developed by the researcher.

1.8. Limitations of the Study

There are a few limitations of this study. First of all, the study was conducted with a limited number of participants who are graduate students at one university. In other words, studies with more participants should be conducted to generalize the results. Secondly, the data were gathered only through interviews as a form of qualitative research design and only one text was used to identify the participants' performances and paraphrase strategies. Longitudinal studies can be conducted to collect more data and to reach generalizable results that can be more comprehensive. The reason for the suggestion of the longitudinal studies is that despite their being more

time consuming, they provide more data concerning the group under investigation. Furthermore, language proficiencies of the participants in the study were the same. A study may examine the participants who have different language proficiency levels.

1.9. Key Terminology

As this study investigates the approaches, challenges and strategies of graduate students, it is necessary to explain the meanings of the concepts that are used in the study.

Approach: For the purposes of this study, approach is used for what the graduates think about paraphrase and their point of views on paraphrasing.

Challenge: The difficulties that graduate students encounter while paraphrasing.

Strategy: The methods or techniques that the writers use while implementing paraphrase.

English for Academic Purposes: Defined as the teaching of English with the specific aim of contributing learners to study, research or teach in that language- is an international activity of tremendous scope (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001, p.8).

Academic Literacy: It is related to the ways of thinking, doing, reading and writing in a particular academic context. Learning the forms of communication of a specific discipline is crucial in the acquisition of academic literacy (Berkenkotter, Huckin & Ackerman, 1991). In this study, academic writing as a component of academic literacy is the investigation point.

Textual Borrowing: Firstly, Pennycook (1996) used this term in his seminal article. It is act of writing/borrowing ideas or words of another people.

Plagiarism: The act of using someone else's ideas or words without referencing as they are his/her own.

Patchwriting: Copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structure, or plugging in one-for-one synonym substitutes (Howard, 1993, p.233).

Summary: A brief statement that represents the condensation of information accessible to a subject and reflects the gist of the discourse" (Johnson, 1983, cited in Lee, 2010, p.21).

Paraphrasing: Rewriting the language and ideas of the source text using own words, one of the textual borrowing strategy.

The Taxonomy of Paraphrasing: Classification of paraphrased sentences into four groups. It was created by Keck (2006).

Unique Links: Words or strings of words exactly copied in the summary that appeared only once in the original excerpt.

General Links: Lexical words used in the paraphrase that occurred in the original text at several times.

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter presents a review of relevant literature. Firstly, the relationship between English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and second language writing are explained from historical perspective. Then, the effect of academic literacy on writing in second language is presented. Finally, textual borrowing including plagiarism, patchwriting, summary and paraphrasing as a textual borrowing strategy which is the main motive of this study is examined.

2.2. English for Academic Purposes (EAP)

English for Academic Purposes is defined as the teaching of English with the specific aim of contributing learners to study, research or teach in that language- is an international activity of tremendous scope (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001: p.8). According to Coffey (1984, cited in Sager, 1998) EAP is a student's need for "quick and economical use of the English language to pursue a course of academic study" (p.4). For Weiland Flaitz (2005), EAP is like a "key responsibility" in helping ESL (English as a Second Language) students to develop the kind of English language proficiency that will lead to success in their academic endeavors.

EAP, one of the two branches of English for Specific Purposes, emerged in 1960s as a result of a number of factors;

- that English has been dominant and popular as an international language although it is not the language having greatest number of native speakers (NSs)
- increasing the number of international students in universities and demand to help these students use in their academic discourses, and understand their disciplines

- that the language of academic and scientific publication is English, and the majority of the most popular and cited journals is English
- scientists' and academics' desire of becoming recognized and successful in their disciplinary fields by supplying their work be accessible to their peers and colleagues as many as possible
- economical and technological reasons etc.

Sabariah and Rafik-Galea (2005), also, state that EAP has developed because of dissatisfaction with generalizability of ESP courses. Hyland (1997) mentions that students commonly regard EAP classes as value because they realize that the crucial element of having academic success in an English-medium environment is to become proficient in English.

EAP is regarded as one of two branches of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), the other one English for Occupational/ Vocational/ Professional Purposes (EOP/EVP/EPP). Each of these main branches has sub-divisions. Strevens (1988a, cited in Flowerdew and Peacock 2001, p. 13) suggests four characteristics of ESP/ EAP including in English language teaching that is:

- designed to meet specified needs of the learner
- related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities
- centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics etc., and analysis of this discourse
- in contrast with 'General English'.

Both the countries where English is the native language and the countries where English is not native language but is official and instruction language in universities need to EAP (Jordan, 1997). EAP programs or courses and their implementation may be different according to their educational policies and needs. However; the students 'English language needs for specific context are based on to be created the content of EAP courses. Because the students taking EAP courses are considered in advanced level, the curricula has to include literacy abilities and be academic-oriented. Liyanage and Birch's(2001; cited in Shing& Sim, 2011,p.5) claim that the EAP curriculum has to build on student awareness towards a particular language of the academy, and certain

ways of talking, reading and writing about ideas and texts. That is; language and study skills are two crucial elements for any EAP course and study skills are not something instinctively acquired but something consciously learnt (Mo, 2005). Study skills include activities in a wide variety and writing essay, thesis or laboratory report, and abstaining from plagiarism are among them.

2.2.1. EAP and Second Language Writing: A Historical Perspective

Earliest study and teaching of second language writing began to appear in the 1960s when the researchers focused on the pedagogical and emphases (e.g., Leki, 1992; Raimes, 1991; Silva, 1990). According to Matsuda (1999), the appearance of L2 writing as issue in the 1960s was not sudden. It possibly appeared in the early years of second language studies although it was neglected due to the dominance of spoken language and behaviouristic approaches from the mid-1940s to the mid-1960s.

With the continuing increase of international students in U.S. higher education and the creation of the disciplinary division of labor between L1 and L2 composition, preparing international ESL students for required first-year composition courses became an important responsibility for ESL teachers in intensive English programs, which were usually external to college curricula (Matsuda, 2003: p.19). Thus, composition program became related to the intensive English teaching program and second language instruction was necessary for the intermediate students. Students' performance level in speaking, although, was satisfactory, they were incompetent at the writing practices. For this reason, second language writing emerged as a 'subdiscipline' of the TESL with the strong pedagogical emphasis (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998, p. 5). Thus, some important pedagogical approaches- controlled composition, current-traditional rhetoric, the process approach, and the genre approach became influential in second language writing.

Controlled composition (also called sentence-level structure) was based on commonly behaviourist approach that includes in imitation, repetition, and habit formation. Since accuracy and correctness was crucial and the learners' native language was thought as the source of errors and as hindrance while learning second language, a set of fixed patterns were used to produce new utterances. Thereby, learners' text

included in a collection of sentences. The aim of controlled composition is to guide learners to write a correct composition. Owens (1970, cited in Paulston, 1972, p.39) discusses the advantages of using controlled composition in teaching L2 writing as follows:

1. The new materials can be used at various levels.
2. They provide plenty of practice in writing correct forms, rather than practicing the incorrect forms of too hastily required free composition.
3. They allow the teacher to gauge and control the advance of the student towards such types of free composition as may be possible within the course.
4. They cover teaching points systematically and gradually, and hence link composition work to classroom instruction, and copy-writing to free-writing.
5. They are planned to fulfill a specific purpose, and are based on discernible principles.
6. They permit the learner to pace his own progress within limits.
7. They are not too difficult to produce, provided one has an itemized graded syllabus to work from, and a clear idea of the register restriction involved.
8. They lighten the teacher's load, since they are quick and easy to correct.

The examples of books that concentrated on the second language writing of behaviourist view are Spencer's (1967) *Guided Composition Exercises*, Kunz's (1972) *26 Steps. A Course in Controlled Composition for Intermediate and Advanced ESL Students*, and Moody's (1974) *Frames for Written English*.

In the mid-1960s, controlled composition was seen limited and insufficient for learners to produce correct sentences and free composition. This caused to emerge current-traditional rhetoric approach (also called discourse-level structure) and the analysis of linguistic structure extended from the level of the sentence to the level of the paragraph. Silva (1990) defines writing in current traditional rhetoric as "basically a matter of arrangement of fitting sentences and paragraphs into prescribed patterns". (p.14) 'Rhetoric' defined as 'the method of organizing syntactic units into larger patterns (Kaplan, 1967, cited in Silva, 1990, p.13) was emphasized and form, although, still remained, broader level attention was given to paragraph development with its elements (topic sentences, supporting sentences, concluding sentences), essay

development (introduction, body, conclusion), and organizational patterns (cause and effect, argumentation, description, classification). Kaplan (1967, cited in Silva,1990, p.15) explains this theory with the statements as following:

It needs to be accomplished at the rhetorical level by teaching the larger structures of modification; that is, the kinds of paragraphs which are intended to advance the thought of the whole essay as well as the kinds of paragraphs which are intended to go back over ground already covered and supply the necessary support, analogy, metaphor, illustration, etc.

Young (1978, p.31) also identifies the components of current-traditional rhetoric as follow:

The emphasis on the composed product rather than the composition process; the analysis of discourse into description, exposition, and argument; the strong concern with usage (syntax, spelling, punctuation) and with style (economy, clarity, emphasis); the preoccupation with the informal essay and the research paper; and so on.

Johnson's (1981) *Communicate in Writing*, Sellen's (1982) *Skills in Action*, Cooper's (1979) *Think and Link*, Kaplan and Shaw's (1983) *Exploring Academic Discourse*, Arnaudet and Barrett's (1984) *Approaches to Academic Reading and Writing*, Reid and Lindstrom's (1985) *The Process of Paragraph Writing*, Wong et. al.'s (1987) *Becoming a Writer*, Jordan's (1990) *Academic Writing Course*, Arnaudet and Barrett's (1990) *Paragraph Development*, Oshima and Hogue's (1992) *Writing Academic English*, and Oshima and Hogue's (1998) *Introduction to Academic Writing* are examples of books which draw on this approach.

In the late of 1970s and 1980s, the interest on the teaching of second language writing began to shift to the process of writing. Many teachers and researchers from various orientations quited to prefer sentence-level structure , and discourse- level structure claiming that learners 'were restricted in what they could write and how they could write about it' (Jordan,1997,p.167). Vivian Zamel (1976) introduced the notion of process writing approach expressing that writing in second language is similar to writing in first / native language and it needs a process. With this approach, guiding to

write became more significant than controlling. Thus, classroom activities became more learner-centered and the teacher's role was to help learners develop strategies for generating ideas, writing multiple drafts, revising, and planning sentence structure. Books which pay attention to the process writing approach include Hamp-Lyons and Heasley's (1987) *Study Writing*, Kwan-Terry's (1988) *Interactive Writing*, Leki's (1989) *Academic Writing : Techniques and Tasks*, Benesch and Rorschach's (1989) *Academic Writing Workshop*, Frank's (1990) *Writing as Thinking. A Guide Process Approach*, White and McGovern's (1994) *Writing*, and Leki's (1995a) *Academic Writing: Exploring Processes and Strategies*.

In the 1980s the 'genre approach' to writing in EAP came out as the results of efforts to teach international students how to use English in academic settings, to supply them language sources and abilities in English academic discourse community, and also to strengthen the members of academic community. The aims of the genre approach in EAP was to teach specific academic genres such as essays, theses and dissertations, research reports and, research articles; to help learners discover how genres are different from another or how the same genre varies. A great amount of work in the literature has been devoted to the study of genre-specific EAP materials. For example; Dudley-Evans's (1985) *Writing Laboratory Reports*, Reid's (1988) *The Process of Composition*, Weissberg and Buker's (1990) *Writing up Research. Experimental Report Writing for Students of English*, Webb's (1991) *Writing and Essay in the Humanities and Social Sciences*, Murison and Webb's (1991) *Writing a Research Paper*, and Swales and Feak's (1994) *Academic Writing for Graduate Students*.

Concisely, whereas the focus of controlled compositions, lexical and syntactic features of a text, current-traditional rhetoric emphasizes on discourse-level text structure. The process approach is related to the writer's constructing manner while genre approach focuses on the form of academic discourse community. Even though, each second language writing approach has emerged in reaction to one another on the basis of the results the studies, their purposes were, actually, similar; the need of teaching and learning ESL writing in the best and effective way. With the increasing of the exchange of insights between composition studies and second language studies, researchers have begun to realize the complexity and multidisciplinary nature of second language writing research and teaching (Matsuda, 2003; p.25). For instance, Johnson and

Roen (1989) pointed out that a "broader, multidisciplinary base is important in examining issues in L2 writing" because "no single theory from a single discipline can account for the complex and interacting social, cultural, cognitive, and linguistic processes involved" (p. 3). Kroll (1990) also mentions that "for those engaged in teaching second language [writers], what is needed are both a firm grounding in the theoretical issues of first and second language writing and an understanding of a broad range of pedagogical issues that shape classroom writing instruction" (p.2). Thus, second language writing has become an interdisciplinary researching field in not only composition but also second language studies.

The adoption of second language writing as a scientific field has caused to increase the number of studies related to second language writing. *College ESL, English for Specific Purposes, Language Learning, and TESOL Quarterly* have been important journals which have focused on the research articles mainly searching second language writing issues. Journals such as *College Composition and Communication, Teaching English in the Two-Year College, WPA: Writing Program Administration, and Written Communication* have included in articles in second language writing. The number of dissertations examining L2 writing has also increased. Furthermore, in 1992, the *Journal of Second Language Writing* was found showing "the maturing of scholarly communication in the field" (Tannacito,1995, p. 5). The number of books in L2 writing increased (such as monographs (e.g., Swales,1990;Rodby,1992; Fox,1994; Tucker,1995; Connor,1996; Li, 1996; Pennington,1996;Johns,1997} and edited collections (e.g., Connor& Johns,1990;Kroll,1990; Belcher& Braine,1995; Guerra,& Butler, 1997;Harklau, Losey, &Siegal, 1999;Severino,Guerra&Butler, 1997; Silva& Matsuda,2001b; Silva& Matsuda,2001a;) as well as collections of reprinted articles (e.g., Leeds,1996;Zamel &Spack,1998; DeLuca et al,2002)as well as textbooks for L2 writing teachers (Leki,1992; Reid,1993; Grabe& Kaplan, 1996; Campbell,1998; Ferris& Hedgcock,1998; Hyland,2002).

As an important development in the field, bibliographic sources including annotations of conference presentations, books, and articles in second language writing have also been presented (Tantacito,1995; Polio and Mosele, 1998;Silva, Brice,& Reichelt, 1999). In 1996, the first conference, named Second Language Acquisition and Writing: A Multi-Disciplinary Approach, on the second language writing was held at

the University of Southampton in the United Kingdom while the first symposium on the field was arranged at Purdue University. The Symposium has been continuing to be taken place within a two-year.

The existence of metadisciplinary discourse-or self-conscious researches into its nature and history is different notable indicator of maturity for second language writing as a field.(Matsuda, 1998; cited in Matsuda,2006,p.25). Metadisciplinary discourse may include, for example, the discussion of methodology (e.g.,Goldstein, 2001; Polio, 2001), history (e.g.,Silva, 1990;Raimes, 1991;Matsuda, 1999, 2001;), inter disciplinary relations (e.g.,Santos, 1992;Atkinson&Ramanathan, 1995;Silva, Leki,&Carson, 1997;Matsuda, 1998; Matsuda&Jablonski, 2000;), and ideological and political issues (e.g.Santos, 1992, 2001;Benesch, 1993,2001), as well as personal reflections on Professional growth (e.g., Belcher&Connor, 2001;Kroll, 2001;Blanton&Kroll, 2002), and the general discussion of the status of the field(e.g., Atkinson, 2000; Kaplan, 2000; Santos, Atkinson, Erickson, Matsuda,&Silva, 2000)(cited in Matsuda,2006;p.25).

Thus far, all of these studies have contributed to second language writing to be a scientific field and to develop. They have also encouraged researchers and language instructors to continue to research an effective second language writing instruction within different fields and contexts and thus, studies in the field have not been only limited to the US context and only one language. As the number of international ESL students in EAP courses has increased, their needs and demands have also increased in variety. Writing needs across the disciplines are one of the most crucial ones among them.

Various studies consisting of faculty reactions to L2 student writing (Vann, Meyer, &Lorenz, 1984;Santos, 1988;Jenkins, Jordan, &Weiland, 1993), kinds of writing practices (Bridgeman&Carlson, 1984; Horowitz, 1986b; Keller-Cohen&Wolfe, 1987),kinds of rhetorical skills(Rose, 1983; Horowitz, 1986a) have focused on writing needs for courses across the disciplines. In addition to the survey research, Walvoord and McCarty (1990), and Chiseri-Strater (1991) researched qualitatively writing demands and native English speakers (NESs)' efforts to fulfill those demands.

In their study in 1994, Leki and Carson also examine former ESL students' university-level content course perceptions and needs related to the writing instruction

in ESL writing classes and the actual writing in the courses across disciplines. The results of the study show that the students' needs and perceptions for academic writing are commonly related to language issues, particularly vocabulary expansion as a language competence, and task management strategies such as writing from multiple sources, writing from reading. The students also emphasized on the gap and difference between ESL writing courses and the courses across disciplines

Another study of Leki and Carson (1997) explores ESL undergraduate and graduate students' writing experiences under three conditions; writing without source text, writing from a source text without responsibility for the content, and the text-responsible writing. In the study, they discuss that EAP writing classes restrict students to writing without source texts or to writing without responsibility for the content, and thus, they prevent students to interact with text and to develop intellectually. The participants, especially graduate students mention the problem with using a source text and plagiarism in their writing courses and tasks.

Although the amount of literature on writing needs, demands, and perceptions is excessive, there is still a growing need to research and to understand English second language learners' perspectives, writing experiences, and needs. Leki (2001, p.18) sees the researchers' interest as limited in terms of learners' perspectives and states ;

I was struck by the fact that so many of these studies talked about the students but never gave any evidence that the researchers spent any time talking to the students, never asked them one on one what all this (whatever feature of L2 writing was under study) meant to them.

2.3. Academic Literacy

Academic literacy is defined as the ability to understand knowledge in different texts, to paraphrase, to summarize, to describe (e.g. ideas, phenomena, processes, changes of state), to write expository prose (e.g. argument, comparison and contrast, classification, categorization), to develop and signal own voice, to acknowledge sources, and to form basic numerical manipulations (Yeld, 2003). According to Warren (2003), academic literacy is the complex of linguistic, conceptual and skills resources to analyze, to construct and to communicate knowledge in the subject area. Academic

literacy is related to higher education and is found to be crucial in empowering academic success (Yeld, 2003). In other words, the academic success in higher education is stimulated with academic literacy. Therefore, the acquisition of academic literacy is more than the ability to read and write effectively (Braine, 2002) and it includes in an inter-related set of competencies. According to Foxcroft (2004, cited in Ratangee, 2007; pp. 24-25), it has some considerable sub-domains as the following :

- Making meaning from (understand) academic texts
- Understanding words and discourse signals in their context
- Summarizing and synthesizing information
- Identifying the main and supporting ideas in a passage
- Identifying main from supporting ideas
- Identifying and tracking academic arguments
- Understanding and evaluating the evidential basis of argument
- Extrapolating and drawing inferences and conclusions from what is stated or given
- Reading critically (e.g. distinguishing between fact and opinion detecting an author's bias)
- Generating hypotheses on the basis of information in a passage
- Understanding information presented visually (e.g. graphs, tables, flowcharts)
- Understanding basic numerical concepts and information used in text.
- Reporting facts or narrating events
- Structuring their writing so that it moves beyond formulaic patterns and reflects original, critical thinking.

Graduate students need to academic literacy that “consists of the ability to use discipline-specific rhetorical and linguistic conventions to serve their purpose as writers” (Berkenkotter, Huckin & Ackerman, 1991, p, 191) if they want to join their academic discipline. Therefore, it is crucial to learn the ways of communication in the particular discipline for acquisition of academic literacy. The acquisition process of academic literacy is, in fact, the process for students to learn the ways of communication in a particular discipline (Berkenkotter, et al., 1991). Academic writing which is the focus of this study and important component of academic literacy is one of ways of communication. For this reason, theoretical and pedagogical approaches

affecting on second language writing instruction have also influenced academic literacy. In other words, the developments in second language writing or academic writing has had an impact on academic literacy.

In the controlled composition approach, literacy is viewed as the ability to read and write and traditionalists, according to Johns (1997), believed that literacy was the product of instruction in language and textual forms which must be drilled and memorized. With the increasing of process and student-centered approaches, the focus of literacy instruction is on the cognitive processes which texts are produced, such as revising, drafting, and editing strategies. According to Johns (1997), process approaches put the learners and their capacity for choosing, developing, and comprehending texts at the heart of the literacy endeavor. If a person can read and write successfully, s/he is considered as literate according to both current-traditional and process and student-centered approaches. Because the literacy is more than to read and to write, these traditional and cognitive approaches are insufficient to meet L2 students' literacy needs. Thus, socio-cognitive approaches to literacy has gained the importance and social and cultural aspects of academic literacy has been taken into consideration by both researchers and instructors. Cook-Gumperz (1986) suggests that learning is a joint construction of the student with other students, the teacher and the academic environmental resources and interactions—that literacy is a socially constructed phenomenon. The notion of being literate has advanced, and so, a literate is, now, one who has cognitive skills, and social and cultural skills.

The results of Spack (1997)'s study shows that the lack of social and cultural background knowledge is a barrier in student's literacy development and, thus, in his/her ability to be successful in the university's academic context. Spack has emphasized that academic literacy is not just the ability to read and to write with this study.

The increasing interest on second language writing and academic literacy has led to emerge the alternatives such as content-based approaches to literacy, the adjunct model in particular, to earlier ones. According to this model, the teaching and learning of L2 academic literacy happen in authentic contexts. In their study, Brinton, Snow and

Wersche (1989, cited in Preto-Bay, 2002, p.32) emphasize on the importance of content-based literacy experiences in second language instruction as follows:

It (1) takes into account the interests and needs of the learners, (2) incorporates eventual uses the learner will make of the target language, (3) builds on the students' previous learning experiences, (4) allows a focus on use as well as usage, and offers learners the necessary conditions for second language learning by exposing them to meaningful language use.

When noticed the limitations of content-based approach to literacy, genre-based approaches have appeared. The focus is “ both on learning how to write a specific assignment in a field-specific genre, and on using any given writing assignment as a vehicle to practice the characteristics which are common to all academic writing assignments” (Preto-Bay, 2002, p.35). The objective of genre-based L2 literacy class is to have students who “ (1) analyze genres and apply that knowledge to new contexts, (2) revise genre theories, (3) develop strategies for dealing with new literacy tasks, (4) develop the ability to actively analyze and critique the different roles, texts, and contexts, (5) develop a metalanguage to discuss texts, (6) and reflect on past and present literacy experiences” (Preto-Bay, 2002, p. 38).

Genre is used as a vehicle for academic literacy by scholars to communicate with their peers. If someone want to be successful in acquisition of academic literacy in a specific discipline, s/he need to comprehend the disciplinary knowledge of communication. Because, academic literacy has a close relationship with the discipline's methodology and it is coordinated with discipline's norms, values, and ideology (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995) and it is acquired in social context of discourse community (Cheng, 2007).

A discourse community is a group of people who share some specific interests and a set of social conventions that is directed toward some purpose (Swales, 1990). A discourse community is related to both academic contexts, and recreational, social, political and online communities. Swales (1990) lists six categories for defining a discourse community:

- A broadly agreed set of common public goals
- Mechanisms of inter communication among its members

- Provision of information and feedback
- Genres creating discursal expectations
- Some shared specific lexis
- A threshold level of expert and novice members

Different reasons may cause to join a discourse community, and an individual can be a member of various communities at the same time. As interests and circumstances change, one wants to change his/her community. In other words, they can change from being active to inactive members and vice versa (Cheng,2007). Academic communities are selected and voluntary if contrasted with some communities related to individuals' daily life(Johns, 1997). Students gain academic literacy in academic discourse community. Students who enter academic disciplines have to learn disciplinary knowledge which every member of the disciplinary discourse community commonly uses as well as the ways of communications. It is necessary if they want to be a member of their disciplinary discourse community. Acquisition of academic literacy entails both the understanding of discourse communities, and disciplinary knowledge popular in that discourse community so as to have effective communication with other members (Cheng,2007).

The teaching and learning academic literacy approach are also affected by two different models, apprenticeship model and enculturation model. According to the first model, the development of students' academic literacy happens with the interaction between students and teacher. The teacher helps students take responsibility of their own works, and thus, the students can have ability to perform their individual works. The notion scaffolding is an inseparable part of this model in helping students learn academic literacy and disciplinary knowledge of a discourse community. The supporters of ESP approach to academic literacy employ cognitive apprenticeship, one method of apprenticeship, with ongoing three steps: modeling, which a typical example of writing of the related disciplinary is presented students, and students examine its genre; joint construction, which the teachers and students work together to create a new text in the same genre; independent construction, which students build new texts individually by using their disciplinary knowledge (Martin,1999). Nevertheless, some scholars criticized this model of academic literacy teaching because of its fixed view of discourse community and genre.

The new rhetorical approach to academic literacy sees apprenticeship as a process of enculturation (Cheng, 2007). The aim of this model is to make students familiarize to target discourse community. According to the advocates of this model, students acquire academic literacy by collaborating with scholarly staff in the discourse communities instead of explicit teaching (Bizzell, 1992; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Prior, 1998). Students develop their academic literacy joining in different academic activities, and in the sociocultural practices, not from explicit teaching. Thus, they gradually become experts, and they now are knowledge-transformers, not knowledge-teller. Many investigation on the theory of academic literacy has focused on only contexts, purposes and writing practices in second language writing. However, these two models take into account sociocultural theory with the focus on scaffolding.

A considerable interest has been given to context, disciplinary writing and discourse communities in researches. Some researchers have investigated the induction of novice scholars into their disciplinary discourse communities (Swales, 1990; Dudley-Evans, 1991; Belcher, 1994; Casanave, 1995; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995). The importance of discourse communities in forming generic competence of novice scholars has been widely accepted in this line of research (Bizzell, 1982a, 1982b; Bartholomae, 1985; Dias, 1994). Discourse community has had an important role both in theory and research of academic writing (e.g., Berkenkotter, Huckin & Ackerman, 1988, 1991; Herrington, 1985; Walvoord & McCarthy, 1990). Many case studies of academic literacy development focusing on the notion of discourse community have been concerned with non-native speakers (e.g. Horowitz, 1986; Santos, 1988; Belcher, 1989; Braine, 1989; Swales, 1990; Casanave, 1990, 1995; Howe, 1990; Johns, 1991, 1992; Carson & Kuehn, 1992; Leki, 1995; Leki & Carson, 1994; Belcher & Braine, 1995) and with the native speakers (e.g. Bazerman, 1988; Herrington, 1985, 1988; McCarthy, 1987; Rymer 1988; Swales, 1990; Myers, 1990; Nelson, 1990; Walvoord & McCarthy, 1990; Berkenlotter, Huckin, & Ackerman, 1991; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995).

Many case studies have investigated non-native speakers' writing experiences (e.g. Shaw, 1991; Casanave, 1992; Belcher, 1994; Schneider & Fujishima, 1995; Connor & Kramer, 1995). In their study, Schneider & Fujishima (1995) found that ESL student failed his language and academic courses and the reason for this failure may be only focusing on subject courses without any interaction with both university community and

larger disciplinary discourse community. Prior (1998) has also found the same problem in his study. Connor and Kramer (1995) found that language proficiency may have had an impact on ESL students' poor performances because they hadn't the strategies of report writer. Professional training and background affected not only ESL students' but also native speakers' task representation. The mutual result of these studies is that non-native students are disadvantageous at in their disciplinary writing.

Belcher (1994) studied two non-native graduate students with the objective of investigating how the students worked as members of their disciplinary communities and their relationship with their academic advisors. Dong (1996) studied with three graduate Chinese students from different disciplines and their native-speaker advisors. Her aim was to find how the advisors inducted their non-native students to their disciplines. They focused on particularly transformation skills such as dissertation writing formats, citation functions and citation norms. Riazi (1997) examined four Iranian doctoral students with the aim of determining the way these students acquired academic literacy according to their chosen disciplines. NNS students have missed changes to acquire academic literacy and they have not been a member of their discourse communities because of lack of language proficiency and different cultural values. These studies have provided wide information about learners, their strategies they use, the nature of their linguistic development, and their goals and attitudes with the learning environment the academic literacy and academic writing.

The contexts of writing has also been examined. Because of the permeability of contexts with the writing process in discipline, this line of research is connected with the research on discourse communities. The studies such as Berkenkotter, Huckin, & Ackerman, 1988; Faigley & Hansen, 1985; Casanave, 1992, have recorded the challenges students meet while learning to think and write in various disciplinary contexts. Herrington (1985) studied the same discipline, chemical engineering, but different classes: lab and design classes. The results of the study showed that different contexts need different textual formats and thinking ways. The writers wrote for different goals and for different audience.

In sum, the nature of academic literacy, and discourse communities have been clear due to L2 disciplinary writing studies focusing on discourse communities and

contexts. Different disciplines need different genres and each of them has unique discourse community. Induction into the disciplinary discourse communities is crucial for the academic success. Moreover, reading and writing effectively is insufficient to have academic literacy; socialization with instructors, and peers enhance the skills of academic literacy and thus, it will be easier to join in disciplinary communities and be disciplinary writers. Whereas, L2 learners are more disadvantageous in terms of their inadequate language proficiency in acquisition of academic literacy and access to the their specific discourse communities, L1 students have also difficulty.

Studies on second language disciplinary writing, discourse community, and academic literacy, particularly on the relationship between them, are undoubtedly knowledgeable. However, it is necessary to be explored how L2 learners can acquire academic literacy of their discipline with more subjects and from various discourse communities to be able to contribute to understanding as complete a picture of academic writing as possible.

2.4. Textual Borrowing

Textual borrowing is one of the distinctive component of academic writing. The basis of academic studies is based on writing from sources. In other words, a text is academic when it contains previously published research. However, students as novice writers have difficulties while integrating from sources appropriately. The terms ‘writing from sources, textual borrowing, and source use’ are used interchangeably while consulting the use of academic sources.

It is accepted that a number of factors such as cultural influences, linguistic proficiency, the nature of L2 learning, the nature of task and the features of the source text, students’ writing development and writing experiences have effect on ESL/EFL students’ textual borrowing performances. Different factors cause different problems with appropriate writing from sources. For example; culture has an important role in students’ writing practices. Students’ education system may be of the influence of culture on their textual borrowing. Each country has own education system and their views on what and how to teach and how to assess differ from each other. Some cultures such as Anglo-American culture, greatly emphasize on teaching writing

because writing is regularly used as a means of assessment. Thus, students are taught to write academically and consequently, they are conscious about how to produce acceptable academic texts when they are asked to write in English. On the other hand, in some countries such as Russia, much attention is given on oral assessment of students and they are rarely taught to write and they have poor performance in writing academically. Eventually, they are unable to produce a multi-voiced text due to their inexperience with academic writing. In sum, students' approaches to textual borrowing and their performances may be influenced by differences in cultural and thus, by educational differences.

Difficulty of comprehending the source text is one of the factors which affects on textual borrowing. The difficulty of the source text, the nature of reading, insufficient background knowledge and unfamiliarity with the topic are challenges which students or novice writers encounter while writing from sources. These factors may be reason why students plagiarize. Howard (1995,1999) and Roig (1999,2001) worked with L1 undergraduates and suggested that unfamiliar texts and the difficulties with texts are, in part, reasons for inappropriate textual borrowing. Champliss and Calfee (1998) note that text difficulty and comprehensibility are affected with vocabulary of source text and familiarity with topic. The difficulty of the understanding and paraphrasing of source texts may also be because of a lack of background knowledge of topic (Roig,1999, 2001; Swales & Feak, 2005). Swales and Feak (2004) also emphasize that there is no need to paraphrase vocabulary and terminology in a specific discipline but, unfamiliarity with the topic and the lack of background knowledge are challenges for novice writers both in comprehension and in the determination of jargon that needs to be used as it is and non-technical language which needs to be paraphrased.

Student writers' reading strategies for writing has also effect on the comprehension of source text and writing from it. For example; students rely heavily on bottom-up approach while reading to write. That is, they focus primarily on understanding sentence level and they cannot comprehend the overall gist and purpose of the source text. Consequently, their dependence on the source text increases while writing from sources. Thus, novice writers use either direct quotation as a common strategy to avoid inaccurate paraphrasing and plagiarism or they plagiarize.

Writing from sources has gotten many researchers' attention and a great number of studies have been conducted. Related studies are reviewed with a chronological order. However, the researcher does not follow the order so that she can discuss the studies that have thematic similarities. One of the early studies that investigated source use was that of Campbell (1990). She used a controlled design study and chose randomly 20 L1 freshmen, 10 ESL students from five composition classes at an American university. The first chapter of an undergraduate anthropology textbook was given to students to read as a homework. It was unnecessary to learn everything presented in the chapter because it would be background reading for composition assignment for students. Students and instructors discussed the terminology used in the chapter in a class session. Then, the students were given a composition topic based on the terminology used in the chapter. After that, the researcher statistically analyzed examples of source use in the students' compositions. The compositions were based on six types of sources use: *Quotation*, *Exact Copy*, *Near Copy*, *Paraphrase*, *Summary*, or *Original Explanation* and the function of the source and its location (introduction, body paragraph, last paragraph). The study found that *Near Copies* were used significantly in the writings by both L1 and L2 students even if there were differences in frequencies. In other words, there was no significant differences between the types of textual borrowing in L1 and L2 student writers. The reason for the lack of difference between the two groups might be the restricted rather than authentic nature of the task.

Another study that brought to light the complexity of source use and intertextuality in a discourse community was that of Berkenkotter, Huckin and Ackerman (1991). Using ethnographic data including observation, interview with faculty, fieldnotes from one research methodology course that the participant who was a first-year PhD student was attending, they followed Nate's, the participant, increasing ability to write introduction section of term papers of his PhD program. The aim of this longitudinal study was to reveal how Nate used schema and rhetorical knowledge related with his writing community. The researchers used Swales and Najjar's (1987) model of rhetorical moves explaining the manner that professional writers build intertextual connections with earlier research as an instrument and examined Nate's referencing practices in his term papers. His use of citation in his first semester paper was ineffective while the papers in the last term was found sophisticated intertextually.

The study found that students' effective citation is a function of their knowledge of the socially determined expectations of their discourse community.

Dong (1996) also examined intertextuality and citation practices. The participants were 3 senior Chinese PhD candidates from different disciplines with their professors and the study was completed in 6 months. In the study, drafts of the first chapter of the students' dissertation, semi-structured interviews as well as observation of professors-student conferences were used to collect data. The findings of the study showed the effect of intertextuality on success and failure of the three students to create a research space for the own work "by identifying connections among the citations through comparisons and contrasts" (p. 441). The study disclosed cognitive process behind documentation in academic writing and mechanical source use.

Leki and Carson (1997) examined textual borrowing practices of L2 writers in the mixed contexts, ESL writing courses and mainstream university courses, as difference from other researchers. In their inquiry, they interviewed with both graduate and undergraduate L2 writers. Both groups usually prepared source-based assignments. On the contrary of other studies' results that suggested writing from sources as difficult for L2, some L2 writers in this study precisely saw source-based writing more easier than writing based on personal experience. Moreover, two groups described writing from sources as beneficial because these texts helped them learn new 'vocabulary items, sentences structures, and the rhetorical forms ' that they could use in the writing assignments (p.56). In conclusion, Leki and Carson disclosed that source-based assignments were fewer in the ESL academic writing context than mainstream courses.

Another case study that examined L2 writers' the textual borrowing practices with qualitative methodology was of Spack (1997). She examined Yuko's, an undergraduate L2 writer in political science, use of academic source use during a three-year. The results of the study showed that the student extensively copied passages but, neither she used any quotation marks nor she interpreted adequately. Moreover, Spack mentioned that professors passed over the students' inappropriate practice. The results in the study emphasized that L2 writers need to a considerable time how to internalize the rules of source use although Spack's study included a small aspect of it. The

participant, Yuko, was able to comprehend the effective use of academic sources and was able to use in the third year in her academic career (Spack, 1997,p.46).

Currie (1998) found the similar results with Spack's (1997) in her case study in which investigated an undergraduate L2 writer's, Diana, source use. The student writer used sources inappropriately but her textual borrowing practices were ignored by her instructors and she had better grades for assignments included inappropriate source use. These grades motivated Diana to continue using her ineffectual source use strategy.

Leki (2003) examined the case of Yang, a student in her undergraduate nursing degree, in her study. The study was focused on both source use and on Yang's overall experience in literacy. As similar to Currie's (1998), Leki found that Yang applied to copying for the reason that a professor gave improperly feedback for a written assignment of Yang. Therefore, she concluded that "if you change, you are wrong.. If you copy correctly, there is no error" (Leki,2003, p.91).

Both in Currie's (1998) and Leki's (2003) study, the participants copied directly not a result of a desire to cheat or a lack of effort. They used direct copy because they wanted to survive in their academic setting. Otherwise, both of them spent a considerable time for reading and writing in their courses. However, they became unsuccessful to apply other strategies.

Borg (2000) conducted a comparative study on how L1 and L2 writers integrate sources in an out-of-class written assignment. The students were allowed to choose five different topics and time for background research, writing, and revision. Many L2 students chose personal topics so that they could write from source text minimally. The other L2 students produced fewer citations than L1 writers. Moreover, L2 writers' quotations were 40 words or more, that is, more than L1 writers'. The L2 writers also had more problems in understanding and integrating sources in their writing. The study found that both groups had various errors such as differences in bibliographic reference formats, differences in the form of references in the text, the failure in application beginning and ending quotation marks (Borg, 2000, p. 34). Though important findings, Borg was not able to explain the possible textual borrowing strategies students used.

In her study, Pecorari (2003) also investigated textual borrowing practices collecting data from master's theses and doctoral dissertations of 17 graduate students at

three British Universities. She found that students' writing were considerably based on the original sources and source texts were not changed adequately and attributed appropriately. Thus, the reader did not successfully distinguish student writers' ideas from source texts. Almost all L2 writers (16 of the 17) copied half of words (50%) from the original sources and they did not use any quotation. According to Pecorari (2003), cultural differences did not affect textual borrowing practices of L2 writers, because they had lived in Britain and they knew what plagiarism was. But; they failed in application of this knowledge while writing from sources. Their misuse of source texts were unintentional.

Jones and Freeman (2003) focused on textual analyses of textual borrowing practices in physics reports in their study. The participants were L1 and L2 writers in their undergraduate studies from different departments of sciences at an Australian university. Jones and Freeman mentioned that not only L1 but also L2 writers used "inappropriate or ineffectual copying" (p.174) more frequently in their reports. Passages, phrases, words related to the facts or figures in the experiment were mostly copied. However, they saw copying in sciences as effective if it is applied successfully while they did not approve copying because it might cause to understand poorly the goals of the reports.

Another researchers who studied students' reports to investigate textual borrowing strategies are Krishnan and Katpalia (2002). They used to collect data final year project reports of L2 undergraduate writers in engineering in Singapore. The results of the study did not show clearly how much direct copy was used but some copying strategies students used to avoid plagiarism were analyzed. The researchers defined students' strategies as "plagiphrasing" because it was difficult to separate students' voices from original texts. The students' reports included in heavy dependence on other sources. Krishnan and Katpalia emphasized that L2 writers had difficulties how to choose quoted information and how to use it effectively.

Flowerdew and Li (2007) conducted a study that investigated textual borrowing practices of Chinese Doctoral students in the sciences using textual analyses and interviews. Like Pecorari (2003), Flowerdew and Li also evaluated these L2 writers' textual borrowing practices as largely inappropriate. Yet, L2 writers did not accept that

their work was inappropriate. For example, some of these writers claimed that if the experimental procedure is ...the same or very similar to what has been done before (p. 458), [the sentences] refer to ideas that are common knowledge within the discipline (p. 458), and —for reporting results of uncontroversial and relatively routinized phenomena (p. 459), copying sentences from source texts was appropriate or acceptable. They concluded that the understanding appropriate source use of novice writers in the study are more flexible than experienced scholars. That is, professional scholars supported the necessity and vitality of following standards of textual borrowing. However, professionals in scientific fields were opposed to be more stringent about standards of source use because of the lack of originality in wording.

Shi (2008) conducted a study which investigated the citing behaviours of 16 undergraduate students in a North American university. They, firstly, prepared a research paper for their disciplinary courses. Then, the researcher interviewed with each student to find the reason why they cite or they do not cite and how they cite; the ways in using sources (e.g., quotes, summaries, and paraphrases). The results of the study showed that various factors such as “ functional uses of cited works, quoting or paraphrasing, a process of learning, textual capital, and citers’ comments or source texts” (Shi, 2008, p. 21) had an effect on L2 writers’ citing decisions. Many novice writers cited from source texts to support their arguments inasmuch as they saw source texts as *others’ words and ideas* that were worth quoting directly (Shi, 2008, p. 13). Additionally, some novice writers mentioned that every knowledge did not need to be cited if they had met them previously in textbooks, courses, passages or they were common knowledge. According to Shi (2008), students were critical about not citing. Furthermore, novice writers stated approximately same reasons why they used summarizing as one way of source use even if they had different reasons for paraphrasing and quoting. Some novice writers, for example, saw paraphrasing as a way of using sources, thus, they paraphrased while others thought that direct quoting could be inappropriate in some parts of their papers, and still others were not sure whether secondary sources could be quoted.

Suh (2008) is another scholar who searched textual borrowing practices. In her exploratory case study, she examined textual borrowing strategies of a Korean novice writer’s (Jen’s) writing from source texts. The novice writer was a student in a TESOL

program at a U.S. university. In the study, the researcher used to collect data semi-structured interviews on the participant's academic literacy experiences, authentic writing assignments, retrospective interviews on her studies using Deckert's (1993) questionnaire on plagiarism identification and paraphrasing task, and post-task interview. Developing basically from Howard's (1999), Suh categorized textual borrowing practices as "*exact copy, add and delete, replacement of words, changes in syntax and paraphrase*" (Suh,2008, p.176). The results indicated that Jen's previous education and experiences on academic writing and current contexts affected on what she thought about paraphrasing, plagiarism, and textual borrowing, citation, and her practices. She commonly used patchwriting as a copying strategy because she misconceived paraphrasing. In other words, she exactly did not know the purpose of paraphrasing. She mentioned that she paraphrased difficult and complex sentences but she copied easier sentences. Her these textual borrowing practices ended with unintentional plagiarism. Moreover, she was inexperienced with academic writing and it also promoted to her inappropriate textual borrowing practices and, thus, inadvertent plagiarism. Additionally, her inexperience with academic writing in both her native language and second language, English, increased textual dependence on language staying close to the text and content and resulted in patchwriting.

Wette (2010) carried out an action research on writing using sources. Data was collected from 78 undergraduate students in a university of New Zealand using pre-unit and post-unit tests, out-of-class assignment and post-unit reflective comments. But, students were firstly given a 8-hour instruction .The results of the inquiry indicated that there was a significant improvement in many of students' writing using sources and they copied from text less than before even if the period of instruction and practice were relatively short although some of them had the same score between pre-unit test and post-unit test. The study also showed that students tried to closely paraphrase but commonly ignored the content because they encountered challenges to comprehend complexities in texts, to summarize content accurately and integrating source texts.

Tomaš (2006) is another researcher who investigated whether a semester-long writing instruction in an academic writing course changed textual borrowing practices of L2 student writers. 13 L2 writers were in a required ESL academic writing course and 12 L1 writers were in writing course for native speakers of English at a US

university. During instruction period, the student writers were instructed on academic writing skills such as quoting, summarizing, and paraphrasing. It was found that the semester-long course helped L2 writers develop their source use practices. Lexical, syntactic, and attributive improvements in their writing were determined. At the beginning of the semester, there were differences between two groups but, these differences were not seen at the end of the semester. The student writers produced eight smaller-scale summaries and their instructor gave feedback them. Moreover, the students had to revise source use in their summaries until they learned how to appropriately cite. However, the effectiveness of instruction on textual borrowing was based merely on a report by the instructor and therefore, further research is necessary to explain the usefulness of writing instruction.

Tomaš (2011) also carried out a case study on the nature of textual borrowing instruction and implementation of instruction by students in the United States . One instructor in an undergraduate academic writing course for L2 writers and three L2 undergraduate students participated in the study. The researcher collected the data by summaries written by L2 writers, written assignments and documents, interview individually and participant observation. The results of the study revealed that three L2 writers used to be able to avoid apparent plagiarism with basic textual borrowing strategies such as paraphrasing; they changed words in source texts with their synonyms. Nonetheless, their challenges with reading and writing strategies, integrating source texts with their papers and selecting and organizing source. Additionally, the findings showed that instructor overlooked the challenges with textual borrowing that students had and she simplified instruction.

In her study, Hsu (2003) investigated instructional effectiveness of a graduate writing course in the US context. The participants of the study were 20 L2 writers and they produced essays at the beginning and end of the course. The results of the study revealed that there was a significant development in students' source use between pre-test and post-test essays. Hsu mentioned that L2 writers decreased the extend of direct copying and number of unregistered sources in their text. Furthermore, their comprehension of plagiarism increased and they used strategies to avoid plagiarism. However, Hsu's study lacked of rich description of the course. In other words, it was not clearly explained how much time to spend on source use, how much source-based

writing to produce by L2 writers, what instructional materials to use for helping L2 writers and finally, how much source-based feedback the students were given on their individual text.

Ouellette (2004) carried out a qualitative in which he investigated L2 writers' textual borrowing practices and the the role of writing instruction on plagiarism and source use. The findings showed that the process of writing from sources were rather influential than previous studies related to plagiarism and textual borrowing. He also found that there was dissimilarity between the instructor's and L2 student writers' aspect of textual borrowing and plagiarism. That is, L2 writers saw textual borrowing strategies as a set of concrete rules which help them take good grades while the instructor mentioned that source responsible writing help the writers have membership in a more extensive academic community. The instructor used teacher-centered method while teaching source use but, Ouellette stated that small group and pair discussions may help the students engage with plagiarism.

Howard, Serviss and Rodrigue (2010) also examined research texts of 18 student in a general composition class and found that students commonly paraphrased, copied directly, and patchwrote from sentences rather than sources. They did not use summary while composing their texts though it is one of the important component of source-based writing. They might not have understood the technical topic which it was different from their fields therefore, they used acceptable sentences from sources to paraphrase, copy from, or patchwrite from them. However, they got close to the language of the source and plagiarized unintentionally.

A comparative study was carried out in English-medium university in Central Europe by Petric' (2012). The data consisted of the textual analysis of 8 high-rated and 8 low-rated MA theses and interview with their writers. The researcher compared the direct quotations in students' theses and examined their motivation to quote directly from sources. The results showed that in high-rated theses, direct quotation was found more frequently than in low-rated theses. While student writers of low-rated theses used clause-based quotation to integrate into their texts, ones of high-rated theses preferred quotation chunks requiring modification when they quoted in a text. Nevertheless, direct quotations in high-rated theses were not always used effectively. Interview

analysis indicated various reasons to use direct quotation such as source-related reasons (text's difficulty to paraphrase, its effectiveness in terms of linguistic and content), the writer's own goals (to present stylistic variety), external factors (fatigue and lack of time), and beliefs and fears of plagiarism (inconfidence in their own linguistic ability and fear of misrepresent source text).

A most recent study examining the process of source use development on EAP and Master's programmes was conducted by Mary Davis (2013). Data consisted of case-study assignments, a 3000-word report, postgraduate report, and Master's dissertation which were collected from three postgraduate students of different disciplines during two-year period. It was found that they did not exactly comprehend plagiarism and paraphrasing thus, they commonly depended on source text and copying from websites while constructing their papers. They copied original sentences without remarking quotation or with incorrect citation. Moreover, students developed their individual strategies of writing from sources even if they did not have advanced writing skills. During the process, they learned to use limited range of reporting verbs (e.g. agree, state, advocate) and citation or they overcited and copied pieces of attributed text relying on internet sources.

To sum up, studies have shown that there are problems in L2 writers' understanding acceptable or appropriate textual borrowing practices. They became unsuccessful to cite appropriately. However, their failure was not because of an intention to cheat or mistake. Currie (1998) and Leki (2003) indicated that the participants in their case studies misused sources to finish their works successfully. Since, they thought that if they completed their work using sources, they would be able to receive higher grades than when their written work was based merely on their own words. It reflects the scarcity in their understanding of textual borrowing. Additionally, relevant studies emphasized the challenges they the student writers encountered while using sources and offered several explanations for the reason why L2 writers experienced these challenges such as controlled, time restricting tasks or individual reasons such as insufficient background knowledge, cultural differences etc. While it was mentioned in a group of studies that L2 writers commonly used direct copy as textual borrowing strategy, some studies indicated that L1 writers also copied as much as L2 writers. Finally, some studies were conducted to investigate the

effectiveness or usefulness of instruction on textual borrowing (e.g.Hsu,2003; Ouellette,2004; Tomaš, 2006; Tomaš,2011; Wette,2010). It was found that there were significant developments in students' performances on appropriate source use after they joined in academic writing instructions. However, there are still deficiencies in the process of the instruction, what materials to use, and the amount and kind of practices on source use.

2.4.1. Plagiarism

Before referring to the issues concerning it is worth taking the definition of plagiarism into consideration. "Plagiarize" was derived from the Latin word *plagiarius* which means 'kidnap' or 'plunder'. Plagiarism, in the Oxford Dictionary, means "the wrongful appropriation or purloining, and publication as one's own, of ideas, or the expression of the ideas of another" (Simpson,1990,p.947). Additionally, it is defined as "the unauthorized use or close imitation of the language and thoughts of another author and the representation of them as one's own original work" in the Random House Dictionary of the English language (Flexner, 1987; cited in Yang, 2014, p. 12).

Various manuals has also described plagiarism. In the American Psychological Association Manual (APA) (6th ed.), for example, authors plagiarize when "they present the words and ideas of another as they were their own" and self-plagiarism happens when "authors present their own previously published work as if it was new" (American Psychological Association,2012,pp.15-16). Besides, MLA Handbook for Writers of Research Papers (7thed.), defines plagiarism as follows;

Plagiarism involves two kinds of wrongs. Using another person's ideas, information, or expressions without acknowledging that person's work constitutes intellectual theft. Passing off another person's ideas, information, or expressions as your own to get a better grade or gain some other advantages constitutes fraud (Modern Language Association of America, 2009, p. 66).

Besides the definition in dictionaries and manuals, the policies of the universities have also definition of plagiarism. For example, Purdue University defines plagiarism as the following:

In an instructional setting, plagiarism occurs when a writer deliberately uses someone else's language, ideas, or other original material without acknowledging its source (Purdue Online Writing Lab,2014).

Additionally, the Department of English in Western Rock University defines plagiarism as “ the unacknowledged borrowing ideas, facts, and phrases, wordings, or whole works, either through direct quotation, indirect quotation, paraphrasing or summarizing without appropriate documentation” (*Statement of Plagiarism,2013*).

The definitions in dictionaries, manuals and universities' websites look like abstract for students to easily comprehend plagiarism in real life practices. Angelil-Carter (2000) touched on the abstractness and described plagiarism as “ill-defined concept”. Howard (2000a) also recommended to change plagiarism with terms like “fraud, citation and repetition” because of abstract and ambiguous definitions. Buranen (1999, p.64) mentioned focusing on the difficulty in comprehending plagiarism based on its academic definition that:

One of the major problems with the word plagiarism itself is its use as a kind of wastebasket, into which we toss anything we do not know what to do with: it can refer, at various times, to outright cheating (for instance, purchasing a research paper and presenting it as one's own work); to appropriating large blocks of text without attribution; to omissions or mistakes in citations; to paraphrasing an original too closely; to collaborating too closely ...”

Composition teachers think that writing pedagogy such as multiple drafts and repeated interventions in the writing process may both help both students and teachers to discourage plagiarism and encourage students to express ideas with their own words. Rebecca Howard (1993,1995), in her studies, defined such pedagogy and determined “ levels of plagiarism”. *Outright cheating*, the first level, contains in borrowing the task which is produced by someone else and submitting it with his or her own name. The next level *non-attribution* is related to the writing which consists of passages from

published or unpublished works but without indicating citation (1995,pp.788,798). She called the last but not least serious level *patchwriting* (1993, p.234) and described it as close paraphrasing (1995, p.788,798).

Some researchers also generated forms of plagiarism by students in four particular moves (Wilhoit,1994; Brandt,2002; Howard, 2002, cited in Park, 2003, p.475) as follows;

1. Stealing material from another source and passing it off as their own, e.g.
 - (a) buying a paper from a research service, essay bank or term paper mill (either pre-written or specially written),
 - (b) copying a whole paper from a source text without proper acknowledgement,
 - (c) submitting another student's work, with or without that student's knowledge (e.g. by copying a computer disk).
2. Submitting a paper written by someone else (e.g. a peer or relative) and passing it off as their own.
3. Copying sections of material from one or more source texts, supplying proper documentation (including the full reference) but leaving out quotation marks, thus giving the impression that the material has been paraphrased rather than directly quoted.
4. Paraphrasing material from one or more source texts without supplying appropriate documentation.

Student writers may be accused of plagiarism as a result of inappropriate use of sources. Therefore, Bouman (2009b, p.166) submitted the following standards for the writers to interact with sources legitimately:

1. They need to understand the meaning of all the words and ideas in a source text.
2. They need to accurately discern the author's tone and stance in the writing.
3. They need to come up with lexical and syntactic equivalents of the source text (alternative words and sentence structures so that they can express the source's meaning in original language).

Additionally, Pecorari (2003) offered the term “transparent “ in order to express legitimate source use . “Transparency “ means “signaling the relationship between sources and citing text accurately; plagiarism is used as the opposite term” (p. 324). Likewise, transparency points out three areas : “(1) the identity of the text’s origins; (2) text’s language; and (3) the content of a source “ (p.324). Diana Pecorari (2003, p.324) also limited the standards to determine whether a work is plagiarism or not as follows:

1. That language which is not signaled as quotation is original to the writer;
2. That if no citation is present, both the content and the form are original to the writer;
3. That the writer consulted the source which is cited.

Shi’s study (2012), however, showed that referencing sources, paraphrasing sentences and summarizing texts indicated differences in disciplines, thus, according to Shi, implementing the same rules in some contexts while writing from sources may be invalid. Although scholars have not agreed in whether to use or follow the steps, using certain rules are still crucial.

Besides the conversation of whether following rules while using texts, scholars have not reached an agreement in the influence of culture on plagiarism. Many of them think that people of different cultures differently understand plagiarism. Wintergerst and McVeigh (2011), for example, stated that “students from other cultures with different orientations of cheating and plagiarism may not realize that sanctions for such behaviors in the United States are harsh and are shocked to find themselves facing severe penalties for actions that were considered minor in their home cultures” (p. 162). This idea also supported by Pecorari (2003) and she mentioned that “no evidence exists that non-native English speakers plagiarize more than their native English speaker counterparts, it has sometimes been asserted that they do” (p. 321).

Many scientists think that the role of culture in influencing novice writers’ understanding is important. According to Scollon (1995), people’s comprehension of plagiarism is affected by ideological differences in a particular culture. He especially mentioned that the apparent difficulty non-native students of English meet in using references, paraphrase, quotation, and in avoiding plagiarism, might be interpreted as reflecting a different ideological based” (p. 6). Furthermore, Hayward (2004) examined

the tutoring experiences in the writing center and found that ESL/EFL students' inappropriate writings and plagiarism may be result of their language acquisition development in their native countries. Sowden (2005) also supported the cultural reasons in students' plagiarism giving examples. According to Sowden, good students in China do not challenge their teachers or other authorities but faithfully copy and reproduce them (p. 277). Correspondingly, Matelene (1985) analyzed the journal writings of her students from a Chinese university and stated that particular educational philosophy and history in Chinese culture had affected the students' inappropriate writing practices. In Confucian tradition which has had an impact on China and Japan, plagiarism practices were seen as important to support cultural values thereby, the behaviours practices were accepted.

Yet, some academics contradicted the idea that plagiarism was approved in some cultures. For example, Sowden's (2005) idea was opposed by Ha (2006) and Liu (2005). Similarly, Wheeler (2009) conducted a study to investigate ESL students' perception of plagiarism at Hokkaido University in Japan that plagiarism was regarded as culturally acceptable. 77 students participated in the study and a survey was given them at the beginning of academic semester and students read three writing assignments of plagiarism and graded them before and after they read the published article. The results of the study found that the reason students' practice of plagiarism was because of insufficient knowledge of plagiarism rather than cultural belief.

Maxwell, Curtis and Vardanega (2008), in their study, investigated undergraduate students' understanding of plagiarism and the seriousness of plagiarism. 242 undergraduates, 152 Australian and 90 Asian students, from two Australian universities participated in the study and researchers collected data by using self-reported questionnaires consisting of 7 plagiarism scenarios and Likert-scales. The researchers compared the two groups of participants and the results revealed that there was not significant difference between Australian students and Asian students in understanding plagiarism and perception of seriousness.

The researchers above could not agree on whether culture is the reason of ESL/EFL students' plagiarism. Moreover, the knowledge in the discussions is insufficient to prove cultural effects on ESL/EFL students' understanding of plagiarism.

In addition to the discussions on effect of culture on plagiarism, researchers also discussed the influence of gender on students' perception of plagiarism. In some studies, it was found that male and female students had differences in terms of the way they saw and perceived plagiarism and these studies showed that male students were more likely to plagiarize than female students (Caron, Whitbourne, & Halgin, 1992; Crown & Spiller, 1998; Hendershott, Drinan & Cross, 1999; Gilligan, 1982; Lin & Wen, 2006; Ward & Beck, 2001; Whitley, 1998, 1999). Lin and Wen (2006) examined students' attitudes towards plagiarism in Taiwan and they explored that male students were more sympathetic towards plagiarism than their female counterparts. Additionally, male students had a higher rates of plagiarism when contrasted with female students. Lin and Wen (2006) claimed that thanks to Chinese tradition, female students were less vulnerable to plagiarism because, according to the tradition, woman should be honest and carry out the rules; if not, they would be shamed throughout their life. Likewise, Caron, Whitbourne and Halgin (1992) also investigated the university students' attitudes to plagiarism and deceitful excuses using questionnaires and the results of the study indicated that male students were both more prone to plagiarism and more likely to find excuses to plagiarize than the female students. Similarly, in their study, Ward and Beck (2001) the results affirmed that male had an more tolerant to plagiarism than female. In the study by Hendershott et al. (1999), it is found that female students' motivation of plagiarism was lower than those of the male students. But, according to some studies, gender has not a serious difference in male and female' attitude on plagiarism. Wheeler's (2009) study, for example, reported that gender did not differ in Japanese students' approach to plagiarism.

Educational level of the students were also regarded a reason for plagiarism by some scholars. For example, the result of Deckert's (1993) study indicated that the ESL students from higher educational level in a tertiary school were less likely to commit plagiarism and were more competent to recognize plagiarism. Similarly, Lin and Wen (2006) contrasted the senior students and freshmen students' approach to plagiarism and found that the fresh men were more tolerant of plagiarism than the senior students and they had a higher rate of plagiarism. Likewise, Rinnert and Kobayashi (2005) conducted a study by using questionnaires and interviews that examined 605 Japanese ESL and EFL undergraduate students' and 110 graduate students' understanding of plagiarism in

Japan. Researchers compared the responses of participants across disciplines and across academic levels, and they also compared the results with the responses of 76 undergraduate students in the US. The study showed that American participants regarded citing from sources as more important than the Japanese participants did. Besides, undergraduate students regarded citation as less important when compared to the graduate students.

Sims (1995) also supported the phenomenon in his study that graduate students had a less possibility to plagiarize than their undergraduate counterparts. Sims (1995) reported possible reasons why graduate students and undergraduate students differed from each other in recognizing plagiarism. According to Sims (1995), the more money, capital, and energy in their education they invested and more practices and more familiarity with academic writings might be reasons that influenced on the graduate students to avoid plagiarism and perform better than their undergraduate counterparts.

Shi (2006) investigated the interviews and group discussions of 46 undergraduate students to find out whether their perceptions change to the extent of different cultural backgrounds and different languages. The participants composed of 11 native speaker of English and 35 ESL/EFL students from various countries. The study showed that participants did not exactly know the way to attribute to ideas in the writing. Moreover, the definitions of plagiarism was found unfamiliar and unacceptable by the students who were not western background. The participants from Asian countries saw plagiarism as a challenge in terms of culture and language and they conveyed that they had little instructions on plagiarism in their own countries.

Another researchers who investigated past practices and judgements of master students on plagiarism in the university of their own country were Hayes and Introna (2005). 126 students at post-graduate program in Lancaster University participated in the study and they were from various countries. Questionnaires and interviews were used by the researchers to collect data. It was explored in the study that students' experiences and perceptions dealing with learning, English proficiency and memorizations in their home country were various. The study also indicated that forbidden teamwork in the examination was generally seen as routine and insignificant by Asian and Greek post-graduate students. Additionally, the study found the challenges

students encountered while trying to avoid from plagiarism such as insufficient knowledge in academic writing, poor language abilities, stress from academic, finance and language.

A study which examined university plagiarism policies and their influence on students' text production was conducted by Abasi and Akbari (2008). Four ESL/EFL graduate students and three professors from different disciplines at a Canadian university participated in the study and researchers used multiple data sources including text-based and in-depth interviews with students and professors and course materials. It was found various patchwriting examples in students' writings in terms of both language and ideas. The students used patchwriting as a strategy to survive in their academic environment. Their language proficiency, deadlines for assignments, heavy reading-load and high expectations of professors had an effect on their writing performances and patchwriting practices. The results of the study also showed that major students used sources more appropriately.

Evans and Youmans (2000) carried out a study in which they investigated the beliefs and behaviours of ESL students towards plagiarism. The methodology included interviews, questionnaires, tape-recording the ESL student group discussions, and teaching sessions. The results indicated that the way students regarded plagiarism was consistent with the western plagiarism understanding. They mentioned that the plagiarism perception was the same all over the world. However, their understanding of western plagiarism was underdeveloped and instructors and students might reach to a mutual understanding only with interaction.

In their study, Hull and Rose (1989) examined a participant's, Tanya, writing practices and her perspective towards using sources in detail. The researchers found problematic her writing and evaluated it as apparent plagiarism. She committed plagiarism due to desire to learn and to be successful, not to deceive. In other words, the participant saw plagiarism as a strategy rather than commitment.

Collecting data through questionnaire, Overbey and Guiling (1999) researched the perceptions about plagiarism of 150 undergraduates whose native language was English, their understanding of correct source citation and their assessments of plagiarized writing assignments. In the questionnaire, students were asked about their

views about apparent plagiarism examples. The students' responses showed that unless a textual practice has an intention to deceive, it is not expected to be punished. This points out students' understanding of plagiarism is based on writer's intent. The findings also revealed that students did not know the role and importance of citation in writing and they believed that "putting information into one's own words without providing a reference anywhere" (p.12) was acceptable. Another important finding of the study is that there are some complexities in plagiarism and appropriate textual borrowing even among North American students who are expected they are familiar with plagiarism.

Lea and Street (1998) carried out a study in the UK in which they examined student plagiarism. Through an academic literacy approach, they collected research data with interviews with both students and their instructors, observation group discussion, and students' papers. They examined students' developing roles as academic writers and their socialization into form of authority in their writing as well as students' plagiarism. The findings showed that students did exactly not know how plagiarism occurred and they "were confused to understand the implicit relationship between acknowledging the source of the text and acknowledging the authority of the text" (p. 167). The researchers also found that while "the issue of referencing sources [was] clear; for students the boundary between their sources and their own account [was] less certain ... as they feel ... that all of their knowledge is implicated in others' text" (pp. 167-168). It was revealed that there were differences between students and professors' notion of plagiarism and between their relationship with text and knowledge.

Angelil-Carter (2000) conducted an ethnographic inquiry at a South African university. The study primarily focused on student plagiarism and it was conducted in two phases. In first phase of the study, Angelil-Carter examined the assignments of Tshediso, undergraduate student, during a period in a year and she interviewed the professors who graded the participant's essays. In the second phase, she studied on the papers of first-year and third-year undergraduates who had difficulties in integrating sentences and ideas into an essay and who did not show these difficulties. The study presented possible reasons consisting of their difficulties with the academic discourse, and "hybridization of discourse" that contained "mixing of old and new discourses"

(p.37). Particularly, their previous literacy practices and their prior cultural contexts had an role in their plagiarism practices.

In her study, Fiona Hyland (2001) examined whether teachers' feedback on students' writing influenced on students' plagiarism. Six undergraduate students and two course teachers in two preparatory English courses at a university in New Zeland were the participants in the study and students' writings, think aloud protocols, and interviews with both six students and their teachers were used to collect data. Hyland found that the teachers gave indirect feedback on the students' inappropriate textual borrowing practices and this had an impact on learning an writing of students. The teachers showed indirectly student plagiarisim by discussing referencing so, the students were not able to connect unacceptable textual borrowing and referencing. Because they could not comprehend the reasons for referencing other peoples' work although they had instruction about it.

Using interviews, questionnaire, summary-reaction papers the learners who were in an academic English course in Japan produced, and senior theses in English and Japanese, LoCastro and Masuko (2002) researched Japanese students' attitudes and perceptions of plagiarism and whether the reasons which previous research had explained why students committed plagiarism were acceptable in Japan. The analysis of interviews and questionnaires indicated that almost all of the students accepted that they used copy while writing from sources due to their unfamiliarity with what might cause plagiarism or how to avoid it, their poor language proficiency to paraphrase and summary sources, and the reasons why Western culture saw plagiarism as negative. These results of interviews and questionnaire supported previous findings in literature on plagiarism. The researchers also examined the impact of sociocultural context of Japan and Japanese educational system on student plagiarism because Japanese students are given neither any instruction on how to write extensive papers in their native language nor instruction on writing in EFL context. In other words, the education they receive does not prepare them for proficient academic work. Therefore, there might be more plagiarism than researchers and instructors expect.

Starfield (2002) had an inquiry which examined student plagiarism in the perspective of their social class situation and larger social domination. The researcher

collected the data through two papers produced by Siphon, a black female student, and Philip, a white male student for an undergraduate sociology course at a South African university, interviews with these students and their course professor. Philip had a historically privileged white middle class background and had also literacy practices identical to the ones of the college. This similarity helped him produce a powerful and authoritative text and thus, he constructed discursive identity for himself. Philip presented a sophisticated knowledge in intertextuality and textual borrowing. But, Siphon had class-based literacy practice and she was not sophisticated enough in appropriate and successful academic writing. This moderately caused her both to use over-referencing authorities and to copy a large chunk of sources in her essay. In short, the study emphasized on the impact of social hierarchy on textual reproduction.

With 17 post-graduate students, both English native students and non-native students from different disciplines in Britain, Pecorari (2003) examined student plagiarism. The researcher, at first, collected the writing samples from the participants who were conducting their master theses, then, she used PhD dissertations of participants for analysis, and interviews on students' understanding of plagiarism. Finally, she compared the parts of the sources in students' writings with the original sources. The results of the analysis revealed that all of the writings of the participants consisted of plagiarism. Also, the results showed that the students had no intention to plagiarize and they were aware of plagiarism. Comparing writings between English native students and non-native students, Pecorari found that culture was not a reason to reveal Students' plagiarism. The study also found that patchwriting was a stage for the students to develop their writing abilities as it was in Howard's (1993) study.

Chandrasoma, Thompson, and Pennycook (2004) studied student plagiarism to examine students' intertextuality from the standpoint of their perspectives and descriptions using writing samples produced by 22 Asian undergraduate students from various disciplines, and interviews with both these students and 10 faculty members in Australia. The researchers found that one of the students, Natalie, copied certain phrases word-for-word from a source without any attribution (p.179). In the interview with her, she expressed that she did not like academic practices and academic values. Moreover, she knew the fact that she had copied as well as problematic structure of her referencing. A key finding of the study was the importance of context in determining

which structures of intertextuality are transgressive and which structures are not. The finding submitted that student plagiarism was affected from “the level of, and background of the students, the nature of the assignment, the attitude of the lecturer, and the nature of the discipline” (p.189). What might form transgressive intertextuality was illuminated by the following example. Although Natalie’s paper contained unattributed copying from a very well known text and there were numerous textual similarities, the professor marked her paper as acceptable. On the contrary, the paper of another student, Catherine included instances of unacceptable source use from a class material which both the professor and Catherine knew but, this time the professor considered the paper as transgressive and problematic. This indicated that whether common knowledge is assumed transgressive or nontransgressive intertextuality is highly context dependent but, whether intertextuality is transgressive or nontransgressive cannot be designated with context.

In her study, Bradinova (2006) studied university students’ and their instructors’ perceptions of plagiarism, teachers’ strategies to prevent plagiarism and students’ views of these strategies, what plagiarism means to students, their approach toward plagiarism, the effect of their gender, native language, and GPA on plagiarism. The participants were three hundred eighty-eight English native students, 38 non-native students, and 4 university instructors. The researcher used a Students’ Survey with both English native students and non-native students, and interview with 2 English native students and 2 non-native students, and 4 university teachers. The findings of the Students’ Survey did not show any significant differences among the students’ understanding of the meaning of plagiarism, their views of their teachers’ plagiarism prevention strategies, and their gender, native language, and GPA. When the researcher examined the possible effects of gender on plagiarism, although there were not any significant differences between male and female students, the analysis showed that female students were better to express higher opinions than the male students. The analysis of the effects of language on their plagiarism perceptions indicated that both English native students and non-native students knew what causes plagiarism. Furthermore, neither students with a higher GPA nor students with lower GPA differed to understand meaning of plagiarism and what constitutes plagiarism.

A most recent study investigating 80 ESL/EFL students' understanding of plagiarism, and the impact of gender, educational level and nationality on plagiarism was conducted by Wenxi Yang (2014). The participants were from different countries and different educational levels. The data were gathered with a questionnaire including in four demographic questions, three open-ended questions, and 21 likert-scale scenarios of plagiarism. The findings from the analysis are presented as follows:

- Many participants knew what plagiarism is in an abstract level.
- While male students considered of “writing a paper with all the paragraphs from several different articles by using citations and question marks” (p.77) as not plagiarism, female students saw it as plagiarism.
- “Copying a few sentences from another article when writing a paper without referencing the source” and “submitting a paper partially written by another student to the professor”(p.77) were not perceived as plagiarism by the female participants while they considered making the corrected or edited as plagiarism.
- The students' educational level impacted their understanding on the scenarios of plagiarism. There were significant differences between undergraduate and graduate participants in connecting plagiarism with concrete scenarios.
- The students from different nationalities had significant differences about plagiarism. For example; “cheating on a quiz” was not regarded as plagiarism or wrong by Japanese, Chinese, and Korean participants.
- “Unfamiliar with the definition and rules of plagiarism” and “everyone plagiarizes” were main reasons of EFL/ESL participants' plagiarism.
- Many participants were aware the university policies against plagiarism and they saw their policies as unsuccessful.

As being different from previous studies, Sutherland-Smith (2005) examined views of professors on plagiarism. 11 English for Academic Purposes (EAP) professors who taught writing in two different faculties of an Australian university were participants of the study and the researcher used questionnaires and interviews with these professors to examine their perceptions of plagiarism and plagiarism definitions. The results showed that a minority of professors stated that “all acts of

plagiarism are, by definition, intentional, as students are well aware of the policy and know that copying is punishable under the regulation” (p.88), but, the majority debated the presence of students’ intention to plagiarize in their writing. The researcher found that most professors were able to use Internet software, retrieval techniques, and free website search engines while checking and identifying plagiarism while many professors were demoralized by some factors such as a busy workload, oppressive policy to find out cases of plagiarism.

Another study which was conducted by 26 faculty members from different academic disciplines at a British university to investigate their perceptions on plagiarism and cheating was Flint, Clegg, and MacDonald (2006)’s. They classified the participants’ views of the relationship between plagiarism and cheating into four groups. For example, according to some plagiarism and cheating were the same, they were different subjects for some, some of them thought that there were some similarities between them, and others saw plagiarism as a subcategory of cheating. A significant finding of the study was that the "most common view from all disciplines was that plagiarism and cheating share common characteristic but also have essential differences" (p. 150).

In Turkish context, Eret and Gokmenoglu (2010) investigated research assistants’ views on plagiarism, their understanding about plagiarism, factors leading them to plagiarize, and differences among these research assistants from different disciplines in terms of plagiarism test scores. 74 research assistants from different disciplines at Faculty of Education at Middle East Technical University (METU) in Turkey were the participants of the study and the data were collected through a likert-scale questionnaire developed by the researchers, and plagiarism test which was developed by taking into consideration the first and second levels of Bloom’s taxonomy. The results of the study indicated that the research assistants were aware of the importance of avoiding plagiarism and knew that they need to include references in their writings but, they still emphasized that some precautions against plagiarism should be taken by universities. The results from test scores showed that the research assistants had not significant differences in terms of gender, department, degree, and program. The results also revealed the factors that might lead the research assistants to plagiarize:

- problems while using foreign language
- insufficient knowledge about plagiarism
- overburden course demands
- insufficient ideas about the task/assignment/paper
- problems with time
- scarce interest in the topic
- challenges in understanding of the assignment
- poor academic skills
- less attention or interest for the course
- not having any punishment for plagiarism .

Some researchers also have paid attention on the relationship of technology and plagiarism. Some of them claimed that the access to information via the Internet has gotten easier and thus, increased dramatically (Robinson-Zanartu, Pena, Cook-Morales, Pena, Afshani, & Nguyen, 2005). Martin (2005) affirmed that the problem has raised for the past 20 years when electronic media tools and the Internet made it more accessible for students. The undergraduate students at a large university of the UK participated in the study of Szabo and Underwood (2004) and the results showed that more than 50 % of the students would consider using the Internet to commit plagiarism in their independent researched writing tasks. A New York Times article Willen (2004) cited from that 38 % of students who participated in the survey plagiarized from the Internet throughout the year.

Previous research on plagiarism have focused on commonly the reasons of committing plagiarism and the effect of cultural, educational, and gender differences on plagiarism. However, some writers have investigated how to reduce student plagiarism or how to avoid plagiarism (Li, 2013; Moniz, Fine & Bliss, 2008; Yamada, 2003). Yamada (2003) examined 10 North-American college websites, which serve students to understand the problematic nature of plagiarism and help them how to avoid plagiarism. The analyses revealed that these websites on plagiarism have familiar features. Firstly, they include in previous studies, writing manuals, and writing textbooks. Secondly, they try to explain or illustrate sample plagiarism texts while showing how to use direct citations and how to write sources in academic papers. The

final characteristic of the websites is that these websites recommend writers to use paraphrases in constructing their works. Teaching paraphrase is a common strategy to help students write acceptable works but, the researcher found such a practice as problematic because he thought that paraphrases are not easy to write and these websites were not clear enough what they meant by acceptable paraphrases. They overemphasized on unacceptable paraphrases and this might lead negative effect on ESL/EFL students. Thus, the researcher pointed out the necessity of accessible and explicit information provided by writing instructors, textbook writers, and researchers. He also highlighted that writing instructors which was neglected in websites on plagiarism need to introduce students inferential thought process in ESL/EFL learning contexts

Moniz, Fine and Bliss (2008) also investigated the impact of instruction on preventing student plagiarism. 289 undergraduate students at Johnson & Wales University participated in the study. The students were divided into groups that received direct instruction, powerpoint instruction, and student-centered instruction or all of them on functional understanding of plagiarism. They were also compared on academic major, age, gender, and GPA. The participants' major affected their instruction preferences. For example, business majors preferred the direct instruction classes rather than powerpoint or student-centered instruction classes. The students who had higher GPA attended commonly in student-centered instruction while there were equal proportions of participants in terms of gender and age. Pretest and posttest scores were taken and the results showed that student-centered instruction was not more advantageous than the other two instruction methods on understanding of plagiarism. Although all students in both student-centered instruction and direct instruction groups had some improvements, there were not significant differences between these groups. The students receiving all methods improved but, they still needed more practice.

A most recent study that examined the views of supervisors on plagiarism and the ways to prevent it was conducted by Yongyan Li (2013). The researcher interviewed with 14 Chinese professors. Participants mentioned that professional scientists should avoid textual copying and they saw it as unwritten rule. One of the participants mentioned that *“you should deeply understand the source text, and express in your own words; there are always multiple ways for expressing the same meaning; and you can't*

copy two sentences in a row—one sentence is already questionable, but copying two sentences in a row must be plagiarism”(p.574). The professors also stated deficiency in “*source-acknowledging practices*” in China. The findings from the interviews indicated that every practice in textual copying might not be called as plagiarism. In other words, there might be mitigating circumstances while writing from sources, For example, something that everyone knows is not plagiarism and can be written without referencing. Moreover, the participants explained that students’ writings compose of poor textual borrowing. Thus, it is necessary that supervisors should educate students against textual borrowing; teach note-taking strategies while both reading and writing sources; encourage a healthy research environment.

To summarize, many researchers have examined plagiarism from different perspectives and students have been accused because of plagiarism. In relevant studies, it has been stated that there are a number of factors which have impact on student plagiarism such as understanding and beliefs about plagiarism, cultural factors, discourse competence, linguistic proficiency, and technological factors. However, previous research cannot exactly explain why to plagiarize and how to prevent it. There is still a gap in the impact of instruction on plagiarism. Yet, knowing approaches of the students to plagiarism can help writing teachers, instructors or professors prepare their lessons to prevent plagiarism and improve their curriculum design.

2.4.2. Patchwriting

Howard (1993) defined patchwriting as “copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures or plugging in one-for-synonym substitutes” (Howard, 1993, p. 233). The definition by Howard (1993) has contributed a lot in plagiarism and many researchers have used and discussed it in their studies (Abasi & Akbari, 2008; Currie, 1998; Pecorari, 2003). Many researchers also regarded patchwriting as a necessary stage for appropriate paraphrasing, learning academic language and gaining a membership in a discourse community (Currie, 1998; Howard, 1993, 1995, 1999, 2000a; Hull & Rose, 1989; Pecorari, 2003). Howard (1999) was the first scholar who discussed in her study the necessity of patchwriting in learning writing for novice writers. She stated that when students knew little about issue they were writing, they approved patchwriting as a strategy which helps them know better about

learning materials to complete their assignments. Bouman's (2009) study supported Rebecca Howard's (1999). Using his tutoring experiences as a writing center tutor, he explained that both novice writers and ESL/EFL writers used patchwriting to learn the terminologies in their disciplines.

Some studies revealed that patchwriting was used as a survival strategy by ESL/EFL students to meet the academic requirements by their professors. This conclusion was affirmed by Bloch and Chi (1995) who stated that ESL writers used patchwriting as a strategy to learn and survive when they had difficulties to meet academic standards to avoid plagiarism. Because they were not proficient linguistically in the academic writing and they were also unfamiliar with the target culture. Similarly, Currie (1998) conducted a case study with an ESL student. The results of the study showed that because this student had low language proficiency, she constantly used patchwriting as a strategy to survive in the academic setting. Additionally, Li and Casansave (2012) found in their study that patchwriting was used by two ESL Chinese students who first entered the English academic institution for interaction with the sources. Moreover, in their study Abasi and Akbari (2008) showed that there were various levels of patchwriting in the writings of ESL/EFL graduate students due to different reasons. For example, their language level was not high enough to write acceptable sentences in their writings, and imminent deadlines of their assignments, and pressure from their professors who had high expectation led the students to use patchwriting.

In sum, relevant studies discussed that students' patchwriting practices were not intentional and deceitful plagiarism. Patchwriting could help students learn and improve their writing abilities and have an access in their discourse community. As Pecorari (2003,p.338) stated "today's patchwriter is tomorrow's competent academic writer, given necessary support to develop".

2.4.3. Summary

As an activity of writing, summary is defined " a brief statement that represents the condensation of information accessible to a subject and reflects the gist of the

discourse” (Johnson,1983,cited in Lee,2010,p.21).Summary has fundamental requirements. Swales and Feak (1994,p.148) mention that a good summary includes :

1. should contain the original text as a whole but there may not be necessary to take every information in it.
2. should include the material in an accurate fashion.
3. should shorten the material and should be presented in one’s own words; should not include writer’s own comments and evaluation.

However, summarizing can be excessively difficult for students. It is important to fully comprehend the material which is worked with. In their book, Swales and Feak (1994, pp.148,149) present some steps to write a summary:

1. Skim the text, noting in your mind the subheadings. If there are no subheadings, try to divide the text into sections.
2. Consider why you have been assigned the text. Try to determine what type of text you are dealing with.
3. Read the text, highlighting important information and taking notes.
4. In your own words, write down the main points of each section.
5. Write down the key support points for the main topic, but do not include minor detail.
6. Go through the process again, making changes as appropriate.

W. Kintsch and van Dijk (1978) also identified three macro strategies to write a good summary: (1) deletion, (2) generalization, (3) construction (cited in Baba,2010,p.29). “selection” was also added to these categories by Sherrard (1986). Brown and Day (1983, cited in Baba,2010, p.29) determined five summarizing strategies :

1. deleting insignificant information,
2. deleting unnecessary information
3. superordinating
4. selecting topic sentences
5. Inventing topic sentences.

Summarizing has been regarded a crucial and useful skill needed in academic settings (Guido & Colwell, 1987; Joh, 2000; Oh, 2007) and it has been used in all

teaching situations. Oh (2007) states that “one cannot learn a language and communicate in that language” (p. 124) successfully if s/he does not have ability to summarize. Many scholars have found a number of advantages of summarizing in language learning; it helps students develop comprehension skills, promote long-term memory, and analyze important discourse and meaning (Joh, 2000; Oh, 2007; Palinscar, 1985; Rohler & Duffy, 1984). According to Guido and Colwell (1987) summarizing is a deeper level of processing, and it needs students choose parts which are important or not to use in their summary writing. In other words, summarizing can develop students’ reading comprehension and help them gain the ability in reconstruction of a text text.

Newfields (2001) states two different types of summarizing : a word level summarizing and a deep level of summarizing. The first means transforming the text in word level but, preserving the original syntax of sentences. The researcher called this as “ swallow or perceptual level of summarizing”. The latter means transforming the text in a deeper level, that is, changing morphology, syntax, and lexis of sentences. In this level, it is necessary clear understanding of the sentence and the ability to choose what is important and include in the summary. If someone has low language proficiency and difficulty to understand L2 text, the purposes and ways of summarizing, s/he uses only synonyms of the words or simply tries to say in a different way in his/ her summary. In that case, this person is at a swallow or perceptual level of summarizing. However, if s/he develops his/her L2, s/he can thoroughly understand a given text, does multiple summarizing exercises, and thus, s/he can make various deep level sentence changes, s/he will employ in a deeper level of summarizing. Taylor (1982) found that a post-reading activity, a deeper level of summarizing were beneficial in remembering the content of reading material. Additionally, Taylor and Beach (1984) discovered that the quality of students’ interpretive writing could develop by a deeper level of summarizing.

Many researchers think that summarizing requires students to have a certain level of reading and writing ability (Brown et al., 1981; Brown & Smiley, 1978; Coffman, 1994; Garner, 1985; Hidi & Anderson, 1986; Johns, 1985; King, Biggs, & Lipsky, 1984; Taylor, 1984) because they need to read and comprehend a text, main ideas, and separate main ideas from supporting ideas, and reorganize order of events to write a good summary (Oh,2007).Therefore, a writing good summary and having a

deeper level of summarizing processing entail higher language proficiency and complexity.

Many researchers have focused on identifying factors including age, language proficiency, motivation, confidence, the length and difficulty of texts, and background knowledge of the subject that have an impact on writing a good or deeper level of summary and using effective reading and writing strategies (Brown et al., 1981; Johnson, 1983; Kirkland & Saunders, 1991; Rinehart & Thomas, 1993; Taylor, 1986; Yang & Shi, 2003). But, most of them pointed out the quality of summarizing rather than the benefits of summarizing for reading and writing development, and summarizing strategies. Comparing three groups, adults, children with low proficiency level, and children with advanced proficiency level, Wignograd (1984) examined the effect of age and proficiency level differences on writing summary. The findings revealed that the adults and advanced level children employed higher order thinking and wrote deeper level summaries. They could identify important points of texts and include them into their summaries. Wignograd also found that age was not a major factor that contributed to students' ability to write a good summary. Additionally, Johns (1985) studied differences in inexperienced and proficient adult students and found that low level students failed to produce an appropriate summary unlike advanced level students. It can be inferred from Wignograd's (1984) and Johns' (1985) results students' language proficiency greatly affects their ability to write appropriate and good quality summary and to use more and better strategies. Johns and Mayes (1990) also looked at summarization by 40 high and 40 low proficiency ESL students. They discovered that high proficiency learners combined least two sentences into one idea whereas low proficiency learners preferred to copy verbatim from the source text.

Similarly, Kim (2001) investigated summaries produced by 70 ESL students. The participants had low- intermediate English proficiency and little experience in summary writing in English. The findings of the study indicated that while summarizing, the participants simply deleted information in a source text and they seldom transformed source ideas while high proficiency learners combined two or more idea units. Cumming, Kantor, Baba, Erdosy, Eouanzoui, and James (2005, 2006) gained a similar finding in their studies. 36 ESL students with three English proficiency levels participated in the study and they wrote two summaries, totally 72 summaries.

Cumming et al. found that proficient learners were prone to use less deletion/selection strategies and more generalization or transformation strategies than did less proficient learners. Cumming et al. also examined textual features of summaries including grammatical accuracy, syntactic complexity, argument structure, lexical features, and text length as well as summarizing strategies. The results revealed that less proficient students borrowed from a source text largely and their summaries composed of many grammatical errors, a narrower range of vocabulary and argument structure in their summaries was not coherent with in source text.

The influence of length and complexity of texts on a good summary was also investigated. Hidi and Anderson (1986) mentioned that students had the less difficulties while summarizing the shorter and simpler reading text. They maintained that ideas in a short text are closely similar, so, students can express the ideas in a one topic sentence. However, there are many important ideas in a long text and they have different values. Thus, students have to exclude or condense appropriately some of ideas in a summary. They also said that text complexity was related to sentence structure, organization, and difficult vocabulary. Text complexity influenced students' summarizing performances. Therefore, Hidi and Anderson (1986) suggested that an instructor should take into consideration text length and complexity as well as students' language proficiency when s/he gives a summary task. Yet, there is no research which has investigated how text complexity and length can develop students' language and affect their performances in summary.

Besides textual factors, students' confidence, background knowledge, and writing experiences in their own disciplines are seen important factors influencing summary quality and strategies to write a good summary. In their study, Yang and Shi (2003) examined how personal factors affected on ESL university students' summary writing and discovered that as students' confidence, familiarity with the field and text increased, they did better on a summary task. The researchers also examined the process of the students' summarizing and their summary products and found that students used various strategies while planning, composing, and editing their summaries. When they had more background knowledge, more writing experiences and they were more confident, they used more strategies while summarizing. However, the researchers did

not explicitly take into account students' different language proficiency level and it was not explored whether summarizing provided some advantages in language development.

In a similar vein, Sarig (1993) conducted a study which investigated students' writing processes and metacognitive strategies during summarizing. All the participants in the study had high English Language proficiency. The researcher classified students' summarizing behaviours and metacognitive strategies and suggested that the more language proficiency students had, the better summarizing performances they had. However, as Yang and Shi (2003), Sarig (1993) also focused on only advanced L2 learners and did not compare students' different proficiency level in summarizing. A more larger scale research with low proficiency learners on summary writing strategies is in need.

Comparing how high school, college students and Professional writers summarize a text, Taylor (1984) conducted a study which investigated the processes of summarization by analyzing think-aloud protocols. On the contrary of the professional writers, the novice writers reported that "they were trying to put the author's words into their own, but they were having difficulty finding the words to express their ideas" (p. 695).

As being different from previous studies, Connor and McCagg (1983) conducted a study which explored differences in ways that native and non-native speakers wrote summaries. The findings revealed that native speakers wrote their summaries more objectively and scientifically, and more easily changed the order of information than did the non-native writers. ESL writing teachers evaluated the summaries produced by the native speakers as "right style". Connor and McCagg suggested that this difference between the native and non-native writers was led by language proficiency.

Some researchers used summary as a strategy for writing from sources while collecting data (Corbeil, 2000; Moon,2002; Moore,1997;Shi,2004; Yamada;2002). Moore (1997) examined both L1 and L2 writers textual borrowing strategies and attribution such as reporting verbs and signal verbs by using a task that required students to summarized a part of a lecture. He found that L1 writers used more explicit forms of attribution than L2 writers. For example, while L2 writers tended to use more implicit forms of attribution (e.g., it is claimed, it is believed) and did not use any

attribution ideas to the original source at all, L1 writers used various signal phrases (e.g., according to) and signal verbs (e.g., the author says/ claims) and thus, they attributed explicitly in their summaries.

Corbeil (2000) examined summaries of French second language writers to find effects of language proficiency on textual borrowing practices. The author found that less proficient French writers use more direct copies in their writing than the writers who were more proficient in French. In addition, writers who were more capable in summarizing in their native language, English, used less direct copy than their less-capable counterparts.

Using in-class summary writing task in English produced by 29 sophomore Korean university students, Moon (2002) investigated explicit instruction and monitoring of student source use. The students wrote summaries both before they received any instruction on plagiarism and after they received three-hour instruction on plagiarism and how to avoid it. The analysis of first and second summaries revealed that instruction on plagiarism affected considerably on reducing direct copy in students' summary writing. However, English source text that the students summarized "was about Japanese textbooks, a topic that the students were all familiar with and had sentiments and opinions about" (p. 1357). Thus, according to the study, their familiarity with source topic might play an important role in students' summarizing and plagiarism performances.

Yamada (2002) carried out a study that examined the relationship between textual borrowing practices and inferential processes used in reading. Japanese L2 writers who learned how to write in an EFL academic context were the participants of the study and they received instruction on lexical patterns (e.g., repetition of important words in the source text) and clause relations (e.g., preview-detail and claim-counterclaim), and whether comprehension of these textual concepts can promote L2 writers' summary production. After the instruction, the participants wrote two summaries integrating of two outside sources. Yamada discovered that the more in inferential thinking the summary L2 writers engaged, the more effectively they used sources. They could re-organize the information from the original sources and their summaries were not dependent too closely on the wording of the source texts.

In her controlled design study, Shi (2004) examined the effects of the participants' first language on their textual borrowing practices and on task on textual borrowing. 39 L1 freshmen and 48 third-year ESL students in China were involved in the study. The researcher used two source texts and a half of the students completed a summary text while the other half wrote an opinion task. Then, she compared students' summaries with source texts exact or near copy of words from sources with or without references and found that L2 writers wrote more near copies and did not attribute to the original text than L1 students. Another finding of the study was that both the participants' first language and the task type significantly influenced on the words they borrowed and there were statistically differences on the words .

As a conclusion, summary has been regarded as an useful and important language skill for students and it has been investigated from different perspectives including its effect on language development, summarizing processes, and strategies used by student writers and the factors that influence on summarizing such as language proficiency, background knowledge of the subject, difficulty of text. Additionally, it was used as a textual borrowing strategies both by students in their tasks or assignments and by researchers to collect data in their studies. However, more research with larger-scale is needed to find out definitely summarizing processes and strategies of L2 writers.

2.4.4. Paraphrasing

Before reviewing particular studies, first, it is necessary to establish what paraphrasing is. As a common definition, the Oxford English Dictionary (2010) defines paraphrase as ' a statement that expresses sth that sb has written or said using different words, especially in order to make it easier to understand.' In the Dictionary of Etymology, the word which means "to tell in other words," is explained that it comes via Latin '*paraphrasis*', from Greek, derived from '*paraphrazein*' – para-(expressing modification) + phrazein ('tell'). In Purdue OWL, a paraphrase is your own rendition of essential information and ideas expressed by someone else, presented in a new form; one legitimate way (when accompanied by accurate documentation) to borrow from a source; a more detailed restatement than a summary, which focuses concisely on a single main idea. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) defined paraphrasing as "relating the

material to what is already known while also restating it in one's own words" (p. 320, as cited in Augustine, 1992, p.6). According to Hirvela and Du (2013), paraphrase is the reproduction of the information content and structure of source text.

Paraphrasing is using someone's own words while expressing a different one's ideas but, it is necessary not to change the main ideas of the original source. Thus, paraphrasing is an different form in expressing of the same language and it is on the basis of the semantic equivalence. There are several levels at which paraphrases occur :

- Lexical paraphrases: occur when synonyms are used in identical sentences. Individual lexical items which have the same meaning are pointed out as lexical paraphrases, e.g., *grow, develop* and *warm, hot*. But, lexical paraphrasing cannot be associated with only synonymy because it has several other forms such as hyperonyms; one of the words may be either more general or more specific in the paraphrastic relationship, e.g., *animal, elephant* and *landlady, hostess*.
- Phrase-level paraphrases: refer to phrasal chunks which have the same semantic content. These chunks have commonly the form of syntactic phrases such as *take over, assume, control of, but*, they are also patterns with associated with variables, for example, *the telephone was invented by Graham Bell, Graham Bell was the inventor of the telephone*.
- Sentential or sentence-level paraphrases: refer to two sentences having the same semantic content e.g., *I conducted a research, I carried out an inquiry* . Simple sentential paraphrases are easier to generate by altering phrases and words of the original sentence with their identical ones than more interesting ones.

Students or novice writers use generally word-level or lexical paraphrases because they limit their paraphrasing skills and understanding and they see enough to change words with their synonyms for paraphrase. Because they do not consider how paraphrasing skill is related to the concept of plagiarism. When they approach more narrowly to the concept of plagiarism and its relationship with paraphrasing, the differences between types of plagiarism and questions about what plagiarism actually is and what the role of paraphrasing in preventing plagiarism and how to develop ethical

guidelines in colleges or universities arise (Barry,2006; Pennycook,1996; Thompson&Pennycook,2008).

Paraphrasing ,as a key element in academic writing to avoid plagiarism, has some simple strategies or rules. Some writing handbooks, articles, writing websites, and writing centres offer steps or tips of paraphrasing. Purdue 's Online Writing Lab (no date), for instance, listed six steps to effective paraphrasing as follows:

1. Reread the original passage until you understand its full meaning.
2. Set the original aside, and write your paraphrase on a note card.
3. Jot down a few words below your paraphrase to remind you later how you envision using this material. At the top of the note card, write a key word or phrase to indicate the subject of your paraphrase.
4. Check your rendition with the original to make sure that your version accurately expresses all the essential information in a new form.
5. Use quotation marks to identify any unique term or phraseology you have borrowed exactly from the source.
6. Record the source (including the page) on your note card so that you can credit it easily if you decide to incorporate the material into your paper.

Madhavi (2013, p.78) also established rubrics in her study to students about how to paraphrase a text that are presented below:

1. Read the source carefully. It is essential that you understand it fully.
2. Identify the main point(s) and key words.
3. Cover the original text and rewrite it in your own words. Check that you have included the main points and essential information.
4. Ensure that you keep the original meaning and maintain the same relationship between main ideas and supporting points.
5. Words: Use synonyms (words or expression which have a similar meaning) where appropriate. Key words that are specialized subject vocabulary do not need to be changed.
6. Identify the attitude of the authors to their subject (i.e. certain, uncertain, critical, etc) and make sure your paraphrase reflects this. Use the appropriate.

7. Review your paraphrase checking that it accurately reflects the original text but is in your words and style.
8. Record the original source (including the page number) so that you can provide a reference.

The assignments of higher education students commonly compose of examples of textual borrowing and unacceptable use of source texts that their instructors label as plagiarism. Both L1 and L2 college and university students regard avoiding plagiarism with effective means of textual borrowing (Pennycook,1996,p.201; Shi,2004,p.172) and discourse synthesis (Segev-Miller,2004,p.5) are difficult and discourage. Because, knowing when to quote, using synonyms while keeping certain expressions, re-ordering sentence structure, establishing main ideas require a high lexical proficiency, advance reading comprehension, and syntactical sophistication (Barks &Watts,2001).

Some studies have been conducted to discover the complicated and obscure nature of plagiarism and how paraphrasing as an influential solution can help prevent from stealing others' words intentionally. For instance, Barry (2006) revealed that students' overall plagiarism understanding and how to prevent it improved by giving them numerical grades for six paraphrasing assignments. After a six-week period of practice, there were differences between students' pre-test and post-test definitions of plagiarism. The participants saw plagiarism as a form of academic dishonesty (p.380). Barry's findings claim that students can learn plagiarism through paraphrasing practice using graded assignments. However, it is not clear how explicit instruction on paraphrasing strategies develop students' understanding. Moreover, the findings showed that the students' understanding of plagiarism clearly developed and they could use paraphrasing as an effective strategy to avoid plagiarism. While completing their assignments, they followed some criteria; an understanding of the quote, the meaning of the quote, using correct citation after the paraphrase, and correct reference format (Barry,2006,p.379).The instructor expected that students could learn paraphrasing strategies by reading two articles and depicting the assignments' grading system without any actual instruction on rules. In fact, the study addressed the students' understanding of plagiarism, not paraphrase strategies they used. Although Barry did not pay attention to the participants' linguistic background or overall English proficiency in the study, the correlation or relationship between progress in their understanding of what

plagiarism means in reading and writing tasks and their practicing the skill of paraphrasing was significant.

Campbell (1987), Keck (2006), and Shi (2004) have investigated how L1 and L2 English students avoid plagiarism through appropriate textual borrowing practices. Campbell (1987) carried out an early study on textual borrowing habits of more or less proficient native speakers of English and ESL students. The participants used vocabulary from which they learned an Anthropology textbook and wrote a multi-paragraph composition using these vocabulary. She analyzed each composition and classified 7 types of written units and defined them as *quotation, exact copy, near copy, paraphrase, summary, original explanation, or marooned term* (p.14). The results of the analysis indicated that ESL students provided more directly copied material in their paraphrases than did native speakers, who were likely to attribute material of the author and thus, they received higher grades.

In her study, Keck (2006) revised Campbell's (1987) paraphrasing types, however, she found similar findings. 165 undergraduate students, 79 native speakers of English, 74 non-native speakers of English and 12 bilingual speakers of English and another language participated in the study and they completed a summary-task. Keck used a *Taxonomy of Paraphrase Types* (p.268) to analyze the words which were borrowed and the amount of material the L1 and L2 students copied directly from the original texts. Both L1 and L2 writers produced almost the same amount of paraphrase per summary. Keck used a specialized computer program to calculate how much unique links and general links were used by the participants. She defined unique link as *individual word or strings of words exactly copied in the summary that appeared only once in the original excerpt* (p.266) and general link as *lexical words used in the paraphrase that occurred in the original text and also occurred elsewhere in the original text* (p.267). 23 % of the paraphrases of L1 and bilingual writers composed of words with unique links as the amount of words with unique links of L2 writers' paraphrases was 40 %. Unique links were used as broader categories to measure students' attempted paraphrase (p.273) including at least one word-level change. Hence, Keck examined numerically the attempt of a student to avoid plagiarism while writing a summary in his or her own words. Keck classified the students' each attempted paraphrase in four categories hinging on rate of unique and general links: *near copies,*

minimal revision, moderate revision, and substantial revision (p.268). Keck gained a high inter-rater reliability (95%) among coders and it was higher than Campbell did. But, it was clear in both studies that inter-rater reliability while carrying out a pre-test was a significant point in constructing rational grading of paraphrases in a quantitative context. However, the study did not show the impact of previous instruction on the students' choice of paraphrasing strategies although all the participants in the study had different previous experiences with instruction on summary and paraphrase.

Like Keck (2006), Shi (2004) investigated differences between English L1 and English L2 students' paraphrases and required a quantitative research to find out how English L1 and English L2 students summarize, quote and paraphrase sources and the way they incorporate source materials into a consistent academic essay. Shi found that English L1 students less frequently copied strings of words that were identical to the source text and borrowed a quarter of original text while completing a summary task as English L2 (adult Chinese) students borrowed almost all of source text (over two-thirds of original material) and they sometimes used their own words with wholly copied material by mixing.

Unlike the researchers above, Liao and Tseng (2010) investigated proficient EFL writers' and less proficient EFL writers' perceptions and performances of paraphrasing, what extent their performances correspond with their perceptions, their inappropriate textual borrowing and the factors behind them. The participants were 95 postgraduate and undergraduate students in the TESOL program in Taiwan and a reading text for paraphrasing task and a questionnaire were used to collect data. The findings of the study showed that the graduate students plagiarized less strings of words than the undergraduate students did. In addition, the results of the study indicated that the participants' paraphrasing performances and inappropriate textual borrowing were inconsistency with their paraphrasing perceptions. They tried to refuse having plagiarized while writing a research paper and they mentioned that they tried to avoid plagiarism and they knew the importance of acceptable paraphrasing although their actual behaviours in the paraphrasing tasks conflicted with their statements. The researchers claimed that the possible reasons for the gap between proficient and less proficient L2 students' performances and perceptions were their less sufficient metacognitive knowledge, strategies and their immature cognitive development as well

as ineffective transfer of paraphrasing to writing because of insufficient experience and practice and the impact of citation practice in Chinese writing.

Another study on students' perspectives on paraphrasing strategies in which 141 graduate students in a university of Taiwan participated was conducted by Sun(2009). The researcher collected data with a Two-layer Paraphrasing Survey with nine paraphrasing scenarios (p.401), a Likert-scale and a demographic questionnaires and tried to find out the reasons behind students' perceptions on appropriate or inappropriate paraphrasing, and paraphrasing strategies, and their attitudes toward plagiarism and paraphrasing. The results showed that more than half of the students saw patchwriting as an acceptable strategy use and they unintentionally plagiarized due to their perspectives of paraphrasing. There was a significant correlation between students' answers to the acceptability of paraphrasing strategies and the factors including worth of acceptable source use, difficulty in paraphrasing, competence to avoid plagiarism, being disadvantageous as a foreign language learner in paraphrasing, paraphrasing training and gender. But, the students' background, time and experience in school, experience in publication, writing proficiency did not show significant correlation with students' perceptions of paraphrasing strategies. In addition, the results indicated that discipline affected students' perception and performance of paraphrasing strategies. For example, the students from the language-teaching discipline had a higher mean score on paraphrasing strategy survey than the students from the management discipline did.

Cultural factors complicate paraphrasing thus, it has been regarded as a complex cognitive activity. But, cultural factors also contribute to the point of paraphrasing as a means to prevent plagiarism. It was clear in some studies that skills alone did not help students to paraphrase appropriately (Reynolds,2008; Lee &Choy,2010) . The factors such as culture and context also affected their abilities. According to Yu (2008), these cultural factors were language dependent and students summarized better when they paraphrased in their first language, Chinese, the text that they had read in their second language, English. It is claimed that students' skills could go beyond what they said when their second or foreign language did not impede them.

In their studies, Yu (2008) and Orellana and Reynolds (2008) claimed that contextual settings of passages had an impact on students' performance when they were

paraphrasing. Students had a tendency to perform better in their first language (Yu,2008). But, the results of both studies showed that students chose to paraphrase in their foreign language, English since they found directly copying the text easier when they could not fully understand. It was also brought to light that the time spared for the task and proper comprehension of the text were significant essentials for paraphrasing (Yu,2008). Westin (2006) found that the passages which were culturally associated with readers could be better comprehended by them. Another result of the study was that the passages containing contexts that were unfamiliar to second language learners were more difficult to paraphrase for them. Students needed to translate texts into their native language to understand but, this might distort meanings of original words and it might create inappropriate paraphrase (Orellana and Reynolds,2008). Thus, it is difficult to produce an authentic paraphrase while keeping the writing context accurate as well as content. Additionally, Hare and Borchardt (1984) stated that less proficient readers partially paraphrased, sentence by sentence rather than whole passage.

In their paraphrasing study, using Kaplan's contrastive rhetoric model (1966), Connor and McCagg (1983) analyzed the paraphrasing ability of L1 and L2 students .The students were asked to remember main points and details after they completed reading a text in English. Native Japanese speakers and native Spanish speakers more often maintained the structure of the original text than native English speakers in their paraphrases although both native and non-native students recalled the same amount of information from the text. Additionally, the raters of the study found native Spanish students *speculative* (p.265) in their style of paraphrase. But, it was not easy to determine a relationship between cultural differences in organization of thought with this task because the factors including *personal opinions and changes in perspective* (p.262) were not observable. Shi (2004) also found *different attitudes toward copying between L1 and L2 students* (p.175).

In similar trend to Connor and McCagg (1983) but overlooking the consideration of Kaplan 's (1966) Contrastive Rhetoric model, Pennycook (1996) supported a socio-cultural approach in textual borrowing and plagiarism while discussing how students unintentionally commit in textual borrowing in some cases. Pennycook (1996) did not determine Hong Kong students' copying style and clear intention to deceive, however, he discussed factors causing reluctance to paraphrase

such as insufficient instruction, a lack of motivation, not having any *ownership over English* (p.225), devastating workload in school, and interest for detail. One participant in the study mentioned that tiredness in putting ideas into his own words would lead him to plagiarize. Pennycook (1996) claimed that Hong Kong students in his study had not satisfactory education in avoiding plagiarism. This unsatisfactory education made clear their tendency for outright copying. Thus, he implied that teachers should take into consideration specific textual borrowing strategies in the classroom that might help students decrease copying chunks of the language in source texts.

A most recent study on the perceptions of students when they completed paraphrasing assignments was carried out by Choy, Lee, and Sedhu (2014). They investigated how culturally and contextually familiar texts to influence on students paraphrasing skills. 41 adult non-native English students from a university in Malaysia participated in the study and they had an instruction on paraphrasing skills during a ten week period in their English course. The researchers used a pre- and a post-test including a chosen text to be paraphrased to measure the students paraphrasing performances and additionally, they interviewed with a student group to interpret their perceptions and skills of paraphrasing and how the chosen passages to influence on their paraphrasing ability. The results of the study showed that over half of the students regarded contextually familiar texts as more difficult to paraphrase because they did not identify significant points in which they needed to include in their paraphrasing tasks. In contrast, they found contextually unfamiliar texts easier to paraphrase since they could analyze the important points in the passage thanks to their clearness. The comments of students claimed that they found more helpful comprehending the structure of the passage instead of the context of the passage. The results also indicated that the students' perceptions changed after the instruction on paraphrasing skills even if they had difficulties in the fully application of them in their exercises in spite of many paraphrasing exercises. Thus, they could more confidently use their paraphrasing skills with passages including subject matter which they could understand easy and they found it interesting. The participants also saw understanding of the passage was crucial in the application of paraphrasing skills.

The strategies L1 and L2 students use in paraphrasing have also been documented by concurrent verbal reports in which participants are asked to report

verbally the information they pay attention while they produce paraphrases and in stimulated recall protocols participants complete a post-task interview and then record what they are thinking at a particular times during the task (Ericson & Simon,1984,1993). Cumming (1990) investigated the effectiveness of concurrent verbal report during writing tasks to analyze L1 and L2 adult student paraphrasing strategies. The study indicated the efficiency of adult students' verbal reports to enrolling their thinking processes such as strategic elements and word choice they used while producing summaries, letters, and arguments. However, concurrent verbal reports might have challenges for L2 participants because they might have difficulty in describing their strategies and verbal choices in English or in their native language while concentrating difficult task of paraphrasing. Shi (2004) also mentioned the usefulness of think-aloud protocols and interviews with students in explaining students' textual choices (p.190).Think-aloud protocols can help us strengthen researchers' comprehension what specific strategies L1 and L2 participants use in a writing task, thus, researchers can observe the factors affecting the cognitive processes in paraphrasing.

Using concurrent verbal reports and stimulated recall protocols, McInnis (2009) investigated similarities and differences in strategies L1 and L2 college students used during a paraphrasing task and their challenges. The study revealed that various strategies that the participants used were always not coherent with their perceptions what constitutes of appropriate and effective paraphrasing. While some L1 and L2 participants reported that they tried to avoid direct copying, they copied individual words or chunks of words in varying rates. In addition, the strategies they recorded during the task were not always seen in the written product and this revealed that there was a disconnection between actual and perceived appropriateness. The L2 participants completed their paraphrasing tasks in a longer time than the L1 participants did. But, the length of time they spent could not help them to write a higher quality and more appropriate paraphrase in spite of exceptions such as two of the participants who spent the longest time but produced paraphrases with the least amount of direct copying. Furthermore, the participants recorded the factors which caused a poorly written paraphrase such as *a lack of familiarity with highly contextualized, low frequency*

vocabulary, an inadvertently misuse of dictionary (p.91) as well as direct copying from the source text.

In their studies, Hirvela and Du (2013) investigated using think-aloud protocols as well as text-based interviews and a short passage to paraphrase two ESL writers, Chuck and Wendy, the purposes and functions of paraphrasing and how their understanding affects their paraphrasing practices. Although Chuck did not take any instruction on paraphrasing in China, his performances in quizzes and exercises about paraphrasing were seen extremely well by the instructor. He could appropriately paraphrase each sentence in the class. But, when he needed to write a research paper, Chuck had difficulties in paraphrasing the whole academic texts and using source texts avoiding plagiarism. This difficulty led him to prefer to use direct quotation because he found direct quoting as more effective and safer choice while constructing a research paper. He thought that he could incorporate source information staying away from plagiarism and he no longer had to worry about writing the technical terms and saving the original tone of the source texts. His paraphrase exercises and comments from the interview and think-aloud data indicated that his understanding of paraphrasing confined and he could not fully understand the purposes and functions of paraphrasing in research paper writing. Unlike Chuck, the other participant of the study, Wendy learned the term 'paraphrasing' in her high school in China and it was used as a tool to assess students' English speaking proficiency. Wendy learned that paraphrasing was also used as a writing strategy. She saw paraphrasing helping her to develop her language proficiency and academic writing. Like Chuck, nevertheless, she preferred to use direct quotation in her research paper although she had more exposure to paraphrasing than Chuck because he did not feel confident about her language proficiency and saw direct quotation as safer way to incorporate sources in research paper without changing original theme or meaning. The study showed the need of effective textual borrowing and paraphrasing instruction once again.

As the students' problems with textual borrowing and paraphrasing have been noticed, the researchers have emphasized the need of instruction on effective source use. However, Barks and Watts (2001) stated that instruction on methods of preventing plagiarism does not elaborate the principles and the process of impeding inappropriate source use because of its superficiality. Additionally, teaching materials often include in

limited and isolated lists of steps and limited time is spent on revision and practice. Campbell's (1987) findings supported this notion by suggesting that both L1 and L2 college students had the ability to appropriately integrate someone else's ideas in their writing as a result of the repetition of paraphrasing, however, wide opportunity to practice in textual borrowing is needed to give students in order to develop themselves to edit out instances of copying (p.33). Keck (2007) also approved this statement by recommending that teachers concentrate on effective paraphrasing strategies instead of discussions on different interpretations how cultures influence on copying. Emphasizing on specific skill-based practice, Segev-Miller (2004) stated that explicit instruction significantly affected on the process of discourse synthesis and the quality of the product written (p.8). In her case study, Currie (1998) noted vocabulary development, extensive reading and an increased attempt to fully comprehend tasks and assignments as useful holistic strategies.

In their study, Oda and Yamamoto (no date) investigated how explicit instruction on paraphrasing effect students' paraphrasing skills using a paraphrasing task, questionnaires and interview. The results of the study showed that the students acquired some basic paraphrasing skills at the end of the seven-week of instruction although the instruction did not increase their awareness of how having appropriate textual borrowing skills.

Milićević and Tsedryk (2011) investigated the paraphrasing competence of adult learners of French as a Second Language, their learning needs and suggested possible ways to teach them paraphrasing techniques and how to reinforce them. According to Milićević and Tsedryk (2011), the importance of paraphrasing in language production with explicit teaching, the acquisition of lexical relations and paraphrasing rules as well as the necessary pedagogical tools must be provided to help students have effective and appropriate source use in their assignments.

To summarize, the studies on both L1 and L2 writers' source use and textual borrowing strategies have been reviewed in the previous sections and it has been found that a growing body of research has examined textual borrowing in terms of various factors such as cultural backgrounds, language proficiency. The results of the examined studies suggest that textual borrowing practices are more challenging for L2 writers.

Several explanations have offered why L2 writers have difficulties with integrating sources into their assignments. For example, Johns and Mayes (1990), Corbeil (2000), and Keck (2006) have suggested that language proficiency has a significant role in L2 writers' textual borrowing practices. In other words, the higher language proficiency they have, the more acceptable and effective their textual borrowing practices they will produce. Their unsuccessful source use attempts have been shown to be connected with using direct and near copies in the high rate (Corbeil, 2000; Currie, 1998; Flowerdew & Li; 2007; Jones & Freeman, 2003; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Keck, 2006; Krishnan & Kathpalia, 2002; Pecorari, 2003; Shi, 2004; Spack, 1997; Yu, 2008) and insufficient attribution to the source texts (Moore, 1997; Pecorari, 2003; Shi, 2004).

In addition, the studies also revealed that L2 writers' understanding of what identifies acceptable or appropriate textual borrowing is problematic. For example, Flowerdew and Li (2007), Pecorari (2003), and Shi (2008) have indicated that although L2 writers commonly inappropriately used sources in their writing, they defended that their textual borrowing practices were acceptable. It has been also mentioned that unintentionally cheating and an attempt to be a member of the relevant discourse community have lead to students' inappropriate textual borrowing practices. However, in their case studies, Currie (1998) and Leki (2003) showed that the participants' misuse of sources was deliberate and was the result of completing their assignments successfully. These students realized that they received lower grades on their written work when they solely wrote in their own words than when using sources in less appropriate ways. This may derive from deficiencies in their understanding of the rules and why to use sources.

Despite significant results in L2 writers' use and understanding of sources in academic writing, there still are several controversial issues and they need further research. One of them is L2 writers' preferences in ways of using sources. For example, Borg(2000) found that L1 writers produce significantly less extensive quotations than L2 writers, but, Keck (2006), stated that both L1 and L2 writers use less quotations or copies than paraphrases. Another research on issue of textual borrowing that has not been deeply investigated yet is the role of proficiency on L2 writers' development of textual borrowing practices. Corbeil's (2000), Johns and Mayes's (1990) studies indicated that proficiency has a significant role in L2 writers' textual borrowing

practices. However, it is not clear how writers' source use changes as L2 writers' language and discourse expertise develop. Finally, research has investigated what strategies L2 writers use as they produce source-based texts. However, the results of the relevant research have not clearly explained how these strategies may promote or impede L2 writers' effective source use, and to what extent L2 writers use these strategies in source-based tasks in ESL courses. Further research are needed to explore the nature of source-based writing of L2 writers.

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter addresses the methodology used in the study so as to investigate paraphrase approaches, challenges and strategies of graduate students. It starts with a comprehensive explanation of qualitative research design, and a semi-structural interview. It also focuses on a text analysis and the characteristics of the setting. Then, the chapter gives the details of the data collection procedure.

3.2. Method

This study is based on a qualitative case study research. Qualitative research is a common method that is based on the analysis and interpretation of the data to reach significant and detailed information or results. It gives researchers the opportunity to develop hypothesis. Patton(1985 as cited in Merriam,2009,p.14) defines qualitative research design as the following:

[Qualitative research] is an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions there. This understanding is an end in itself, so that it is not attempting to predict what may happen in the future necessarily, but to understand the nature of that setting—what it means for participants to be in that setting, what their lives are like, what's going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting—and in the analysis to be able to communicate that faithfully to others who are interested in that setting...The analysis strives for depth of understanding.

Creswell (2012) explains major characteristics of qualitative research design as the following:

- Exploring a problem and developing a detailed understanding of a central phenomenon
- Having the literature review play a minor role but justify the problem
- Stating the purpose and research questions in a general and broad way so as to the participants' experiences
- Collecting data based on words from a small number of individuals so that the participants' views are obtained
- Analyzing the data for description and themes using text analysis and interpreting the larger meaning of the findings
- Writing the report using flexible, emerging structures and evaluative criteria, and including the researchers' subjective reflexivity and bias (p.16).

The researcher was employed this method for the following reasons. Firstly, the study is related to the approaches, perceptions and experiences of the participants. In other words, qualitative research is concerned with them. According to the Sherman and Webb (1988), qualitative research implies a direct concern with experience as it is 'lived' or 'felt' or 'undergone' (p.7). Merriam (1998) defines qualitative research as the comprehensive and holistic analysis and description of a particular case, phenomenon or shared unit. Merriam also explains the following features to elaborately describe qualitative research:

- It is *inductive* as it leads to produce concepts, hypotheses, or generalizations from the analysis of the data;
- It is *descriptive* since it supplies a rich description of the study;
- It is *particularistics* because its main focus is a particular person, case or phenomenon;
- It is *heuristic* as it helps to find new understandings about what is related to in the study.

While examining humans, qualitative study is useful because it give participants chance to express themselves fluently. It also provides researchers to understand what participants mean (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Its aims is to gain a deep understanding about reasons behind human actions and behaviours in terms of how, why, what, when,

and where. It is interested in what participants say, how they understand their environment.

Through qualitative research, it can be gained richer meanings about human. According to Bailey and Nunan (1996), a researcher can obtain a context related to the participants' the actual opinions and thoughts. Miles and Huberman (1994) also maintain that qualitative research design identifies natural events in the natural environments, thus, the researcher can obtain strong descriptions of what the reality is through the data collected qualitatively.

Semi- structural interview is one of the most widely-used means of qualitative research. It is commonly used by researchers because it allows participants time and scope to express more fluently and accurately their opinions on a particular subject. The purpose is to understand the participants' opinions and behaviours instead of generalizing. Collecting data through semi-structured interview is very useful and functional. Participants can express themselves in detail and depth and this provides researchers the richer point of views.

Text analysis is a method used by researchers to collect information about how human beings perform in a particular setting. It is a data-collecting process and it is useful for researchers who want to understand the ways or methods the participants use. Researchers can analyze, categorize and draw a rich conclusion using text analysis.

3.3. Setting

The study was conducted at the Department of English Language Teaching, Atatürk University. Both the pilot study and the main study were conducted at the same department. The university is one of the oldest and well-established higher education institutes in Turkey. Moreover, it has been serving a great number of undergraduate and graduate students for many years. The Department of English Language Teaching offers education for both undergraduates and graduates; both native speakers of Turkish and non-native speakers of Turkish.

3.4. Participants

As this study mainly investigates paraphrase approaches, challenges and strategies of graduates, the participants were 12 graduate students in their doctoral studies in the Department of English Language Teaching, Atatürk university. The participants were chosen taking into consideration their experiences in academic writing in terms of both instruction on academic writing and writing experiences (e.g. MA Thesis, articles etc.) Biographical information of the participants is provided in the table below:

Table 3.1.

Biographical Information of the Participants

PARTICIPANTS	EXPERIENCE IN ACADEMIC WRITING	EXPLICIT ACADEMIC WRITING INSTRUCTION PERIOD	GENDER
Interviewee 1	MA Thesis	1 Semester	Female
Interviewee 2	MA Thesis	1 Semester as a Undergraduate	Female
Interviewee 3	MA Thesis	1 Semester	Female
Interviewee 4	MA Thesis	2 Months	Male
Interviewee 5	MA Thesis	6 Months	Female
Interviewee 6	MA Thesis &Articles	Several Courses& A Seminar	Female
Interviewee 7	MA Thesis	1 Semester	Male
Interviewee 8	A number of proposals A few Articles	1 year	Male
Interviewee 9	MA Thesis	-	Male
Interviewee 10	MA Thesis	1 Semester	Female
Interviewee 11	MA Thesis& An Article	3 Semester as an Undergraduate& 1 Semester as a Graduate	Female
Interviewee 12	MA Thesis	4 Months	Male

3.5. Data Collection Instrument and Procedure

Before determining the data collection instruments for the study, previous research investigating textual borrowing strategies and the perceptions of students on plagiarism and paraphrasing were taken into account. It was seen that many studies on these aspects were based on qualitative research design and text analysis. Therefore, semi- structural interview and text analysis were used as qualitative data collection tools. Creswell (2003) mentions that researchers can investigate the phenomena that are difficult to directly observe thanks to the interviews. Researchers have comprehensive data related to participants, feelings, thoughts, experiences and approaches about a particular research question (Bogdan&Biklen,2007). Participants also narrate what they feel and think with their own words.

Taking the purposes of this study into account, semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions were used. They were conducted in English, second language of the participants. Firstly, an interview was conducted with 9 graduate students in order to identify potential practical problems in the research procedure. Besides, this pilot study enabled the researcher to test the research process and adequacy of research instruments. After collecting information from the pilot study, main study was conducted with the 12 participants of the study. In the main study, the interview questions and a text which needed to be paraphrased were sent to the participants via mail and they were asked to answer the open-ended questions and paraphrase the text in two weeks. The purpose of sending the interview questions and the text to the participants was to provide an atmosphere within which they would feel comfortable in explaining their thoughts and in performing paraphrase.

3.5.1. Source Text

A text was chosen : “EAP: Issues and Directions” (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002). It was published as approximately one-page and it was appropriate for the participants in terms of their proficiency level.

3.6. Data Analysis

Data analysis was carried out in two major steps; content analysis of semi-structured interviews and text analysis.

3.6.1. Content Analysis of the Semi-structured Interviews

After the data collection, the researcher adopted the steps proposed by Creswell (2012, p.237) for data analysis:

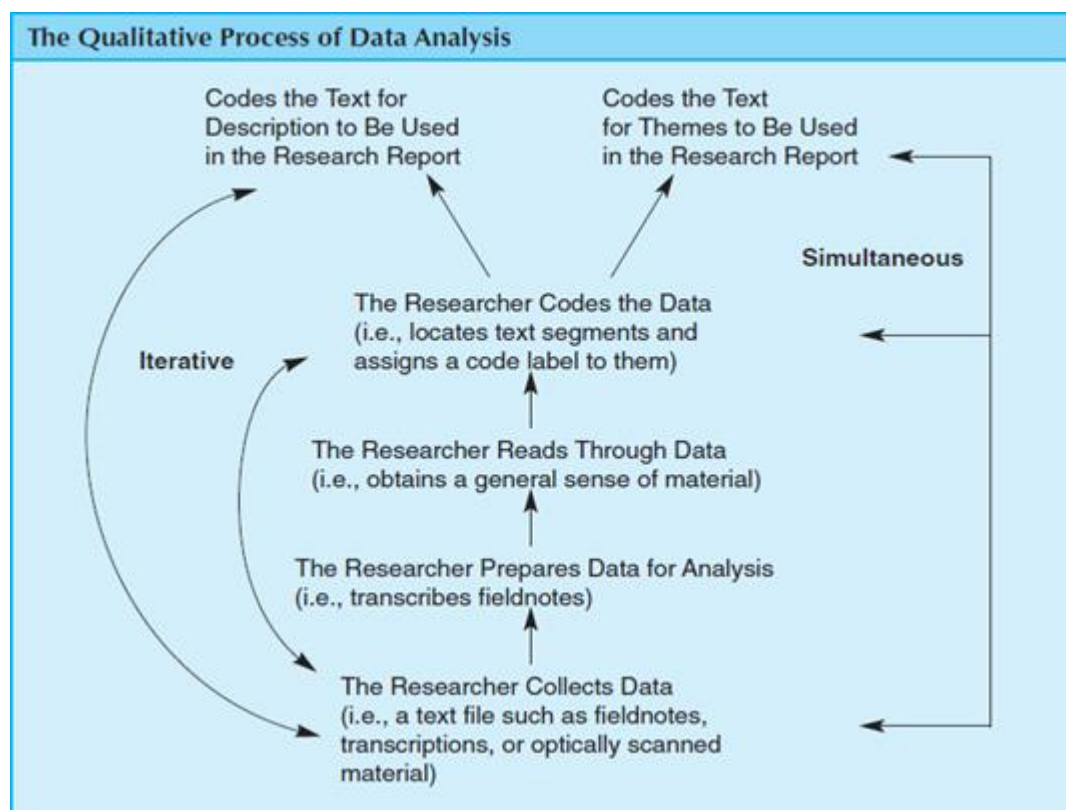


Figure 3.1. The qualitative process of data analysis

The researcher ,first, formed codes out of the answers. Creswell (2012, p.243) defines coding as “ the process of segmenting and labelling text to form descriptions and broad themes in the data.” After forming the codes, the researcher combined them into categories and themes. The aim of developing themes is to find answers to the research questions and obtain an a deep-understanding of the issue under discussion.

3.6.2. Text Analysis

In the second step, the text paraphrased by the participants was analysed with both Keck's (2006) the Taxonomy of Paraphrase Types (see, Appendix 3) in terms of lexical level analysis. The researcher classified words and words of strings of the original text into *unique links* and *general links*. Keck (2006) defined unique link as individual word or strings of words exactly copied in the summary that appeared only once in the original excerpt (p.266) and general link as lexical words used in the paraphrase that occurred in the original text and also occurred elsewhere in the original text (p.267).

The researcher developed a grammatical and structural rubric (see, Appendix 4). She compared the paraphrased text with the original text and coded the changes the participants made. Besides, semantic equivalents were examined between the original source and paraphrased text. After completing the analysis of lexical, structural and semantic changes, the researcher classified each paraphrased sentence into the Taxonomy of Paraphrase Types (Keck,2006).

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We conducted the open-ended questionnaires with the graduate students of the university whose majors were English language. The open-ended questionnaires were sent the graduate students so that the participants could express themselves comfortably and the data would not be missed. The participants completed the open-ended questionnaires in approximately two weeks. This allowed them to share their experiences and allowed the researcher to develop a comfortable level for a deeper discussion.

4.1. Themes

4.1.1. The Definition of Paraphrasing

The definition of paraphrasing which is the first basic theme is identified as a result of the analysis of the data in this study. The participants were asked to express their ideas on how they perceived and defined paraphrasing.

Table 4.1.

Theme for Description of Paraphrasing

THEME 1: DEFINING PARAPHRASE	
CATEGORIES	CODES
Category 1: Linguistic Perspective	Rewriting
	Using own words/sentences
	Reflection of productivity
	Reflection of language proficiency
	Structural changes
	Re-arrangement of sentences and lexical changes
Category 2: Semantic Perspective	Changing words without causing much change in the meaning
	Giving the same meaning
	Reflection of language proficiency

Summarizing

As can be seen in Table 4.1., the participants mainly focused on defining paraphrase under such categories as linguistic perspectives and semantic perspectives. It is seen that for some of the participants rewriting was an essential element in how they defined paraphrasing. Most of the participants regarded paraphrasing as an act of rewriting. One of the participants who referred also to rewriting expressed her definition of paraphrasing and emphasized the importance of understanding of the source and using one's own words while rewriting the text as follows:

“It is rewriting an idea or any written product with other words giving the same meaning. Its most fundamental function is writing about what have you understood from another person's words in your own words.”
(Interviewee 2)

Making efforts for the purpose of changing the language of the original text, that is, rewriting with own words is something which intrinsically has its characteristic nature. This characteristic nature involves changing structures of sentences but using own words. One of the participants who also referred to the changes in the structure or words of sentence emphasizing the using own sentences or words defined paraphrasing as the following:

“Paraphrasing is simply explaining other people's ideas with your own sentences. And I believe that the key term is idea. Paraphrasing is understood as changing the structure or words of sentences.” (Interviewee 1)

Paraphrasing was also regarded as the reflection of productivity and language proficiency by some participants. They were aware that they were expected to paraphrase rather than to quote directly and their paraphrasing reflects their language ability. One of the participants who considered paraphrasing as an act of reflection stated :

“Paraphrasing is more appreciated than quoting directly in the academic contexts since it reflects your understanding, productivity and creativity, and also language proficiency.” (Interviewee 2)

Holding a similar viewpoint, another participant outlined his conception of paraphrasing as a kind of process from comprehending the text to producing an alternative one:

“Paraphrasing is a kind of process involving full internalization of the original source in the mind and having a strong desire to give place to this source in your own research, so in order not to steal from the endeavors of a colleague, instead of using the same words or sentences, incorporating your understanding and comment into the original form and producing the same content or meaning in a different style.” (Interviewee 8)

Most of the participants commented paraphrasing as an act of structural changing of words and sentences. Almost all of them emphasized that re-arrangement of sentences with synonym words and sentences with the same meanings are crucial elements in defining paraphrasing. Taking the “ semantic perspective “ into consideration, it is seen that, the participants underlined the necessity of not changing the original meaning of the text as well as lexical and sentential changes while defining paraphrase. A good example of this viewpoint combining almost all of the points was provided by one of the participants:

“Paraphrasing can be described as a writing method in which you express the ideas in a given text with changes in words, structures and /or voices, but without any change in the idea and the meaning.” (Interviewee 11)

While constructing a paraphrase, it is crucial not to change the idea or the meaning of the original text. However, one of the participants approved some changes in the meaning as the following:

“Briefly, paraphrasing is conveying some ideas with your own words without causing much change in the meaning.” (Interviewee 6)

One of the participants also used “ similar meaning” instead of synonym of words in her definition of paraphrasing. But, she stated the necessity of not changing the meaning of the original text as follows:

“Paraphrasing is a way to express a thought with words or phrases that have similar meaning without changing the meaning of the sentence or

paragraph. That is, it is to restate a sentence with new words or phrases.”(Interviewee 10)

Paraphrasing is a strategy, a method or a way which is used while summarizing. However, one of the interviewees defined it as a kind of summarizing as follows:

“It is a sort of summarizing a text avoiding skipping the crucial parts but not giving all the details of the text.” (Interviewee 12)

The participants in the study mostly regarded paraphrasing from similar perspectives. Taking all these points into consideration, it can be concluded that for the participants, changing words, reconstructing the sentences but saving the original meaning are the main concerns while they define paraphrasing. Almost none of participants stated the need for changing the original meaning of the text in spite of the fact that some of them approved little changes and similar meaning. It can be referred that as they are graduate students and they have been equipped with the latest methods or techniques with academic writing and they have been experienced with writing academic studies such as theses, articles, their definitions of paraphrasing mainly centre on general elements which constitute of paraphrasing.

As educators and graduates who are experienced with academic writing, they are to be experts on using paraphrase in their studies. They need to put into practice the knowledge and ability on paraphrasing that they have acquired. Paraphrasing is not just changing words and sentence structures, It also includes saving the original meaning of the text. Insufficient changes cannot exactly define paraphrasing. Considering the participants’ definitions of paraphrasing, it is seen that their experiences and language proficiencies affected their definitions of paraphrasing.

4.1.2. Roles of Paraphrase

The second theme is “ the Roles of Paraphrase”. As shown in Table 4.2., the reasons why participants use paraphrasing while constructing an academic paper and the functions of paraphrasing in terms of the participants’ comments are explained.

Table 4.2.

Theme for Roles of Paraphrase

THEME 2: FUNCTIONS OF PARAPHRASE	
CATEGORIES	CODES
Category 1: Roles of Paraphrase	Helping present previous research
	Helping summary, criticize, and discuss previous research
	Developing writing quality/ style
	Encouraging the researcher to involve in writing process
	Helping avoid plagiarism
	Providing background to study and Supporting the hypothesis or methodology
	Helping not use excessively direct quotation
Category 2: Purpose of Paraphrase	Preventing plagiarism
	Producing an authentic study without plagiarism
	Creating a new text with same ideas
	Supporting individual ideas with other researcher's thoughts
	Motivating writers to have/show their own voice in their studies
	Showing writers' language proficiency

The first category refers to the roles of paraphrase. Most of the participants stated that they used paraphrase as a cooperative component while presenting previous research in commonly some parts of academic papers such as introduction, literature review. They said that they were in need of supporting their ideas with previous research and thus, paraphrasing plays crucial roles in their academic writings. For example, one of the participants mentioned that :

“Paraphrasing has an important role in particularly the introduction, literature and/or discussion parts of my academic projects (theses,

research articles, proceedings, etc.), where I am supposed to make references to or citations from previous studies or related literature.”
(Interviewee 2)

Upon the same issue, one of the participants who was conducting her PhD thesis commented by emphasizing the role of paraphrasing in literature as the following:

“Paraphrasing functions as describing, conceptualizing and stating the literature based statements with own morphologic and syntactic constructions of academic manuscripts’ writers.”(Interviewee 3)

While uttering the functions of paraphrasing in the construction of literature review, some of participants also maintained that paraphrase has a role in helping them while summarizing, discussing and criticizing the previous research. For example one participant remarked:

“As writing a research or review paper, we get benefit from the previous studies for a variety of reasons. As presenting these studies, we use paraphrasing. Because, especially in the section of literature review, we should summarize, criticize and discuss the previous studies, which we will not be able to do with direct quotations.” (Interviewee 1)

A good paraphrasing performance is shown by ones who have higher language proficiency and ability. However, according to some participants, paraphrase has a function in the development of novice writers’ writing quality. In other words, the more novice writers paraphrasing, their language competency will be higher. Paraphrase helps writers extend their lexical and structural knowledge. It also contributes writers to construct methods in comprehending complex passages. One of the participants expressed the function of paraphrasing as in the following:

“This method works for improving writing quality in terms of mechanic and linguistic uses by embedding the sentences within a well-developed and a professional format. At this point, the semantic relatedness is also the focus of paraphrasing practice to develop the competency in having sentences that make sense.” (Interviewee 3)

Another participant also added that paraphrasing promotes in developing writing style :

“It helps improving writing style in accordance with academic writings.”(Interviewee 12)

An additional matter that was highlighted in one of the interviewees was that paraphrasing has a role encouraging writers to join in the writing process with it rather than writing directly. She referred to the crucial function of paraphrasing by stating:

“Paraphrasing has an undeniable and indispensable role in academic circles. It helps the researcher to put some efforts in the writing process instead of offering direct quotations from others’ work.” (Interviewee 6)

Realizing that plagiarism is a serious problem in their academia, many participants commented paraphrasing as an alternative way of direct quotation in writing from sources and a method in avoiding plagiarism. It helps writers eliminate inappropriate textual borrowing practices and produce acceptable and authentic academic texts. Emphasizing the functions of paraphrasing, one of the participant commented as follows:

“Paraphrasing mainly has three functions in my writing. I use it for summarizing passages, avoiding the use of much direct quotations in my text, and most importantly preventing plagiarism.” (Interviewee 11)

Novice writers need to write from various sources while producing their tasks, assignments, theses, or articles. It is necessary to read a number of sources and involve them in their writings in an acceptable and appropriate way. Moreover, they must support their ideas with the previous research or studies and must construct a background for their studies. Using appropriately sources and constructing academic papers help them join in their discourse community. Instead of using much direct quotations, paraphrasing has an crucial role in constructing acceptable sources. Adding necessity of avoiding plagiarism, one of the participants who regarded involving previous studies as indispensable in academia stated :

“For a graduate student like me, it is inevitable to make use of the materials that have been read many times during long and demanding times of writing. We, as a researcher, use paraphrasing because it helps us support our hypothesis or methodology, describing the past research so as to provide a background to study. In my opinion, paraphrasing is the first

rule to be followed to produce an authentic study that is totally deprived of plagiarism.”(Interviewee 8)

Many participants emphasized that they preferred to more frequently use paraphrasing in their academic papers rather than writing directly. They believed that the a large amount of direct copy or quotation has an negative impact on acceptibility of their writings. For example, stating he put some efforts to rephrase the original texts, one of the participant reported that:

“To include direct quotations in large amount is not regarded as much acceptable in academic writings so I try to rephrase the quotation with my own words, phrases or sentences as well as syntactically changed structures.”(Interviewee 9)

When it comes to second category “ Purpose of Paraphrasing”, we can conclude that the participants’ comments on both the roles of paraphrasing and the purposes of paraphrasing are almost similar to each other. Most of the participants underlined plagiarism on their comments while mentioning what the purpose of paraphrasing is. some of them mentioned that the aim of using paraphrasing is related to producing authentic writings which do not include any sign of plagiarism. One of the participants said that paraphrasing impedes plagiarism while helping writers figure out their acceptable writings and have their own voice in the studies as the following:

“The main purpose behind paraphrasing, first and foremost, it motivates the writers to form their own meaningful sentences on the basis of their essays or studies and the related literature, thus, which prevents plagiarism.”(Interviewee 3)

Another participant who pointed out “authentic text” regarded the purpose of paraphrasing as producing a new text with no own ideas but the ideas of others. In other words, using the same ideas, the same meaning but different words and structures and also constructing a new text are the purpose of paraphrasing:

“The main purpose of paraphrase can be considered as to create a text which includes others’ ideas but at the same time is authentic.”(Interviewee 11)

Upon the same issue, one of the participants commented by emphasizing the purpose of paraphrasing in motivating novice writers to show their voice and to have a right of expression in their discourse community as the following:

“The aim of paraphrasing is to explain others’ ideas in different ways in order to create a niche in our academic discourse community.”
(Interviewee 5)

Apart from preventing plagiarism and creating new text without changing the meaning and ideas of the texts, the participants also expressed that paraphrasing is used to reinforce individual ideas with different researchers’ opinions, theories and views. Meanwhile, they saw paraphrasing as an alternative way for not using direct quotation. One of the participants commented:

“The purpose is to support your ideas with other researchers’ thoughts and when you do not want to quote the sentences or paragraphs directly, paraphrasing is a good way to be used.” (Interviewee 10)

Considering that paraphrasing is a main textual borrowing strategy which is used in any part of academic studies and stating he uses it for different purposes as an investigator, another interviewee referred to similar points:

“We, as researchers, use paraphrasing for various purposes such as supporting our hypothesis or methodology, describing the past research so as to provide a background to study etc.”(Interviewee 8)

As in the first category “the Roles of Paraphrasing”, writers’ language proficiency and language competence are emphasized again in the second category. If a writer can read many studies, clearly comprehend them and can appropriately use them in his/her writings, it can be said that s/he has a higher language proficiency. One of the interviewees who is both a graduate student and a research assistant in the university said that paraphrasing is the sign of writers’ language ability and its aim is to display their competency as the following:

“The purpose of the paraphrasing is to show that one has been able to read the relevant literature and understood it to present it.”(Interviewee 1).

Taking all these categories into consideration, we can infer that the participants' views of what paraphrasing works for and its purposes mainly centered on plagiarism and using previous studies because of various reasons. The participants commonly expressed that paraphrasing plays a crucial role in impeding plagiarism and creating acceptable and appropriate writings. They regarded the reason why to paraphrase as related to the plagiarism. Moreover, they believed that using excessive direct quotation may impact negatively the suitability and acceptability of their writing products. Therefore, for almost all of the participants, paraphrasing is a good alternative method in writing from sources. While integrating previous research in individual writing tasks, summarizing and discussing sources

The interviewees also considered that paraphrasing has a function in developing writers' language proficiency although researchers, so far, have mentioned that language proficiency or language competence affect on writers' paraphrasing performances. The participants mentioned that the more writers use paraphrasing, the higher their language proficiency will be. Furthermore, they emphasized that one of the purposes of paraphrasing is to show writers' language proficiency. That is, the aim of paraphrasing has an important effect on the function of paraphrasing.

Another issue the participants pointed out was that paraphrasing encourages or helps writers involve in writing process. Both as a role and a purpose, motivating novice writers to have their own voice in the studies, paraphrasing consequently provides them an entrance to their academic courses.

4.1.3. Paraphrasing Strategies/ Methods

At the outset of the study, we had thought that paraphrasing strategies or methods of the participants could be seen as a subtheme of the paraphrasing challenges they encountered while writing from sources. However, in the course of examining of the data, paraphrasing strategies appeared to be significant as a separate theme given the relevant codes and categories. The participants provided significant data to well see their strategies they had thought and compare their practices with their paraphrasing knowledge. In fact, the investigation of the paraphrasing strategies of L2 graduate students was one of the research questions of our study. Thus, the issue of paraphrasing

strategies or methods was shown in a different theme in the study. The third theme is about the strategies the participants have used while constructing their paraphrasing.

Table 4.3.

Theme for Methods

THEME 3: PARAPHRASING METHODS	
CATEGORIES	CODES
Category 1: Changing Words	Changing word with its synonyms
	Using different lexicon
Category 2: Changing Structures	Changing word order
	Changing sentence voice
	Changing sentence structure
	Using clause as a phrase or vice versa
Category 3: Others	Changing the order of ideas of original text
	Trying to understand the text
	Transforming longer sentences into shorter sentences
	Translating the information to his/her own native language
	Presenting numbers and percentages in different forms
	Examining important points in the text and classifying them in a certain order
	Using different paraphrasing ways together

As can be seen in table 4.3., most of the issues that were regarded as strategies the participants were related to changing some component of sentences. Issues ranging from change in words and structures of sentences to change the order of ideas and translating to own native language formed the strategies the students mentioned that they frequently used. As shown in the table, the first category of strategies refers to the

changing of words. Changing words in the original texts with their synonyms were among the most used strategy for the writers who were the participants in this study. One of them stated that she preferred to change vocabularies or phrases with their synonyms. She commonly used this method because she found simplest in application. However, she was inconflident on whether using synonyms of words is one of paraphrasing strategies. She mentioned her comment about paraphrasing strategies as such:

“I am not sure whether this is a method or strategy, but I resort to synonym words or phrases very frequently and I use thesaurus dictionaries and other online resources to check the appropriateness of the words I use. I cannot give a reason, I just find it easier and convenient.”(Interviewee 2)

Another interviewee also stated that changing words is the simpliest strategy that she preferred to use it when she was not able to exactly comprehend the ideas of the source. This participant regarded change in structure and words of sentences and understanding the text as sufficient to paraphrase. She pointed out that she commonly used these strategies while rewriting, because, according to her, every writer has distinctive writing character. As one of the participants, she explained :

“I generally change the structure and the words of the sentences. As rewriting text, structure and words are changed as the style of every writer is different from one another. Moreover, changing the words is the easiest strategy for me especially when I have difficulty in getting the idea between the lines.”(Interviewee 1)

Using different lexicon as well as changing words with their synonyms was also emphasized by some of participants. It is necessary to mention that almost all participants expressed that they used at least two strategies while paraphrasing. They preferred to change both structures and words. One of them commented as such:

“While paraphrasing, I prefer changing the structure of sentence. Also, I make use of different lexicon.”(Interviewee 5)

Another strategy that the participants commonly mentioned is “changing structures”. We have presented changing word order, sentence voice and changing

sentence structure together and in almost each codes as well as changing words and using synonyms because the participants' comments on their paraphrasing strategies were one within the other. These strategies were mentioned together by most of the participants. One participant who reported that she regarded these strategies as “basic and most useful strategies” but chose generally changing of words because she believed that changing words creates paraphrase said:

Of the many ways of paraphrasing, the most three which I prefer to use changing the words, sentence structure and the voice type. As paraphrasing, the first method I usually prefer to use the change of structure. Then, operations on words by finding their synonyms or a phrase expressing the same meaning comes, and finally, change of the voice type takes place-if necessary and available. I prefer these methods because they are the most basic and most useful ways of paraphrasing, to me. Among these three, however, most of the time, I prefer to use ‘change of words’ since I consider it what makes a paraphrase.”(Interviewee 11)

While substituting structures and words of sentences, it is necessary to keep the original meaning and continue the same relationship between main points and supporting points. One of the participants approved in her comments to change original idea as well as changing lexicon and structures of sentence while stating the importance of preserving the ‘core meaning’ of the sentences. As the participant commented:

“Basically, changing lexicon and sentence structures help. However, it is vital not to change the core meaning while changing the original idea.”(Interviewee 6)

Another interviewee uttered that she substituted just structures and words of sentences, she was not sure that these are paraphrasing strategies, adding that she did not know any paraphrasing strategies or methods:

“I do not know methods or strategies related to paraphrasing. The only way I know is to change the sentence structures and words.”(Interviewee 10)

Neither in online writing labs nor in research on academic writing, transforming sentence voice has been exactly shown as a paraphrasing strategy. However, changing sentence voice may be classified in changing sentence structure. Moreover, using

clause as a phrase or phrase as a sentence have not been defined as a paraphrasing strategy. It can be said that online writing labs have not explained ‘changing sentence structure’ elaborately but, writing instructors may teach changing sentence structure in detail while instructing students on paraphrasing and thus, novice writers classify it as a paraphrasing strategy. One of the interviewees stated that he used frequently the paraphrasing ways such as change in clause or phrase, making sentence direct or indirect and synonym words however, he mentioned that he used nearly all methods as such:

“I use almost all paraphrasing techniques, some of them on which I insist are change from a clause to a phrase (or vice versa), change from active to passive (or vice versa). Synonyms, different word forms.”(Interviewee 9)

Changing the order of ideas was another technique that was stated by one of the participants. She mentioned that she changed the order of the ideas as well as many different strategies. She said:

“The techniques I frequently prefer to use are using synonyms, using varied sentence patterns, changing the order of ideas...” (Interviewee 3)

In the process of paraphrasing, the techniques of the participants used were not only related to changing words and structures. There were also some other strategies which were reported by the participants in this study. Comprehending the text before paraphrasing is the crucial one. Madhavi (2013) in her study, established a paraphrasing rubric for students to follow and she reported ‘understanding the source fully’ as the first step for paraphrasing. Moreover, Purdue Online Writing Lab (no date) offered some steps and emphasized on rereading the source text until fully understanding. For paraphrasing, first step or strategy must be completely comprehending the original source. However, only one of the participants who were also graduate students stated that she made effort to understand as the following:

“Firstly, I try to understand and then, rewrite the text.”(Interviewee 1)

The length of texts paraphrased may be a discussion issue among researchers or writing instructors. The original text is longer than the paraphrased text or vice versa. In fact, it is expected that both the paraphrased text and the source text include almost the

same number of words. One of the participants stated that she shortened the longer sentences in the source text while paraphrasing as well as other strategies. When considered this paraphrasing strategy of the participant, the length of paraphrased text may be shorter than the original text. She expressed:

“The techniques I frequently prefer to use are using synonyms, using varied sentence patterns, changing the order of the ideas, and breaking longer sentences into shorter ones.”(Interviewee 3)

Translation of original source from English into native language was stated as another paraphrasing strategy by one of interviewees, however it has not been defined as a paraphrasing step or strategy anywhere. He expressed that he paid attention on the meaning and structure while translating. From his comments, it can be said that the participant translated both the original text and his the new text he produced by paraphrasing. This participant also emphasized on using synonyms in his comments:

“I generally translate the information to my native language and rewrite the sentence in English. While doing this, I give importance to the structure and meaning of the initial sentence and paraphrased sentence. I also try to use synonyms of the words and not use the same word in each time.”(Interviewee 4)

The source texts sometimes compose of numerical and percentage expressions. While paraphrasing, such expressions must not be changed so that the main idea of the original can change. One of the participants reported that he used such numerical statements in different form while also changing the word order and conjunctions as well. He expressed as the following:

“While changing the sentence structure and using different connecting words, I try to use synonyms as well, or I try to both change numbers and percentages to different forms and change word order at the same time.”(Interviewee 8)

One of the participants who was a graduate student and an instructors for almost twenty years mentioned that he examined the crucial parts of the texts and categorized them in a certain line while paraphrasing:

“Brainstorming about the important points in the text and classifying them into a linear order.”(Interviewee 12)

Another issue that some of the participants pointed out was using many strategies together while paraphrasing. They said that implementing some strategies all together makes easier paraphrasing and helps writers produce good paraphrase. They also considered that using more than one at the same time encourages writers to have their own voice in writing. One of these participants reported by emphasizing appropriate textual borrowing as such:

“In paraphrasing, there are many different strategies to convert a sentence into another one with the same meaning. Actually, I prefer to use the strategies in an eclectic manner; that is, to make a sentence semantically parallel to the original one by certainly avoiding plagiarism. I believe that it is essential to join all the techniques; therefore, I employ different techniques simultaneously. At this point, the techniques I frequently prefer to use are using synonyms, using varied sentence patterns, changing the order of the ideas, and the breaking longer sentences into shorter ones. The rationale for my preference of these techniques lies behind the fact that these techniques promote the construction of sentences closer to the meaning of the original one within a professional format, that is, an academic structure. Additionally, through the use of these techniques in an eclectic manner, it would be easier to organize statements from author voice, that is, the authors could develop their own tone. Finally, these techniques seem to be the core ones to prevent taking words or ideas from another’s work and use them in their work without stating that they are not their own.”(Interviewee 3)

Upon the same issue, another participant commented by emphasizing that paraphrasing is a demanding task and good paraphrase can be produced only with the help of higher language proficiency:

“Paraphrasing is not an easy deal, and as I said before, we have to have a well-established language skill to be able to be successful. There are a number of general procedures to be implemented while doing so. In my opinion, every sentence is different from each other and may require different techniques to be paraphrased, and the combination of those

techniques while paraphrasing provide more chance to utter a well-developed paraphrased sentence.”(Interviewee 8)

To make a general comment on paraphrasing strategies and techniques that the participants frequently implemented, we can say that their methods are almost similar. Most of the participants mentioned that they, firstly, preferred to alter words in the original sources with their synonyms. While they were doing they uttered that they used dictionaries, thesaurus dictionaries or online dictionaries. They mostly preferred changes in words because they found it easier and more dependable way in creating acceptable paraphrasing.

Almost all participants (11 in 12) mentioned that they made mechanical changes in the sentences of sources such as changing sentence voice, reordering the ideas, changing word forms as well as changing words with their synonyms. They believed that keeping the source as unharmed as possible with these structural changes makes their paraphrased text acceptable and appropriate or successful. Similar insufficient paraphrasing strategies have been previously defined some researchers, for example; synonym substitution (Ange'lil-Carter, 2000; Shi, 2004), changing syntax of the source (Shi,2004), deleting or adding some words to the source (Shi, 2004), and reordering of the phrases or words of the source (Keck,2006). These strategies of the writers were found risky in terms of plagiarism. Because, these strategies are regarded as surface-level alterations of the source texts. Thus, the writers produce patchwritten texts or cause unintentional plagiarism. But, Howard (1999) thinks that these patchwriting practices of the novice writers are significant development step or stage and need a pedagogical response instead of a punitive one.

It is crucial preserving the meaning of ideas while modificating the original sentences. However, only some of participant emphasized the importance of saving of the meaning. Even, one of them expressed that using these strategies make easier for the writers to produce closer sentences while rewriting the texts with their own words. The same participant also mentioned about the usefulness in using all paraphrasing strategies simultaneously.

From the comments of the participants, it has been concluded different and new paraphrasing strategies that have not been identified before such as transforming longer

sentences into shorter sentences and translating the information to the writer's own native language. The length of sentences may be changeable because of transformation of clause into a phrase or a phrase into a clause. Both of these paraphrasing strategies were used by two different participants. Additionally, one of the participant mentioned that he used translation the original source in his native language, then, he paraphrased. The participant may use these translation to clearly comprehend the text that is the first and most significant in paraphrasing and for not changing the ideas and saving the original meaning.

Using many paraphrasing strategies at the same time was also emphasized by two of the participants in this study. According to them, implementing them simultaneously helps writers create more acceptable and successful texts. Obviously, previous research has also shown that small modifications in sentences or using just one or three method may be insufficient for paraphrasing and cause plagiarism. Therefore, it is necessary, firstly, to understand the source text fully, and then, using rewriting strategies.

However; such instructional materials that the participants said they used and also have been categorized by researchers and writing labs are shown to be inadequate and limited (Campbell, 1990; Frodesen, 2007) and do little to help learners develop their lexical knowledge (Currie, 1998; Deckert, 1993, as cited in Chen, Chang & Liou, 2013, p.2). Furthermore, through only these techniques, students may not be able to understand the role of paraphrasing in academic writing. On the other hand, dictionaries and thesauri may also be used while paraphrasing; but they usually provide single-word inputs or little or no usage information. Student writers also can encounter with challenge in choosing with the correct word instead of original words. In addition, the transition from exercises to authentic uses of paraphrasing (as cited in Hirvela & Du p.97) is also difficult for the novice writers.

4.1.4. Deciding Direct Quotation or Paraphrasing

Our fourth theme is concerning “deciding to use direct quotation or paraphrasing.” As shown in Table 4.4., the participants focused on the matters denoting

the reasons why they preferred to use direct quotation or paraphrasing while writing from sources.

Table 4.4.

Theme for Direct Quotation or Paraphrasing

THEME 4: DECIDING TO USE DIRECT QUOTATION OR PARAPHRASING	
CATEGORIES	CODES
Category 1: Paraphrasing	Impact on readers
	Summarizing a long text
	Demanding to use evaluative language
	Length of sentences
	Ability in saving the meaning of the ideas
	General topics
	Length of sentences
Category 2: Direct Quotation	Definitions, terms, theories, specific concepts
	Short and basic sentences
	Original is better
	Fear of not conveying the original meaning
	Easier way to use
	Supporting claims

The first category deals with the strengths of using paraphrasing instead of quoting directly. The reasons of the participants to use paraphrasing while writing from sources are commonly different from each other. They made clear that they preferred to paraphrase according to characteristics of source text and their performances. But, one participant, as different from the others, preferred to paraphrase because of readers. While writing from sources, he thought whether paraphrasing or direct copying could attract the attention of readers. He decided to use paraphrase or direct quotation in inclusive of need. He mentioned as such:

“It is all about the decision of which will have much more effect on the readers. If there is no need to directly place the original source to my research, I generally prefer paraphrasing.”(Interviewee 8)

Summarizing has been regarded as crucial by both researchers and writing instructors in academic writing. It is related to writing from sources. While briefly explaining a study or a text, writers summarize it and they need to paraphrase while summarizing. That is, paraphrasing is a necessary textual borrowing strategy for summary. One of the participant reported that she chose to use paraphrasing while summarizing a long text. she expressed:

“I use paraphrase when I have to summarize a long text. Instead of giving place to a long direct quotation, I try hard to paraphrase the original source. At other times, I prefer paraphrasing the original sources.”(Interviewee 11)

As paraphrasing can be used in students’ tasks or assignments as well as direct quotation, it is also used when creating parts of academic studies such as literature review, and discussion. One of the interviewees in the study mentioned what provides explaining previous studies in an evaluative manner while constructing these parts of studies is paraphrasing. She said:

“ As for paraphrasing, in the literature review sections to add more evaluative perspective to the studies within the scope of the field, and in the discussion sections to add further insight to the related works, the use of paraphrasing is worthy of recommendation for use.”(Interviewee 3)

Conveying the meaning of ideas while paraphrasing is significant. Another participant said that paraphrase is preferable provided that the meaning will not be changed. From the participant’ comment, it can be concluded that she decided to use paraphrasing when she was confident that the meaning was not lost in another expression. She stated as the following:

“If the idea can be stated in another way without losing its sense and meaning, paraphrasing can be utilized.”(Interviewee 6)

Paraphrasing is commonly a demanding expression way for the novice writers. They have difficulties in implementing paraphrase in their task when particularly they

have not background information on the subject of the source text. Thus, they see some mechanical changes enough for paraphrasing. But, if they are familiar with the subject of the source, they prefer to use paraphrasing in the construction of their papers. One of the participants supported this as the following:

“I use paraphrasing when the topic is general.”(Interviewee 7)

The length of sentences is another factor that influences on the choice of paraphrase. Longer sentences are found easier to paraphrase by the writers than shorter ones. One of the interviewees in the study mentioned by emphasizing the importance of long sentence in paraphrasing:

“The length of sentence is important here. It is important to paraphrase long sentences. I try to paraphrase long sentences as much as possible.”(Interviewee 4)

The second category was about the reasons why to choose direct quotation. In this category, what was generally pointed out by the participants was that quoting directly from the source is necessary and confident when writing definitions, specific ideas and concepts. Many participants told that they preferred to use direct quotations in such expressions. For example, one of the participants conveyed the idea :

“Direct quotations are of importance to use when domain specific concepts, definitions, theories, which have been developed or put by other experts and researchers and the scopes of which have become the basic tenets of the fields they belong to, are in question.”(Interviewee 3)

Mentioning that he preferred to use direct quotation in writings consisting of definitions and scientific expressions, another participant commented:

“In deciding which way to choose, I look at the paragraph. If it contains descriptions and it has scientific phrases, I choose to use direct quotation.”(Interviewee 7)

Another participant also connected the reason why she preferred to use direct quotation with both definition and the difficulty of paraphrase. She told the necessity of quoting directly descriptions and excerpts from a study concerning qualities and added

that the challenges with paraphrasing affected her choice. The length of sentences was another factor for her choice:

“Direct quotations should be present when there are definitions or extracts in a qualitative study. Hence, I try to obey this academic rule when I write a research report. Apart from this, when I have much difficulty in paraphrasing-I have difficulty especially in very short and basic sentences-, I use direct quotations.”(Interviewee 1)

One of the participants emphasized the challenges to paraphrase short expressions as well as the necessity of using direct quotation in terms, too. According to him, changing such sentences may affect on the original meaning of the excerpt. He also stated that such original sentence is better than paraphrasing. He said:

“It is almost impossible to paraphrase some very short phrases, clauses or sentences. More, the terms which have become associated with the writer’s sayings are not appropriate to paraphrase because the meaning would change for the audience. To be honest, occasionally, you get ashamed to paraphrase a sentence because it was stated so good and in harmony with the issue; well-organized.”(Interviewee 9)

Most of the participants presented the quality of the original as a reason for direct quotation. While some of them stated that original excerpt is better than paraphrase, some of them also mentioned the possible change in the original meaning. They thought that the main meaning or idea might be lost or changed if they used paraphrasing in stead of direct quotation. One of them conveyed this idea as follows:

“When the original utterances are better to convey the desired idea, direct quotations are preferable.”(Interviewee 6)

Another participants also expressed that using original sentence is more preferable than paraphrasing it because it can explain in the best way. She uttered:

“I use quotations when the original text is necessary to give best explanation.”(Interviewee 10)

For many years, it has been discussed whether language ability or competence have influence on paraphrasing performances of writers. Some studies have found that higher language proficiency writers have, better paraphrases they will produce.

Because, their language ability determines their paraphrase performance. One of the interviewee stated that when she noticed that her paraphrasing was not be able to convey the same idea of the source, she preferred to use direct quotation. She said :

“I tend to use direct quotations only when I feel that my paraphrase would not be able to express the exact idea in the original source.”(Interviewee 11)

Saving the exact meaning of the source text is the most crucial necessity for paraphrasing. Writers have to convey the same meaning or idea while rewriting the text in their own words. The same idea or meaning will be expressed with different wording and form. However, writers may apprehend in changing the meaning and thus, they choose to write directly from the excerpt. One of the participants told about the reason for using direct quotation by expressing this fear:

“ When I believe that the words of the writer will better explain the issue than my words, and that I may not convey the meaning the writer intends to give, I choose to quote directly.”(Interviewee 2)

The difficulty of paraphrasing and easiness of direct quotation are another factors that influence the choice of writers. Writers encounter challenges in implementing paraphrasing in their papers. These challenges cause them to tend to quote directly or plagiarize. Since they want to avoid plagiarism, they prefer direct quotation that is easier alternative way for them. One of the participants stated her comments on the direct quotation:

“Sometimes, using direct quotations can be seen as an easier way to express our ideas with others’ words when we have difficulty in paraphrasing the original text. It can be seen an alternative to paraphrasing in academic writing.”(Interviewee 5)

One of the participants regarded using direct quotation as a component to back his claims and to make his writing more reliable by pointing crucial parts. He showed the reason why to quote directly as the following:

“There are times that it is preferable and proper to use quotations to provide support for claims or add credibility to my writing, and to

highlight a particularly striking phrase, sentence or passage.”(Interviewee 8)

To make a general comment considering the participants' reasons why to paraphrase and why to quote directly, it can be concluded that their preferences were based on both the difficult nature of paraphrasing, the language of source, and their abilities. The difficult nature of paraphrasing was emphasized by almost all participants. Since quoting directly is much easier for them, they chose to use direct quotation.

Besides the challenges with paraphrasing, the length of sentences also affected on their choice. They saw short sentences as difficult to paraphrase, so they preferred to quote directly whereas they mentioned that they used paraphrase in summarizing long texts. They approved to use direct quotation in writing short sentences as a result of the fact that they could not convey the original idea and it might change. They believed that the language of original text and expression was stronger than theirs. Thus, they emphasized on “ *Original is better.*”

It was also found that they preferred to use paraphrasing as a textual borrowing strategy because they could not always quote directly from sources and they regarded paraphrasing as an alternative method to direct quotation. However, they uttered that they used direct quotation while writing definitions, scientific concepts and theories. On the contrary, they stated to prefer paraphrasing in common or ordinary topics

From participants' comments, it can also be concluded that their language proficiency may have an impact on their choice of paraphrasing or quoting directly. Because, many of them mentioned that their paraphrasing performance could not save the original idea of the source. This shows that they lacked of self-confidence in their language ability to appropriately paraphrase. The fear of changing the meaning caused them to use direct quotation.

4.1.5. Differences Between Good and Bad Paraphrasing

Another theme that was identified as a result of the analysis of the data is about the differences between good and bad paraphrasing. They mentioned both mechanical factors and semantic factors that impacted on the quality of paraphrasing.

Table 4.5.

Theme for Differences between Good and Bad Paraphrasing

THEME 5: GOOD VERSUS BAD PARAPHRASING	
CATEGORIES	CODES
Category 1: Good Paraphrasing	Being clear and understandable
	Readable texts
	Involving the same meaning with the original text
	Using different words and structures
	Using his/her own words and sentences
	Being correct grammatically and lexically
Category 2: Bad Paraphrasing	Altering only words and structures
	Copying much of original
	Using inappropriate words
	Changing original meaning while changing words and structures
	Excluding crucial information

Considering this theme, two basic categories have been identified: good paraphrasing and bad paraphrasing. The former includes how a paraphrase composes of or what designates the quality of paraphrase and latter contains factors which causes inappropriate paraphrasing. Taking the first code in the first category into account, it can be seen that what was emphasized by the participants was the importance of creating comprehensible texts that have impact on the quality of the paraphrased product. Most of participants believed that good paraphrase is a clear and understandable. Being clear is an important factor for good paraphrasing because the meaning or idea of paraphrase must not be indefinite or different from the original excerpt. One of the participants stated that as there are differences in forms and wordings of both source texts and paraphrased texts, there must not be differences in the idea or meaning of both texts and paraphrased text must be able to be understood clearly:

“When the paraphrased sentence and original sentence are compared, you can understand that this is a paraphrase that looks like the original one very much.”(Interviewee 1)

Another participant emphasized the cleanliness in paraphrased text as the following:

“A good paraphrased sentence should be fluent and clear to comprehend.”(Interviewee 4)

That the paraphrased texts is clear affects on its readability. In other words, reader can easily read the text and comprehend it. One of the participants conveyed this issue by calling short and clear texts as good paraphrases:

“Good paraphrase covers altered sentences that mean exactly the same as the original. Moreover, the meaning of the altered ones are clear and concise, and these sentences are smoothly read.”(Interviewee 3)

The meaning or idea of the original source must be saved and not be changed while being changed structures and lexical. Because paraphrase is a method for expressing the same ideas of source in other words. Almost all participants told about the importance of conveying the original meaning as well as structural changes while they were defining good paraphrasing. One of them uttered :

“ A good paraphrasing is not to use the same words and structures in those sentences, it is also to give exactly the same meaning and change the sentence structure as much as possible.”(Interviewee 4)

Like the former participant, one of them also said that appropriate paraphrase is one which contains the same ideas or meaning. She maintained:

“The biggest concern is about changing the original meaning and adding your own ideas. While trying to paraphrase, the writer should aim to keep the essence of the idea. Therefore, good paraphrasing keeps the main meaning and presents it with a good command of the language.”(Interviewee 6)

Paraphrase requires mechanical changes in the structure and wording of original text. Simple sentences can be written as compound or complex sentences by being

combined into consecutive sentences. Or, compound or complex sentences can be transformed into simple sentences by splitting one into two or more clauses. While doing this, writer must do lexical changes in original wording such as using synonyms of words, changing type of word, if it is a noun, it can be used as an adjective. However, altering only form or only words of source may cause the text to be called as *'patchwriting'*. Therefore, both structural changes and lexical changes must be done. Referring to the necessity of replacements in form and words, one of the interviewees mentioned:

“Good paraphrasing involves in changing the words in the original text with appropriate words and the grammatical structure in an appropriate way.”(Interviewee 5)

One of the participants also defined good paraphrasing by combining all requirements that it entails to contain. She expressed that the length of paraphrased text is not important for good paraphrasing. She regarded possible and acceptable to add or delete structures or words but, she also emphasized the importance of conveying the same ideas and not joining new ideas in the original. Being only one participant who mentioned from the role of technical terms in good paraphrasing, she said:

“In my opinion the first criterion for good paraphrasing is giving nothing more or less than the writer’s own ideas. A good paraphrase may add or eliminate words and can be longer or shorter than the original version. But, some additions or eliminations in terms of ideas cannot be acceptable. Using own words as much as possible is the second criterion, to me. Except for the expressions and words (e.g. technical) which cannot and sometimes should not be changed the words used in a paraphrase should be different than the ones in the original version as much as possible.”(Interviewee 11)

That individual words and sentences designating good paraphrasing were emphasized by one of participants, too:

“Good paraphrasing should be the own sentences of the ones who paraphrases.”(Interviewee 7)

While paraphrasing, changing forms and wordings is crucial. But, writer should be aware of producing correct texts in terms of both grammatical and lexical. The most

crucial criteria, because, is to convey original meaning of the source. If a paraphrased sentence is incorrect, it may cause differences in meaning and express different ideas to readers. One of interviewees said underlining the impact of correct paraphrased sentence on good paraphrasing:

“The correct use of grammatical rules and structures can be considered as one of the important criteria for good paraphrasing. This is also necessary because the wrong use of structures may not only hinder to express the original idea but also influence the readers’ understanding of the original version and consequently may lead misunderstanding.”(Interviewee 11).

As the second category, we see what identifies bad paraphrasing according to the participants. They emphasized on commonly form of sentences as in defining good paraphrasing. Replacement of only words with their equivalents or structures was seen as a reason causing to bad paraphrasing. One of the participants who saw such limited changes as ‘*patchwriting*’ stated :

“If only some words are changed with their synonyms, or if only the grammatical structure of the sentence are changed, then we talk about bad paraphrasing. When the paraphrased sentence and the original sentence are compared, you can understand that this is a paraphrase that looks like the original one very much. This becomes an example of patchwriting. Besides, some parts of the sentence are changed and the other parts are the same with the original. This is both patchwriting and bad paraphrasing.”(Interviewee 1)

The comments of another participant maintained the same issue in which limited changes in structures and words are the first criterion for bad paraphrasing. The participant mentioned :

“After I read a sentence that is paraphrased and find its source in reference list and read its original, if I feel that anything has not been changed much comparing the original and paraphrased text, it is certainly bad paraphrasing for me. For example, if just a few words have been changed, or just a sentence is made passive or active, it is not a successful paraphrasing. It is bad paraphrasing.”(Interviewee 8)

Copying much of the original was another point that caused problematic or bad paraphrasing for the participants. In fact, paraphrased text must not include any same words and structures of the source. According to Keck (2006), there may be one or two general links from the original excerpt. But, copying much of the original may cause the paraphrased text to be classified as an example of plagiarism if the text does not contain any references. One of the interviewee defined bad paraphrasing as copying too much from the original and she maintained:

“Bad paraphrasing includes too much of the original, which actually means plagiarism if there is no documenting.”(Interviewee 3)

Changing words or strings of words is an important step that is mostly used while paraphrasing. Writers substitute words of the original excerpt with their equivalents. While replacing words, using correct ones is crucial because there must not be any differences in the idea or meaning of source. One word has more than one synonyms, however, it does not mean that every synonym word can be used instead of one another. Since, it may meaningfully differ from each other. Thus, choosing the correct words instead of originals is necessary for appropriate paraphrase. One of the participants showed ‘using inappropriate words’ as a reason for bad paraphrasing and she uttered:

“I think we can talk about bad paraphrasing when the actual meaning of the writing material is changed due to use of inappropriate words, usually synonyms which have different usages and meanings in different contexts.”(Interviewee 2)

Changing the original meaning while changing structures and words was another point that the participants called as bad paraphrasing. An appropriate paraphrase includes in different words and different structures but the same meaning with the source. It is necessary to save the original meaning while replacing structures and wordings. Or else, it may cause to create unsuccessful paraphrasing. Maintaining the same issue, one of the participants said:

“Bad paraphrasing type is changing words and structures but, at the same time, changing the meaning of the sentence.”(Interviewee 4)

A text may include in more than one important information. Besides the necessity of saving the original meaning, it is also necessary to convey every crucial data of the source. One of the interviewees conveyed the same issue as the following:

“Bad paraphrasing misses the main idea and leaves out important information.” (Interviewee 3)

To make a general comment considering good and bad paraphrasing, we can say that almost all participants stated similar expressions while explaining appropriate and inappropriate paraphrasing. They commonly emphasized the importance of changes in structures and wordings of the original source for good paraphrasing. Changes that they implied contained different words such as synonyms, word form changes and different structures. But, preserving the meaning of the original source was one of the most important criteria in the classification of paraphrasing as good or bad as well as structural and lexical changes. They mostly mentioned that if a paraphrased text has the same meaning or idea with the original, it is good paraphrasing. but, if not, it is bad paraphrasing.

They also saw limited structural and lexical changes as insufficient for good paraphrasing. They mentioned that altering only words or only structures lead to bad paraphrasing. Replacements in both forms and wordings of the original must be used together. According to them, however, changes made must be correct in terms of grammatically and lexically in order to the fact that the main idea is conveyed for good paraphrasing. Because, they added that every synonym word cannot convey the same meaning with the original or cannot have the same usage in the sentence. Therefore, using inappropriate substitution may cause bad paraphrasing. Producing clear, understandable and readable paraphrased text is another point that the participants mentioned for successful paraphrasing. From their comments, it can be concluded that preserving the original meaning as well as structural and lexical changes is the most significant factor which identifies a paraphrased task as good or bad.

4.1.6. Challenges in Paraphrasing

Examining the difficulties in implementing paraphrasing that writers have is one of the main motives in this study. Data collected for this study have indicated that

identifying the writers' challenges with paraphrasing is an important aspect in the construction of useful writing instructions.

Table 4.6.

Theme for Difficulties and Challenges

THEME 6: DIFFICULTIES	
CATEGORIES	CODES
Category 1: Lexical Knowledge	Finding appropriate words instead of original ones
	Choosing correct synonym among many words
	Technical words
Category 2: Linguistic Competence and Original Meaning	Understanding totally the text or idea
	Longer and shorter sentences
	Complex and compound sentences
	Changing sentence structure and word order
	Preserving the exact meaning/expressions
	Unfamiliarity with the text
Category 3: Others	Taking too much time to produce a correct paraphrase
	Losing concentration on how to paraphrase

Three major categories were identified under this theme: difficulties with lexical knowledge, linguistic competence and original meaning and others. The first category mostly included the challenges concerning the words that the participants mentioned that they had difficulties. The first step while paraphrasing writers employ is to substitute words with their synonyms. However, each word in the source may not have its equivalent or the meaning of synonym may differ from the original. One of the participants who felt the difficulty to find appropriate words instead of original one commented:

“Sometimes, it is difficult for me to find the appropriate words instead of the words in the original text since the usage of the words appropriately is very crucial. Each word that has the same meaning cannot be used interchangeably.”(Interviewee 5)

The meaning of a word may also change according to text in which it is used as well as it has several meanings. It occasionally creates disturbance in usage. Another participant also stated that she had challenge in finding the appropriate word with the same meaning:

“ The main difficulty I experience while paraphrasing is to find the proper words and expressions to give the same meaning intended by the author himself. In English, words may have several meanings in different contexts and therefore, a word required to be used in a context may not be possible or even weird to use in another context.”(Interviewee 11)

As well as the difficulty arising from finding words which have the same meaning, choosing correct synonyms in many words were shown as a challenging work by the participants. A word may have several synonyms but, there may be differences in their meanings. In other words, they are not exactly the same. While substituting words with their synonyms, writers feel confused which one to choose.

“ A word has a few synonyms and it is very hard for me to choose the suitable one among them. As there are little differences in their meaning and sometimes their usage is different from each other, I am not sure to choose correct the one.”(Interviewee 5)

Some texts contain terms, technical expressions and scientific concepts. It is a controversial issue among writers. They are not sure whether they need to use them directly or try to change with other words. Therefore, they feel confused in using such words while paraphrasing. One of the interviewees stated this difficulty as the following:

“I sometimes find difficult to paraphrase the sentences bombed by a specific jargon, and technical terms. I am not exactly sure how to use them appropriately.”(Interviewee 12)

Second category is difficulties that arise from linguistic competence and preserving original meaning. That paraphrasing requires higher language ability has been discussed by both researchers and writing instructors. According to them, writers who have higher language competence produce more appropriate paraphrases but writers with lower language competence produce poor paraphrases. Taking the paraphrase challenges the participants of this study mentioned into consideration, higher language competence is necessary from comprehension the source text to producing a new text. Some of the participants uttered that if they cannot comprehend the source text exactly, it is too hard to paraphrase it for them. One of them maintained:

“Some areas of difficulty may be to do with the basic knowledge of the target language. In addition, not totally understanding the idea or text and getting the sense out of it might be another problem.”(Interviewee 6)

Emphasizing the importance of understanding the text in paraphrasing, another participant conveyed that it is not too difficult when she understands the source text completely. She said:

“I believe that the key point in paraphrasing is what is written exactly. Hence, I have difficulty in paraphrasing when I do not understand the text. If I have no difficulty in comprehending the text, then, I do not have much difficulty.”(Interviewee 1)

One of the participants also told about challenges with comprehending the source and added that fully understanding the text is the first and crucial step for good paraphrasing:

“Fore and foremost, we need to understand and internalize fully the target material in order to paraphrase it in a correct way. Because wrong internalization leads to wrong comments on it and wrong paraphrasing in the end. That is to say, I sometimes find difficult to understand a text properly or even I found myself that I understood it totally wrong when I get feedbacks from my colleagues or my supervisor.”(Interviewee 8)

Besides the difficulties related to comprehending the text, sentence structures were presented as one of the difficulties by the participants. One of the interviewees found demanding to paraphrase long sentences and subordinates and he said:

“If the sentence is too long to understand , in combination it again in different ways, I have difficulties. It is also difficult for me to paraphrase the sentences which include sub-clauses.”(Interviewee 4)

Another participant also mentioned that the length of sentences is problematic for her :

“Both too long and too short sentences are difficult to paraphrase for me.”(Interviewee 1)

The source text may be composed of different kinds of sentence structures such as simple, compound and complex. One of the participants found easier to paraphrase simple sentence whereas complex and compound sentences were more difficulty to paraphrase for him:

“Some complex or compound sentences are very hard to paraphrase because I do not know how to rewrite them.”(Interviewee 7)

Changing sentence structure and words of the original text are most necessary steps for paraphrase. But, structural changes are also the most demanding step. The reason why it is too difficult may be related to the complexity of the original. One of the interviewees mentioned the challenges with changes as the following:

“There are some paragraphs or sentences that are very hard to paraphrase, for example, it is too difficult to change their structures while it is impossible to change word order to transmit the exact meaning and it may be improper to only change a sentence from active to passive.”(Interviewee 8)

The aim of paraphrase is to express the same meaning or idea with different words. While changing words and structures of the original, writers have difficulties in conveying the same meaning. However, writers may occasionally produce sentences with different meaning from the original due to the fact that they understand incorrectly the text. Moreover, unfamiliar texts have also negative effect on the challenges writers encounter and therefore, on their paraphrasing performance. One of the participants mentioned this difficulty on her comments:

“Getting the right meaning of an expression or a sentence used in the original text may become a difficulty to me. In some texts, especially if I am not familiar with the subject of the text, the intended meaning may be difficult to get, which makes the work of paraphrasing uneasy. Because of these, I feel difficulty to save the meaning of the source text.”(Interviewee 11)

As parallel with problems an unfamiliar text leads, one of the participants mentioned that different discourse forms are difficult to understand and cause to misreading and misinterpreting which is the reason for producing different meaning from the original text. She said:

“Misreading original sentence because of the different discourse features exclusive to the language through which the sentence is produced, leads to the forming sentences quite different from the original sources.”(Interviewee 3)

One of the difficulties the participants stated was related to the time. A participant told that she spent a lot of time while paraphrasing :

“Paraphrasing a text is too difficult and exhausting so, I have to spent too much time.”(Interviewee 2)

Another participant conveyed the same issue adding that she failed to think closely:

“While paraphrasing, I spend much time to change form of sentences, to find appropriate synonyms and to save essential meaning. In other words, constructing a new sentence or a paragraph is tiring. Therefore, I lose my concentration while I am thinking on how to paraphrase.”(Interviewee 10)

As a conclusion, the data collected for this study showed that the challenges the participants mentioned might arise from two reasons; individual reasons and textual reasons. These two basic reasons influence on their paraphrasing interchangeably. Many participants mentioned that they had difficulties to find or choose correct word instead of original ones. Moreover, some of them had problem how to use terms and technical expressions. These challenges showed that their lexical knowledge was insufficient and it was related to their language competence. Johns and Mayes (1990), Corbeil

(2000), and Keck (2006) have claimed that language competence has a significant impact on L2 writers' textual borrowing practices.

Changing structures as well as wordings was another difficulty that the participants stated. They did not know how to rewrite the text containing complex and compound sentences. Besides, it was demanding to convey the same meaning in different structures for them.

The participants also believed that unfamiliar texts, especially containing different discourse features were too difficult to paraphrase for them because they could not fully understand the idea and meaning of the original. Liao and Tseng (2010), in their study, found the same result; readability of the text and familiarity with forms and wordings in sentences have an impact on paraphrasing performance (p.188). However, in their study, Choy, Lee and Sedhu (2014) found that over half of the students saw contextually familiar texts more difficult to paraphrase. As, they could not determine crucial points to integrate in their paraphrasing.

4.1.7. Effect of L2 Proficiency on Paraphrasing

Another theme that was identified as a result of the analysis of the data is about how L2 proficiency has an impact on paraphrasing performance.

Table 4.7.

Theme for Effect of L2 Proficiency on Paraphrasing

THEME 7: EFFECT OF L2 PROFICIENCY ON PARAPHRASING PERFORMANCES	
CATEGORIES	CODES
Category 1: Poor L2 Proficiency	Too long and complex structures impeding understanding
	Lack of vocabulary impeding performance
Category 2: Strong L2 Proficiency	Good L2 proficiency leading to reach content
	Good L2 proficiency leading to self-confidence
	Structural knowledge of L2 leading to better paraphrase

Considering this theme, two basic categories have been identified: poor L2 proficiency and strong L2 proficiency. The former includes 'poor L2 proficiency' the impact on paraphrasing performance and latter contains how strong L2 proficiency affect on paraphrasing. Taking the first category into account, it can be seen that poor L2 proficiency influenced on both understanding complicated structures and producing paraphrase due to insufficient vocabulary knowledge. One of the participants mentioned that her poor L2 proficiency impeded to comprehend long and complicated sentences. She said:

“As I wrote before, I have difficulty in paraphrasing when I do not have a full comprehension of the text. My L2 proficiency influences on my comprehension. And accordingly, comprehension influences my paraphrasing performance. When the sentences are too long and include complex structures, I have difficulty in understanding what is written.”(Interviewee 1)

Besides the effect on structures, L2 proficiency is related to the lexical knowledge and reading and writing skills. Due to insufficient lexical knowledge and reading and writing ability, performing paraphrase becomes more difficult for novice writers. One of the participants emphasized the level of L2 has a big importance for paraphrase performance and she added:

“L2 proficiency has a big impact on our paraphrasing performance since our capacity of lexicon affects the process of paraphrasing performance. Also perceiving what you have read is prominent. In other words, not only reading skills but also writing skills have a big influence on our paraphrasing phrase.”(Interviewee 5)

Another participant also focused on the effect of inadequate lexical knowledge on her paraphrasing process as well as insufficient structural, academic writing knowledge and the information of discipline. She mentioned:

“Paraphrasing certainly requires a high level of L2 proficiency. A good knowledge of not only vocabulary and grammatical knowledge but also academic writing conventions and field knowledge are required for paraphrasing. In my paraphrasing, however, all these four types of

knowledge have their influences on my paraphrasing performance. Sometimes my inadequate knowledge of vocabulary becomes a problem and I get help from the dictionaries. At other times, when I need extra knowledge of the grammatical rules and academic writing conventions, it becomes necessary for me to look at the books. On many occasions, however, my lack of field knowledge creates difficulty. When I do not understand the original source it is needed to get extra field knowledge. Of these four factors, the most time consuming one seems to be the “vocabulary” for me. I can’t paraphrase without a dictionary of synonyms. I think, it is mainly because of my inadequacy in lexical knowledge. I have a bad memory..”(Interviewee 11)

Another participant stated the importance of background information on paraphrasing performance. She told that being non-native speaker of English influenced L2 proficiency and therefore, L2 proficiency influenced paraphrasing performance. She uttered:

“The background knowledge I have about the academic written culture of English, the rhetorical features of genres in terms of linguistic, mechanic, contextual and structural production facilitates to paraphrase. Still, as I am not native speaker of target language, which negatively effects the fluent control in the use of that language as the native speakers have not only in daily life but also in academic written and spoken context, paraphrasing becomes a demanding task especially when the sophisticated, domain-specific and culture-specific texts are at issue.”(Interviewee 3)

The second category is related to strong L2 proficiency and its effect on paraphrasing. The participants commonly mentioned the correlation between L2 competence and paraphrasing performance. One of the interviewees put his thoughts into these words saying that strong L2 proficiency helps writer preserve the content or original idea:

“There is a positive direct correlation between L2 competence and paraphrasing success. That you are proficient in L2 in terms of lexical, syntactic, semantic, and even pragmatic will end in a better organized

paraphrasing which is rich in content and meaning-conveying.”
(Interviewee 9)

One of the participants did not see to substitution of words for good paraphrasing and he mentioned that replacement of structures was another crucial component and using different structures was related to the L2 proficiency. He emphasized on the relationship between L2 proficiency and paraphrasing performance as the following:

“My paraphrasing is dependent on my L2 proficiency. Paraphrasing is not only changing the words and using their synonyms. It needs to know in what different ways and with which different sentence structures you can give the same meaning. So paraphrasing requires especially good grammar and syntax knowledge. The semantic knowledge is not as important as those, because it is generally easier to find the required word in dictionaries.”(Interviewee 4)

Performing well in the implementation of paraphrasing is the sign of both strong L2 proficiency and self-confidence of writers. One participant said:

“Apart from the creativity or other skills, the most important skills that play the basic role in the process is definitely language skills. Because, it is highly probable that the more you are proficient in second language, the more you will be successful in paraphrasing. It is all about language and the knowledge of morphology, syntax and semantics are crucial to feel confident in paraphrasing and to be successful.” (Interviewee 8)

The effect of L2 proficiency of writers on paraphrasing performance has become the issue for a long time. A line of these studies has emphasized the importance of L2 proficiency for acceptable paraphrase as the other line of them underlined the relationship between second language proficiency and paraphrasing. For example; LoCastro and Masuko (2002) found that one of the reasons why Japanese students plagiarized was their poor language proficiency to paraphrase. Moreover, in their study, Abasi and Akbari (2008) investigated four ESL/EFL students' text production and found that the students used patchwriting as a textual borrowing strategy instead of plagiarism due to their language proficiency as well as different reasons. Liao and Tseng (2010) investigated proficient EFL writers' and less proficient EFL writers'

perceptions and performances of paraphrasing, what extent their performances correspond with their perceptions, their inappropriate textual borrowing and the factors behind them. The findings of the study showed that the graduate students plagiarized less strings of words than the undergraduate students did.

In this study, the results of the interview analysis showed that all the participants saw that their paraphrasing performance was related to their L2 proficiency. Some of them mentioned that they had difficulties in producing good paraphrasing their poor language proficiency. This shows that as L2 proficiency of writers increase, their paraphrasing performance will also be higher. Thus, they can produce more acceptable paraphrases.

4.1.8. Expectations

The last theme is related to the student writers' expectations from instructors to develop their paraphrasing performances.

Table 4.8.

Theme for Expectations

THEME 8: EXPECTATIONS FROM INSTRUCTORS	
CATEGORIES	CODES
Category 1: Macro-Level Explicit Instructions	Explaining clearly students why to paraphrase
	Making students aware of usage of target language and culture specific discourse-based structures frequently used
	Instructing novice writers on academic writing rules/applications/organizations of academic genres
	Giving feedback
	Comparing the examples of good and bad paraphrasing
Category 2: Micro-Level Explicit Instructions	Expectations about development of linguistic competence
	Providing more practice rather than theoretical knowledge

Showing various sentence structures and
helping students implement in their paraphrase

As can be seen in Table 4.8, the analysis of the main theme resulted in two basic expectation categories: macro-level explicit instructions and micro-level explicit instructions. The first category includes such issues as being a good guide, providing a relaxing learning environment and teaching students to paraphrase in a functional way. One of the reasons why novice writers plagiarize or prefer to use direct quotation rather than paraphrase is lack of knowledge why to use paraphrase. Instructors commonly teach students how to paraphrase but they do not explain the reason and the importance to use it. One of the participants was in favor of learning why to paraphrase as well as the necessity of increasing students' linguistic competence. She expressed her expectation from instructors:

“Firstly, linguistic competence should be increased as comprehension of the texts is necessary for a good paraphrase. And comprehension is possible with linguistic competence. Furthermore, it should be provided that the students paraphrase what they understand instead of paraphrasing sentence by sentence. Thirdly, it should be clearly stated why we paraphrase. If we are aware of why and how to paraphrase, we can reduce the difficulties that we encounter while paraphrasing.”
(Interviewee 1)

Cultural factors complicate paraphrasing thus, it has been regarded as a complex cognitive activity. The rules and usages of structures differ from culture to culture. Paraphrasing in the second language is not the same with the first language. Writers find paraphrasing in the second language more complicated and demanding task. One of the interviewees emphasized the necessity of instruction on culture specific discourse and structures to develop novice writers' perception on target language:

“It is essential to increase the awareness of students in the target language uses and culture specific discourse based structures frequently used by that target language community.”(Interviewee 3)

How to paraphrase may change in terms of genre. So, writing teachers are expected to teach writers the implementation or application of paraphrasing. The same

interviewee also emphasized the necessity of instruction on academic writing and academic genre as the following:

“The students must be equipped with the information on academic writing rules and applications, specifically essay writing, and the contextual and domain-specific organization of academic genres.”(Interviewee 3)

Another essential expectation of the participants mentioned was feedback. They wanted to have feedback from their writing instructors. That novice writers make mistakes while paraphrasing was seen ordinary and the participants mentioned that when they were given feedback, they would increase their paraphrasing performance. One of them expressed the need of feedback emphasizing doing more practicing as follows:

“Courses whose contents are related with language skills must pay much more attention that is to say language skills (especially productive language skills: writing and speaking) of the students must be improved. According to a saying “practice makes perfect”, so students must be provided with the opportunities to find atmospheres in which they are able to produce something, get feedback from the instructor and rewrite and so on. In this regard, feedback is the most important point to pay attention. No body born with the skills to paraphrase without any mistake, students must be guided to learn from their mistakes.”(Interviewee 8)

Another participant also conveyed the same issue expressing that if feedback is not given, it will be challenging to learn paraphrasing. She stated:

“By giving the conventions for paraphrasing and telling the basics of a good paraphrasing, the lecturer may provide the necessary help the learner may need. However, without any examples given and feedback provided, ‘paraphrasing’ is difficult to learn. Therefore, the required help for the learning of paraphrasing may be provided by giving many examples for both good and bad paraphrasing, and by giving feedback on the students’ works.”(Interviewee 11)

While teaching paraphrase, using comparable examples in terms of acceptable and unacceptable paraphrase sentences or text may be useful for the novice writers.

Thus, the possibility of doing the same mistakes may decrease. One of the interviewees mentioned his expectation as the following:

“Maybe what is good or bad concerning paraphrasing should be provided through epitomes from the real studies. It will be more effective for the writers to comprehend paraphrasing.”(Interviewee 9)

The desire of using good and bad paraphrasing examples was emphasized by another interviewee as below:

“Students can be given examples of good and bad paraphrasing. This can be more helpful to learn paraphrasing for them.”(Interviewee 10)

The second category basically includes micro-level explicit instructions the participants expected. Almost all of participant emphasized the importance of L2 proficiency on paraphrasing performance. So, they expressed the expectation about L2 proficiency that the instructor would help writers increase it. One of the participants mentioned:

“In order to reduce the difficulties, the first most important thing to do is to improve the L2 proficiency level of students in terms of grammatical, morphological, syntactical and semantical dimensions.”(Interviewee 3)

Besides L2 proficiency, the participants also highlighted linguistic competence for good paraphrasing. They expected from instructions that linguistic competence must be developed. One of the participants saw the comprehension as the key component for paraphrasing; linguistic competence as key element for the comprehension of the original. She mentioned her expectation as the following:

“Firstly, linguistic competence should be increased as comprehension of the texts is necessary for a good paraphrasing.”(Interviewee 1)

Another participant conveyed the same issue and he stressed on improving linguistic competence to produce acceptable paraphrase. He also added the

importance of structural knowledge on paraphrasing as well as comprehension. He said:

“Paraphrasing is a unitary process. It would be hard to paraphrase a sentence if you have deficiency in competence of lexis, grammar, or comprehension. So, behind a good paraphrasing does not lie any secret or magic, but competence of language is too important. Some grammar titles are especially necessary, for example, conjunctions, subordinators must be taught. Therefore, student writers should be taught necessary basic grammar skills.”(Interviewee 9)

The practice is believed to be of particular benefit to novice writers. It requires writers not only to learn how to paraphrase or rewrite an original sentence with a paraphrase, but also to judge paraphrases as appropriate or inappropriate. Therefore, student writers need to be engaged in practice activities. Most of the participants who stated their ideas about their expectations from paraphrase instructions and writing instructors underlined the significance of providing more practice rather than theoretical knowledge of paraphrasing. For example, one of the participants told:

“More practice related to paraphrasing strategy in academic courses rather than making students’ being exposed to theoretical knowledge can be provided.”(Interviewee 5)

Another participant stated her opinion concerning the effects of practice on paraphrasing performance and her desire to practice as the following:

“Good paraphrasing is a matter of ‘learning by doing’, I think. Therefore, ‘practicing’ seems to me the only way to improve our paraphrasing performance.”(Interviewee 11)

While paraphrasing, changing sentence structure is both one of the paraphrase strategies and a significant step to rephrase the original excerpt. However, novice writers commonly meet difficulty in structural changes while implementing paraphrase. Therefore, they expect to learn different sentence structure. But, it is necessary to keep in mind that using some particular may be

insufficient because each sentence may be rephrased in various styles. One of the participants mentioned that he would like his writing instructor to teach frequently-used structures and words. He said:

“In academic writing lessons, different sentence structures can be taught in order to make students learn readymade structures and use them in their paraphrase. Also some studies can be done on vocabulary, and the synonyms of some words which are used frequently should be given to those students. They can choose sentence structures and synonyms from those ready lists.”
(Interviewee 4)

In their comments, all the participants stressed on the importance of paraphrasing instruction to decrease the challenges they experience. More practice and feedback were also highlighted rather than theoretical knowledge. Their comments showed that their paraphrasing knowledge and ability were limited while writing from sources. They all know what paraphrasing is, but there is deficiency in the reason why to paraphrase as well as how to paraphrase. Some L2 researchers addressed to instruct L2 writers on paraphrasing practices and thus they help them produce appropriate paraphrase and avoid plagiarism. John and Mayes (1990) discussed the necessity of providing continued paraphrasing practice at the sentence level (p.265). Corbeil (2000) also recommended that L2 writers practice with both lexical and grammatical changes. However, graduate students who were the participants of this study expressed that they needed to develop their language competency and L2 proficiency to change the structure and wording of source text. The participants believed that providing them with suitable learning environments in which the students can find the opportunity to practice paraphrasing and helping them develop their L2 proficiency, writing instructors should provide them to produce acceptable paraphrased sentences or texts.

4.2. The Results of Text Analysis

4.2.1. Distribution of the Paraphrases across the Taxonomy

Each paraphrase identified in the task that the participants produced was classified into Taxonomy category created by Keck (2006, p.268). While categorizing the sentences, the researcher compared semantic equivalences between paraphrased sentences written by the writers and the original sentences as well as lexical changes and grammatical changes. One new category, Deviated Meaning, was added into the four Paraphrase Type categories. It includes attempted paraphrases in different meaning from the original. It may have unique and general links as the other categories do. Table 10 shows the number of paraphrases categorized under each Paraphrase Type and for each writer.

Table 4.9.

The Number of Identified Paraphrases Across the Paraphrases Types

Paraphrase Types	The Number of Sentence
Near Copy	11
Minimal Revision	7
Moderate Revision	60
Substantial Revision	27
Deviated Meaning *	12
Total	117

Note: ‘Deviated Meaning’ includes the number of paraphrased sentences which could not be classified into Keck’s (2006) the Taxonomy of Paraphrase Types

As seen in Table 4.9, the writers produced a total of 117 attempted paraphrases in their task. The most attempted paraphrase type (60/117) identified within the written texts is Moderate Revision as the less attempted paraphrase type (7/117) is Minimal Revision. The number of the sentences classified into Substantial Revision category (27/117) is more than the total number of Near Copy and Other Types. The identified paraphrases in Near Copy and Other category are roughly evenly distributed across the two paraphrases types.

4.2.2. Linguistic Analysis of the Paraphrase Types and Paraphrase Strategies

The following sections provide the examples of major linguistic strategies that the participants used and also were observed within each paraphrase type.

4.2.2.1. Near Copy

Near Copy, the first paraphrase type, is defined as paraphrase which makes up 50 % or more words within unique links. Long or short strings of words are copied . 11 of the 117 paraphrases were categorized as Near Copies by the researcher.

4.2.2.1.1. Lexical strategies in Near Copies produced by the writers

The paraphrased sentences in Near Copy type shared almost the same lexical features. The writers of the sentences into Near Copy preferred to use long unique words and general words in the original excerpt. Table 4.11 shows the number of unique links and general links into 11 Near Copy sentences that the writers produced.

Table 4.10

The Number of Unique and General Links into Near Copy Type

	The Number of Unique Links	The Number of General Links
Near Copy (n= 11)	48	14

As Table 4.11 shows, 11 Near Copy sentences were composed of 48 unique strings of words and 14 general links. The following example displays this use of large copied unique links. (The unique link is used in bold).

Original

This development has taken a number of different forms and directions, but, together these have reshaped the ways that English language teaching and research are conducted in higher education (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Near Copy

This development has been in various **forms and directions**, which have determined the new form of **English language teaching and research in higher education**.

The following example illustrates use of both unique links and general links copied. The writer paraphrased by combining two consecutive sentences with unique and general links. (The unique link is in bold and the general link is in italic)

Original

This rapid expansion in the number of learners of English for Academic Purposes has led to a similar expansion in the number of EAP teachers. And This means that many-probably most- of the teachers of EAP around the world are not native speakers of English (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Near Copy

As a result of **this rapid** increase in *the number of learners* of EAP, *the number of EAP teachers* have increased, which **means most of** *the EAP* teachers **around the world** are *non-native speakers of English*.

Some of the writers also used the synonyms of some unique links and general links while saving some of them and the sentence structure. The example below shows this of Near Copy. (Unique links are in bold, general links are in italic and synonyms are underlined.)

Original

This development has taken a number of different forms and directions, but, together these have reshaped the ways that English language teaching and research are conducted in higher education (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Near Copy

The *development* of the **leading language**, *English*, for the spread of *academic knowledge* has modified the **educational experiences** of innumerable learners, who are

in *need* of acquiring **fluency** in the traditions of **English language academic discourse** to comprehend **their disciplines** and to **successfully maneuver their learning**.

4.2.2.1.2. Grammatical strategies in Near Copies produced by the writers

In grammatical analysis of the paraphrased text, it was seen that the sentences classified into Near Copy type included substitution, addition and deletion strategies. The writers borrowed at least two consecutive words or phrase from the original text, and changed them with their synonyms, added additional words, or deleted some words from the borrowed sentences. Substitution is most frequently observed strategy.

The following examples demonstrate the strategies of substitution. (Borrowed chunks of words are bolded, substitutions are in italics, additions are in bracket, and deletions are shown with an ↓.)

Original

This development has taken a number of different forms and directions, but together these have reshaped the ways that English language teaching and research are conducted in higher education (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Near Copy

This development has been *in various forms and directions*, which have determined the new *form* of **English language teaching and research in higher education**.

Original

This rapid expansion in the number of learners of English for Academic Purposes has led to a similar expansion in the number of EAP teachers(Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Near Copy

[The increases] **in the number of EAP teachers** *is based on* [the fact that] ↓ *abrupt pervasion* **in the number of learners** [who need to learn] **English for Academic Purposes**.

Deletion: “this”

Substitution : “ rapid expansion”→ “abrupt pervasion”, “has led to” →”is based on”, Addition: “who need to learn”, “the increases”, “the fact that”

Near Copy sentences were also composed of form changes such as transforming the active or passive form of a verb into the original, combining two sentences into one sentence and separating one original excerpt into two sentences. The following examples illustrate these strategies:

Original

But EAP is not only a commercial endeavor: for college and university students in many countries, mastering enough English, and the right English, to succeed in learning their subjects through the medium of English in textbooks, lectures, study groups, and so on, is a matter of great urgency(Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Near Copy

However, EAP **cannot be perceived** as only a commercial enterprise , as it is great urgent for college and university students mastering enough and right English in many countries to achieve their learning goals through the medium of English in textbooks, lectures, study groups and so on.

Active → Passive

Original

This rapid expansion in the number of learners of English for Academic Purposes has led to a similar expansion in the number of EAP teachers. And this means that many—probably most—of the teachers of EAP around the world are not native speakers of English (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Near Copy

As a result of this rapid increase in the number of learners of EAP, the number of EAP teachers have increased, which means that most of the EAP teachers around the world are non-native speakers of English.

Combining two sentences and transforming from simple → complex sentence

Taking all the strategies of Near Copy sentences that the writers produced into consideration, it can be clearly seen that the writers commonly copied strings of words or phrases of the original excerpt. Their paraphrased sentences included a number of unique and general links that they copied directly. They also substituted some words with their synonyms. Some words or phrases were deleted while new ones were added. The structures of sentences were not completely changed even if the writers of Near Copy changed sentence voice; active↔ passive and they transformed simple sentence into complex or compound sentence or vice versa. However, the most crucial reason that made their sentences Near Copy type was the copying the unique and general words or phrases into the original excerpt.

4.2.2.2. Minimal Revision

The second paraphrased type is Minimal Revision that was captured in paraphrases of the writers. It composes of 20-49 % words within unique and the general links of the original excerpt. The researcher categorized only 7 of 117 sentences into Minimal Revision Type. When compared with the other paraphrase types, the number of sentences into Minimal Revision is less.

4.2.2.2.1. Lexical strategies in Minimal Revisions produced by the writers

The paraphrased sentences in Minimal Revision type shared almost the same lexical features with Near Copy but the writers of the sentences into Minimal Revision preferred to use shorter unique words and general words in the original excerpt. Since, they used their elaborative words and phrases and this decreased the number of unique and general links in their texts. Table 4.11 shows the number of unique links and general links into 7 Minimal Revision sentences that the writers produced.

Table 4.11.

The Number of Unique and General Links into Minimal Revision Type

		The Number of Unique Links	The Number of General Links
Minimal (n=7)	Revision	18	14

As Table 4.11 displayed, 7 Minimal Revision sentences were defined in the writers' texts and they included in 18 unique links and 14 general links. The following example shows this use of copied unique and general links. (The unique links are in bold and general links are italics)

Original

Equally, for countries that are trying to lift themselves into economic prominence, or to remain major players on the world economic stage, producing an annual crop of graduates who can function in employment through English is a major issue (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Minimal Revision

At the same time , **for countries**, that have more major *economic* objectives than others, graduating a pre-determined level of *students* the dominating **the employment through** English is a crucial importance.

4.2.2.2.2. Grammatical strategies in Minimal Revision produced by the writers

The writers producing Minimal Revision sentences mostly employed substitution, addition strategies. But, they most frequently used substitution strategy identified in all Minimal Revisions. Of these Minimal Revision substitutions, adjective phrase (ADJP) and noun phrase (NP) substitution were mostly observed. But, they substituted the half of the phrase while changing with their synonyms, and they replaced an original word with another word or phrase that was nearly the same length or shorter. They avoided from copying long strings of words. While substituting, they added conjunctions, noun phrases (NP) and verb phrases (VP).Following examples show the use of adjective and noun phrase substitution and addition.

Original

The growth of English as the leading language for the dissemination of academic knowledge has transformed the educational experiences of countless students, who must

now gain fluency in the conventions of English language academic discourse to understand their disciplines and to successfully navigate their learning (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

Minimal Revision

English has been growing as the [major]^{Substitution:ADJP} language in disseminating academic knowledge. This resulted in shift of educational [backgrounds]^{Substitution:NP} of [innumerable]^{Substitution:ADJP} students who must be fluent in the academic discourse to understand their [fields]^{Substitution:NP} and to guide their language [effectively.]^{Substitution:ADVP}

Original

Programmes designed to prepare nonnative users of English for English-medium academic settings have grown into a multi-million dollar enterprise around the world (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Minimal Revision

Programs that have been created [on the purpose of]^{Addition:NP} preparing nonnative users of English for English-medium academic settings have been a multi-million dollar [endeavour]^{Substitution:NP} [all]^{Addition:ADJP} [over]^{Substitution:PP} the world.

Original

This rapid expansion in the number of learners of English for Academic Purposes has led to a similar expansion in the number of EAP teachers (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Minimal Revision

[Because of]^{Addition:Conjunction} this rapid [expansion]^{Substitution:NP} in the number of [students]^{Substitution:NP} of EAP, the number of EAP teachers have [rised]^{Substitution:VP}

The strategies of the Minimal Revision sentences analyzed in the paraphrase were also form change, as one the most frequent strategies, active-passive sentences, changing a compound sentence to a simple two sentences. But, subjects and objects of the original excerpt were commonly same. That is, subject referred the same thing within both original excerpt and paraphrased clause. While converting sentences from active to passive, the writers of Minimal Revisions did not use the same verb in the original excerpt and they added a new verb to the sentences. In some Minimal Revision sentences, form change was used in combination with substitution and addition strategies. Following examples illustrate these strategies:

Original

The needs of these nonnative teachers are different from those of native speakers, and this recognition has led to new developments in EAP materials and teacher training courses (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Minimal Revision

These nonnative teachers' needs are not [the same with]^{Substitution:ADJP/Antonym} the native speakers'. [Thus]^{Addition:Conjunction}, new [improvements]^{Substitution:ADJP} in EAP materials and teacher training courses [has been observed.]^{Active-Passive}

The following example of Minimal Revision includes form change (clause→phrase) in combination with substitution and addition and active→passive.

Minimal Revision

([Based on]^{Addition} the nonnative teachers' needs)^{Clause-Phrase},[some]^{Addition:ADJP} new [improvements]^{Substitution:ADJP} [have been presented]^{Active-Passive} in EAP materials and teacher training courses.

Taking all the strategies of the Minimal Revision sentences, it can be seen that strategies used were almost the same with those in Near Copy sentences. Unique and general links were commonly copied from the original excerpt but contrasted with Near Copy, shorter links were preferred. But, copying directly unique links and general links became the main reason in classification as Minimal Revision. Substitution and addition were strategies that the writers preferred to use most commonly. In Minimal Revision,

form changes of the sentences were also made. For example; an original excerpt was split into two sentences or were combined two original sentences into one. However, the changes in both words and forms were seen as insufficient to classify them as suitable paraphrase examples.

4.2.2.3. Moderate Revision

Moderate Revision is the third paraphrase type which includes in borrowing 1 or three words unique and general links. A total of 60 paraphrases were classified into Moderate Revision Type. In contrast to the first two paraphrase types, the number of Moderate Revision sentences in the text the writers produced was higher.

4.2.2.3.1. Lexical strategies in Moderate Revision produced by the writers

Within Moderate Revision, the unique links and general links were identified as in the first two paraphrase strategies. But, the sentences in Moderate Revision included in smaller number of unique and general links when the number of Minimal Revision sentences are taken into consideration. Table 12 indicates the number of unique links and general links into 60 Moderate Revision sentences the writers produced and they were commonly individual words or 2-word phrases borrowed from the original sentence.

Table 4.12.

The Number of Unique and General Links into Moderate Revision Type

	The Number of Unique Links	The Number of General Links
Moderate Revision (n= 60)	108	59

As Table 4.12 displays, 60 Moderate Revision sentences were composed of 108 unique strings of words and 59 general links. The following example displays this use of unique links and general links. It is seen clearly that they were commonly individual words or word phrases borrowed from the original sentence. (The unique link is in bold).

Original

The response of the language teaching profession to these demands has been the development over the past 25 years of a new field in the teaching of English as a Second/ Foreign Language in universities and other academic settings: the field of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

Moderate Revision

To meet these needs, the field of language teaching has created a young- ESP field-namely **English for Academic Purposes (EAP)** which now has a history of more than two decades -in many academic institutions including **universities**.

Original

Teachers have also come to acknowledge that teaching those who are using English for their studies differs from teaching those who are learning English for general purposes only (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Moderate Revision

The differences between the ways of teaching English for students with professional **purposes** and the ones with **general purposes** has also been accepted by teachers.

Some of the writers also used the synonyms of some unique links and general links.

4.2.2.3.2. Grammatical strategies in moderate revisions produced by the writers

Substitution, addition and deletion strategies were marked in all of Moderate Revisions included in the grammatical analysis. As in Near Copies and Minimal Revisions, substitution was the most frequently observed strategy in Moderate Revision sentences. Substitution in Moderate Revision composed of noun phrases, verb phrases and adjective phrases replacements. These substitutions appeared in combination with many other addition and deletion strategies, as in the following examples.

Original

Programmes designed to prepare nonnative users of English for English-medium academic settings have grown into a multi-million dollar enterprise around the world (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Moderate Revision

[↓]^{Deletion:NP:Changing the subject}Teaching English, to non-native users, for academic [circles]^{Substitution:NP} with English-medium has [become]^{Substitution:VP} a multi-million dolar [endeavour]^{Substitution:NP} [all]^{Addition:ADJP} [over]^{Substitution:PP} the [globe.]^{Substitution:NP}

Original

This development has taken a number of different forms and directions, but together these have reshaped the ways that English language teaching and research are conducted in higher education (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Moderate Revision

The development of these [new]^{Addition:ADJP} [techniques]^{Addition:NP} [can be seen]^{Substitution:VP} [in]^{Addition:PP} [different]^{Substitution:ADJP} [shapes and focuses]^{Substitution:Np} [which]^{Addition:RP} [rearranged]^{Addition:VP} the English language teaching and research [conduction]^{Substitution:NP} in higher education.

Within the Moderate Revision, structural change was one of the most frequently used strategies and various structural changes were observed. The writers used form changes to alter simple sentence with compound or complex sentence or compound sentence with complex sentence, and to change sentence active form to passive form or vice versa, and to divide one sentence into two sentences or to combine two or more sentences into one in the combination with substitution, deletion and addition strategies as in the examples below:

Original

Teachers have also come to acknowledge that teaching those who are using English for their studies differs from teaching those who are learning English for general purposes only. It is also different from teaching those who are learning for

occupational purposes, which is the field known as ESP, English for Specific Purposes (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

Moderate Revision

Teachers [have been obliged]^{Form Change:Active→Passive} [to admit]^{Addition:VP} that teaching English for Academic Purposes and for a [general]^{Substitution:ADJP} [goal]^{Substitution:NP} are [separate from]^{Substitution:VP} [each other]^{Addition:ADVP} [as well as]^{Addition:Conj} from teaching for [vocational]^{Substitution:ADJP} [missions]^{Substitution:NP}, [identified]^{Substitution:VP} as ESP(English for Specific Purposes).

Original

The growth of English as the leading language for the dissemination of academic knowledge has had a major impact around the world, binding the careers of thousands of scholars to their competence in a foreign language and elevating this competence to a professional imperative (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Moderate Revision

The [need for]^{Substitution:PP} a [pioneer]^{Substitution:ADJP} language [to]^{Substitution:Func:for→to} [expand]^{Substitution:NP→VP} academic knowledge has [made obligatory]^{Addition:VP} [for]^{Addition:Func} the scholars to prove their [proficiency]^{Substitution:NP} in foreign language. [Form change: Phrase →Clause] [Thus]^{Addition:Conj}, [this]^{Substitution:ADJ:the growth of English as the leading language for the dissemination of academic knowledge→this:subject} has [led to]^{Substitution:VP} [influence]^{Substitution:NP} [↓]^{Deletion:ADVP:around the world} on advancing this [proficiency]^{Substitution} to a professional [requisite.]^{Substitution:NP}

Within the Moderate Revision, it was frequently observed that time expression-phrases were commonly used in various types, and occasionally misused and copied directly as in the following example.

Original

The response of the language teaching profession to these demands has been the development **over the past 25 years** of a new field in the teaching of English as a Second/ Foreign Language in universities and other academic settings: the field of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Moderate Revision

Almost the last 25 years have witnessed emerging a new field not only in the teaching English as a Second Language in higher education but also other academic institutions including the discipline of EAP in order to meet these new demands.

Moderate Revision

Taking place in the curriculums of foreign language education departments **for the past quarter**, the recent field of EAP (English for Academic Purposes) has aroused as a reply to these demands.

Original

The appearance of a journal devoted to the issues and directions of EAP seems almost inevitable given the developments in English language teaching **in the last decade** (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Moderate Revision

Taking the developments in English language teaching **for recent years** into consideration, the need of a journal of which content is compiled EAP issues and directions.

Moderate Revision

In the last few years, these new improvements in the field of English language teaching has naturally attracted a journal dealing with issues and directions of EAP.

Moderate Revision

Accordingly, **the last decade** has witnessed the inceptions of a journal related to the issues and issues and directions in EAP.

Taking all the strategies of the Moderate Revision sentences, it can be seen that strategies used were almost the similar with those in Minimal Revision sentences. Less number of unique and general links were copied from the original excerpt than Minimal Revision and the much shorter ones but were preferred. Substitution and addition were strategies that the writers preferred to use most commonly. They especially used

substitution and addition of noun phrases and verb phrases. In Moderate Revision, as the less usage of unique and general links was used, the more form changes of the sentences were made. For example; an original excerpt was split into two sentences or were combined two original sentences into one by transforming complex sentences into compound or simple sentences or vice versa. Clauses were used as phrases or phrases were used as clauses. Subject and object of the original excerpt were displaced while making sentence form passive from active.

4.2.2.4. Substantial Revision

The fourth paraphrase type is Substantial Revision which uses no unique links but may include few general links. A total of 27 paraphrases were classified into Substantial Revision.

4.2.2.4.1. Lexical strategies in Substantial Revision produced by the writers

Substantial Revision sentences contained no unique links from the original excerpt in addition to containing few general links. Table 13 indicates the number of general links into 27 Substantial Revision sentences the writers produced

Table 4.13.

The Number of General Links into Substantial Revision Type

	The Number of Unique Links	The Number of General Links
Substantial Revision (n= 27)	-	38

As indicated in Table 4.13, 27 Substantial Revision sentences were composed of 38 general links. The following example displays this use of general links. Many substantial sentences contained only one or two general links from the original excerpt, as shown below.

Original

The growth of English as the leading language for the dissemination of academic knowledge has transformed the educational experiences of countless students, who must now gain fluency in the conventions of English language academic discourses to understand their disciplines and to successfully navigate their learning (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Substantial Revision

The changing conditions within academia, bringing an emergent necessity for quite a few students to achieve a professional level in the rhetorical and contextual use of English, thus which proliferates academic knowledge on and ultimate competency within the fields, have been the major outcome of English language position as the wide spreading information sharing device.

Original

Equally, for countries that are trying to lift themselves into economic prominence, or to remain major players on the world economic stage, producing an annual crop of graduates who can function in employment through English is a major issue (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Substantial Revision

Also, having the certificated on a yearly basis, who would be to work in English-spoken fields is a crucial matter in the places which strive for financial development or for status stability among the global leaders of economy.

4.2.2.4.2. Grammatical strategies in Substantial Revisions produced by the writers

When contrasted with the first three paraphrase types, few substitution, addition and deletion strategies were used in Substantial Revision sentences. However, short word chunks were combined to form change and clause revision strategies , as the following example.

Original

Teachers have also come to acknowledge that teaching those who are using English for their studies differs from teaching those who are learning English for general purposes only. It is also different from teaching those who are learning for occupational purposes, which is the field known as ESP, English for Specific Purposes (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

Substantial Revision

[Moreover]^{Substitution:Conj}, the difference between [training]^{Substitution:NP} for [the use of field-specific]^{Addition:NP} English and training [just]^{Substitution:ADVP} the general use of English [has begun being recognized]^{Clause Revision:Form Change:Active→Passive} [by]^{Addition:Func} [instructors.]^{Substitution:NP}

Clause creations were also identified as well as form changes in some of Substantial Revisions. The examples below are Substantial Revisions including clause creation.

Original

The appearance of a journal devoted to the issues and directions of EAP seems almost inevitable given the developments in English language teaching in the last decade (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

Substantial Revision

[Taking the advancement in English language education in the past ten years into consideration,]^{Clause Creation} [it is expected]^{Form Change:Active→Passive} to encounter a journal dedicated to the EAP-related issues.

Substantial Revision

[When the improvements made in ELT during the last ten years are considered,]^{Clause Creation} a periodical dedicated to EAP matters and methods appears to be certain.

It was identified that clauses were condensed into phrases and noun clauses into verb clauses in Substantial Revisions that form change was used. In the examples below, these types of form change are shown.

Original

But EAP is not only a commercial endeavor: for college and university students in many countries, mastering enough English, and the right English, to succeed in learning their subjects through the medium of English in textbooks, lectures, study groups, and so on, is a matter of great urgency (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Substantial Revision

[Besides, financial dimension,]^{Clause Revision:Form Change:Clause→Phrase} EAP is of necessity for students all around the world studying for competency and accuracy in English to get content-knowledge of the field by using English materials.

Original

Equally, for countries that are trying to lift themselves into economic prominence, or to remain major players on the world economic stage, producing an annual crop of graduates who can function in employment through English is a major issue (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Substantial Revision

[The concern to hold the financial power or to have such a status globally canalises]^{Clause Revision:NC→VC} some places to increase the number of English-competent employees, as well.

As in both Minimal Revision and Moderate Revision, combining two clauses into one clause was the frequently strategy that the writers used. The example below illustrates this strategy in Substantial Revision.

Original

This development has taken a number of different forms and directions, but together these have reshaped the ways that English language teaching and research are conducted in higher education. Programs designed to prepare nonnative users of English

for English-medium academic settings have grown into a multi-million dollar enterprise around the world (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Substantial Revision

Actually, this emerging field, represented within various structures and roles, has become to core of academic transformation for ELT and related-disciplinary scientific Works such that investments worth millions for the arrangement of contextual language use-based courses at academic level for EFL users have globally increased.

Taking all the strategies used in Substantial Revision into account, it can be clear that the sentences included few number of general links whereas no unique links were used. The writers of Substantial Revisions also used substitution, deletion and addition strategies but they generally preferred to use substitution. In contrast with Minimal Revision and Moderate Revision, the usage of substitution was less in Substantial Revision. Clause revision and thus, form change was made in all Substantial Revision sentences. Some of form change strategies used were same in previous paraphrase types such as condensing phrase into clause or vice versa, making active form passive form and combining or dividing sentences. However, clause creation was first and last used in this paraphrase type.

4.2.2.5. Deviated Meaning

The Paraphrase Taxonomy that Keck (2006) constructed does not include this paraphrase type. It has been added into the Taxonomy as a new paraphrase type or element in the results of the analysis the researcher of this study made. Although it has some similar lexical and grammatical characteristics with Minimal Revision and Substantial Revision, Deviated Meaning differs from them in terms of implementing these strategies. The differences in the implementation of the strategies caused semantic disturbances in the original idea. Sentences were classified in this paraphrase type.

4.2.2.5.1. Lexical and grammatical strategies in Deviated Meaning produced by the writers

Deviated Meaning sentences contained both unique links and general links from the original excerpt. Table 4.14 indicates the number of general links and unique links into 12 Deviated Meaning sentences the writers produced.

Table 4.14.

The Number of Unique links and General Links into Deviated Meaning Type

	The Number of Unique Links	The Number of General Links
Deviated Meaning (n= 12)	16	9

As indicated in Table 4.14, 12 Deviated Meaning sentences were composed of 16 unique links and 9 general links. The number of the sentences classified in Deviated Meaning is higher than in Near Copy and Minimal Revision. When compared with them, Deviated Meaning includes less number of unique links and general links. As in the following example. Unique links are bolded and general links are italics.

Original

Programmes designed to prepare nonnative users of English for English-medium academic settings have grown into a multi-million dollar enterprise around the world (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Deviated Meaning

When compared to the previous **programs** that required a lot of money to be spent on administrating them, *EAP* is better to teach correct and adequate English with **textbooks, lectures, and study groups** designed to facilitate learning.

As within first four paraphrase types, substitution, addition and deletion strategies were also used in Deviated Meaning. The following examples display this usage of unique links and general links but, at the same time meaningful differences between the paraphrased sentence and the original excerpt as well as form changes and substitution, addition strategies.

Original

The appearance of a journal devoted to the issues and directions of EAP seems almost inevitable given the developments in English language teaching in the last decade (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Deviated Meaning

[According to]^{Addition:Conj} [a journal]^{General link} [dedicated to]^{Substitution:VP} the [issue]^{Unique link} and directed by EAP, it has been [nearly]^{Substitution:ADVP} [inextricable]^{Substitution:ADJP} to improve on English language teaching [lately.]^{Substitution:ADVP}

Original

But EAP is not only a commercial endeavor: for college and university students in many countries, mastering enough English, and the right English, to succeed in learning their subjects through the medium of English in textbooks, lectures, study groups, and so on, is a matter of great urgency (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons,2002).

Deviated Meaning

[Though]^{Substitution:Conj}, considering EAP from the aspect of a [commercial]^{Unique Link} [enterprise]^{Substitution:NP} [will not be]^{Clause revision:Form Change:Future Form} [acceptable and meaningful;]^{Addition:ADJP} [particularly]^{Addition:ADVP} [for those who are to have a competence in]^{Addition:Phrase} English such as [university]^{Unique Link} [students]^{General Link} in many [countries,]^{Unique Link} and [for those who need to be]^{Addition:Phrase} mastered in English to be able to produce [content-true materials,]^{Substitution:NP} and [lectures.]^{Unique Link}

The analysis of sentences classified into Deviated Meaning showed that the writers used similar strategies in the first four paraphrase types. They copied some unique links and general links from the original excerpt, they substituted some words with their equivalents, and they occasionally added words and phrases into their paraphrases. They also made structural changes in original sentences. However, in spite of these all various strategies they implemented, their paraphrases were not found successful and appropriate. Because, they did not save the original idea of the source

excerpt while changing words and structures. Even if sentences into Deviated Meaning included in few copied strings of words, their meaning were different from the original. These results indicated that changing structures, revising sentences, and substituting or adding words or phrases were not enough to create suitable paraphrase. Saving the meaning of the original excerpt is crucial in paraphrasing.

Taking all paraphrase types and strategies into consideration, it may be concluded that all ways of paraphrasing in the sentences examined were almost similar. When the writers felt that some words or chunks of words such as *English for Academic Purposes, language teaching, and academic knowledge* were more suitable to copy directly and there was no appropriate equivalents of such these words, they preferred to use them as in the original excerpt. There were lack of confidence in choosing appropriate synonyms. But, they might consider such words as term and they chose to use directly. Thus, their paraphrases included a total of 190 unique links and a total of 134 general links from the original excerpts. In her study, Keck (2006) also found that first three paraphrase types included unique links and general links and the number of these words was an important and first criteria in classifying clauses in Paraphrase Taxonomy. In her study, Campbell (1990) found that copying was an important strategy for students. However, high textual reliance on vocabulary of the source text caused a wide range of patchwriting examples.

Besides copying directly words or chunks of words, substitution strategies were identified within all paraphrase types. All the writers also emphasized in the interviews that they used substitution and they used mostly in their paraphrases. The writers changed words of the original excerpt with their synonyms. Angelil-Carter (2000) found that students relied on only substituting words in their paraphrasing. However, each word substituted might not have the same meaning with the original word and this affected the meaning of the idea. Thereby, replacement of original words is not enough to produce a good paraphrase. Besides, it was found that the writers had difficulties in the substitution of time expressions of the source text and their choices, at times, caused changes in the original meaning even if they could change sentence structure in a correct way.

Deletion and addition were the other strategies mostly used by the writers. They deleted some words or phrases and added new ones. Shi (2004) conducted a study examining textual borrowing of both L1 and L2 undergraduate students and he found that addition and deletion were mostly used strategies that the participants preferred to use while constructing their summary. Sun (2009) also identified deletion and addition as frequently used paraphrasing strategy. Both Shi (2004) and Sun (2009) mentioned that the reason why these strategies were used mostly was that they were more implemented than structural changes. However, such drastic changes commonly resulted in insufficient changes for appropriate paraphrasing.

As well as replacements of words, structural changes were also identified as paraphrasing strategy. The writers condensed phrase into clause or clause into phrase, transformed compound clauses into simple ones, combined two sentences into one sentence or split out one sentence into two or more sentences. More successful structural changes were identified in Substantial Revision type. However, in some sentences, it was noticed that structural changes either caused ambiguity in the original meaning or changed the main idea of the original excerpt. Furthermore, clause creation was also found in both Substantial Revision sentences and Deviated Meaning sentences. Within Substantial Revision, the writers created clauses related to the original excerpts with the aim of attribution. But, some clauses classified in Deviated Meaning type were not related with the original excerpt or with the general meaning in the source text. This showed that mechanical changes in words and forms in the original text were not enough to create suitable paraphrases. Saving the idea of the source text must be the first aim in paraphrasing.

4.2.2.6. Sequence of paraphrased sentences from the source text

The researcher examined the sequence in which writers selected sentences from the original text while she was coding each paraphrase's original excerpt. She found that almost all of writers (10/12) followed the sequence of sentences in the source text exactly when paraphrasing or copying. They preferred to paraphrase sentence by sentence in the original text. Figure 4.1 displays a text that used sequence strategy. In this figure, each selection is numbered, shown its original place in the paragraph and sentence number (e.g., P1;S1-2).

(1)[A number of students, who are expected to possess a certain level of fluency considering the standards of English academic discourses with the aim of comprehending their fields and directing their own education, have been influenced by the spread of English as the lingua franca for conveying academic knowledge.]^{Paraphrase:P1;S1}

(2)[English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has been, for more than two decades, a new domain in teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language at tertiary level and other academic venues and can be considered as the resolution of the field of language teaching to meet the demands of the developments in the field.]^{Paraphrase:P1;S2}

(3)[Regardless of numerous changes in its format and design, this development has had effects on how English is taught and studied in higher education.]^{Paraphrase:P1;S3}

(4) [Teaching English, to non-native users, for academic circles with English-medium has become a multi-million dollar endeavour all over the globe.]^{Paraphrase:P1;S4}

(5)[However, EAP is not just a profit-making enterprise.]^{Paraphrase:P1;S5}

(6) [It has become a crucial necessity for students at tertiary level to learn adequate and appropriate English in order to ensure success in their field of study with the help of such channels as materials, instructions or group-work in which English is used.]^{Paraphrase:P1;S5}

(7) [Likewise, keeping a certain number of university graduates with the ability to use English in different jobs is a matter of concern for countries that are in the effort of gaining economic status or preserving their existing position as major players in the world economy.]^{Paraphrase:P1;S6}

(8)[There has been a considerable increase in the number of EAP teachers as a response to the escalation in the number of EAP students.]^{Paraphrase:P2;S7}

(9) [Therefore, it is natural that a large percentage of EAP teachers are non-native speakers of English.]^{Paraphrase:P2;S8}

(10) [There are variations in the requirements of native and non-native teachers.]^{Paraphrase:P2;S9}

(11)[There have occurred some developments in EAP materials and teacher training courses as a result of the identification of these variations.]^{Paraphrase:P2;S9}

(12) [There has also been a realization that there are differences between teaching English to students making use of the language in their educational studies and to those learning the language just for general purposes.]^{Paraphrase:P2;S10}

(13)[The field of EAP also differs from ESP, English for Specific Purposes, in which students learn the language for work-related objectives.]^{Paraphrase:P2;S11}

(14) [Taking the advancements in English language teaching in the past ten years into consideration, it is expected to encounter a journal dedicated to the EAP-related issues.]^{Paraphrase:P2;S12}

(15) [The extension of English as the lingua franca for the spread of academic knowledge has been influential in the world. Moreover, the careers of many scholars have been based on their foreign language capabilities and turning their ability into a professional usage.]^{Paraphrase:P2;S13}

Figure 4.1. Paraphrased text using the sequence strategy

Figure 4.1 displays a common sequence strategy used in paraphrased texts. The writers began to create their text by paraphrasing first excerpt of the first paragraph and continued to exactly follow the line of sentences until they reached the final sentence of the last paragraph. They paraphrased sentence by sentence and they occasionally

combined two or more clauses into one clause or split out one clause into two clauses. But, they still produced a same length text and sentences in nearly the same number. Only two papers included the less number sentences from the source text because they combined both ideas and clauses and they created shorter texts. However, they followed similar sequence strategy in their paraphrasing.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Overview and Implications

This study was designed to investigate paraphrase approaches, challenges and strategies of graduate students in the Department of English Language Teaching. Writing from sources has crucial importance for student writers because they have to complete their academic study using different sources in their studies. Paraphrasing is one of the significant textual borrowing strategies they can use. However; students have challenges in understanding and implementing how to paraphrase because of complex nature of it. In this regard, to investigate the reasons behind these challenges in terms of language proficiency, language background and type of writing task is necessary to identify specific paraphrase strategies and helps graduates develop themselves as an academic writer. The study is expected to provide an opportunity to find the reasons for the challenges faced by graduate writers and to suggest possible solutions to eliminate these difficulties and to improve existing academic writing instructions. The suggestions are crucial to lessen the problems with the implementation of paraphrasing and to encourage novice writers to avoid unintentional or intentional plagiarism. The main research questions of the study are:

1. Which paraphrase strategy or method do students commonly prefer to use when writing a summary of a source text or a research paper ?
2. Is there a relationship between academic writers' language competence and the paraphrase strategy they choose when writing research paper ?
3. How do language background, language proficiency, writing task type affect good paraphrasing ?
4. Do students' language problems affect paraphrasing achievement?

Based on these research questions, semi-structured interviews with open-ended questions and a text analysis were employed with 12 participants who had experiences

in academic writing such as completing MA thesis, and articles. Almost all of them have experienced the same or similar challenges in producing appropriate paraphrasing. The results were analyzed and discussed taking what the participants mentioned, how they performed paraphrasing, and what the literature says into account.

The results of the study reveal some important points to be discussed and evaluated. One of the main findings is that all participants knew what paraphrase is and what role it plays in academic textual borrowing. All the participants mentioned the importance of using paraphrasing while completing their texts or papers. Changing words, reconstructing the sentences but saving the original meaning are the main concerns while they define paraphrasing. While some of them said that they preferred to use only changing words or only changing structures, some stated that using all paraphrasing strategies simultaneously create appropriate paraphrase, so, it is useful. Transforming longer sentences into shorter sentences and translating the information to the native language have been added as new strategies into literature. The aim of translating sentences or texts was for deeper understanding before paraphrasing the is the first step in paraphrasing.

When compared with the strategies they said they used with the results of text analysis, it was seen that they used limited number of strategies and there were deficiencies or failures in implementing these strategies. They commonly copied words or strings of words while changing some of them. This insufficient change caused them to patchwrite. In addition, strategies that they expressed in interviews were not always clear in the text they produced. This showed that there was a disconnect between their approaches or perceptions and actual appropriateness. Many of them emphasized the necessity of preserving the original idea, but a few sentences with Deviated Meaning were found in paraphrased sentences. This also showed the gap between their theoretical knowledge on paraphrasing and the practice of it.

The findings also showed that although L2 proficiency was higher and they were experienced in academic writing and all of them had explicit academic writing instructions, their lexical knowledge and linguistic competence were the source of challenges they encountered while paraphrasing. The strategies they employed were limited in both interviews and paraphrased texts. Additionally, the nature of the source

text and their familiarity with it were the other reasons for the challenges that they had. Their lack of linguistic competence, the difficult nature of paraphrasing and the text caused the participants to complete their paraphrasing task in a long time, but they displayed poor performance on paraphrasing.

In addition to the challenges the participants experienced, there were also possible reasons that may influence their direct quotation or paraphrasing preference. Changing terms or specific expressions may not be appropriate because the meaning may change and the original idea may not be conveyed. This is based on their insufficient self-confidence on their own paraphrasing performance. Furthermore, since paraphrasing takes much time and has a challenging nature for them and direct quotation is less time-consuming and easier, their preference was commonly using direct quotation.

So far, many studies have showed that as the level of L2 competence increases, paraphrasing performances will be better. There have been found a correlation between language competence and paraphrasing ability. However, this study showed that the writers' paraphrasing performance may change even if they have almost the same level of L2 competence. The almost all participants of this study had similar experiences on academic writing and education level. All of them were graduate students and all knew the purpose of paraphrasing and how to use it. But they displayed different paraphrasing performance.

From the comments of the participants, it was revealed that receiving the necessary and adequate instruction on paraphrasing is of great significant for them. Although they joined writing instructions during different times, their paraphrasing knowledge was limited and their performance was commonly poor. Explicit instruction on paraphrasing and giving feedback for their performance is the essential issue because what they experience with paraphrasing will influence their subsequent career.

There are no paraphrasing instructions available in Turkey. The existing programs appears to have important deficiency because they give theoretical knowledge on paraphrasing, but the lack of practice or inadequate practice is one of the reasons of the participants' poor performances. Though they had knowledge on paraphrasing, they commonly had problems with the implementation of it. They mentioned the necessity

of efficient paraphrasing instruction. The main aim of efficient academic writing instruction should be helping novice writers to cope with the difficulty of plagiarism, and to avoid direct copy. The writers should be provided with the opportunity to learn themselves and feedback should be given as well as more practice.

5.2. Limitations of the Study

This study was based on a qualitative research design. Conducting mixed methods design to reach more data can compensate this limitation. The number of participants was another limitation because the study was conducted in only one setting. So, further studies with more participants and in different settings can be carried out. Only semi-structured interviews and text analysis were employed to collect data in this study. Longitudinal studies can be conducted to collect more data and to reach generalizable results that can be more comprehensive. Additionally, participants had the same level of language proficiency. So, the participants with different language proficiency may be examined.

5.3. Further Research

There are a number of studies examining plagiarism, patchwriting and summary all together or separately. However, it has received relatively little attention when compared the other textual borrowing strategies. There are not any studies conducted to investigate only the nature of paraphrasing. It has been commonly subsumed with summary writing. Therefore, further studies can be employed with the purpose of examining the characteristics of paraphrasing and guiding novice writers to comprehend and appropriately implement it in their writing papers.

As paraphrasing has a demanding task for particularly novice writers, further studies can be conducted concerning the experiences and challenges of novices while paraphrasing. The needs of student writers can be studied.

Studies have commonly focused on either product-oriented process or text-based analysis that are insufficient to explain why students should paraphrase and how they can, what perceptions students have in paraphrasing. The process-oriented studies can be carried out as well as text-based analysis.

Various factors may lead novice writers to produce poor or inappropriate paraphrases. Therefore, considering the instruction period and practices of novices, further studies can be carried out to find out the reasons of these factors.

In order to find out the effect of explicit instruction on paraphrasing and practice and feedback, longitudinal studies can be employed. Additionally, which type of materials may be more useful in paraphrasing instructions can be searched.

As this study is based on qualitative research design, the studies with mixed method research designs can be carried out to have more generalizable and comprehensive results. Finally, instructors and researchers can also investigate what kind of instructions or programs can be practical and profitable for student writers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Demographic Questionnaire

Demographic Questionnaire

Your name:

1) What is your age?

2) What is your gender?

Male

Female

3) What is your current academic standing?

Bachelor's degree

Master's degree

Doctoral degree

Other :

4) Have you declared a major area of study (a thesis or dissertation and a written assignment or articles etc.)?

No

Yes- What is it ?:

5) Have you ever joined in any academic writing course during your education?

No

Yes- How long?:

6) How well did you understand this essay? Check one of the followings.

I understood NONE of the essay.

I understood SOME of the essay, but there was a lot that I did not understand.

I understood MOST of the essay.

I understood ALL of the essay.

7) How many years of English language education have you received?

APPENDIX 2. Interview Questions

In the following section, we would like you to help us by answering the following questions concerning paraphrase. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely.

1. How do you describe paraphrasing as a writing method?
2. What roles/ functions paraphrase do play in your academic writing? What is the purpose of paraphrasing?
3. Which ways (methods or strategies) of paraphrasing you frequently prefer to use ? Why ?
4. What difficulties do you commonly encounter while paraphrasing ?
5. How does your L2 proficiency influence your paraphrasing performance?
6. According to you, what are the differences between good versus bad paraphrasing?
7. In your opinion, what can be done to help reduce the difficulties students face in paraphrasing using their own words?
8. How you decide whether to use direct quotations or paraphrasing?

APPENDIX 3. Keck's (2006) the Taxonomy of Paraphrase Types

Table 1
The Taxonomy of Paraphrase Types

	Linguistic criteria	Examples
		<i>Original Excerpt</i> "Comparable worth," the notion that different jobs can be rated equal and paid equally.
Near Copy	50% or more words contained within unique links	<u>Comparable worth</u> is an idea that different jobs can be rated equal and paid equally .
Minimal Revision	20–49% words contained within unique links	<u>Comparable worth</u> is the idea that different jobs can be rated equal by a set of standards and be paid equally .
Moderate Revision	1–19% words contained within unique links	<u>Comparable worth</u> is the idea that various jobs may be ranked equally and therefore, should be paid equally .
Substantial Revision	No unique links	<i>This article discusses</i> the concept of <u>Comparable worth</u> a concept set on balancing out wages for all workers of the same job level.

Note: unique links are in bold; general links are underscored with dashed lines; reporting phrases are in italics.

APPENDIX 4. Paraphrase Found Form**Participant Task ID:****Lexical Analysis****The number of Unique Links:****The number of General Links:****Structural Changes****Substitution:****Addition:****Deletion:****Form Change:****Active ↔ Passive:****Object ↔ Subject:****Phrase ↔ Clause:****Simple Clause ↔ Compound Clause****Simple Clause ↔ Complex Clause****Complex Clause ↔ Compound Clause****Clause Creation:****Meaning:****Classification of Paraphrased Sentence****Near Copy:****Minimal Revision:****Moderate Revision:****Substantial Revision:****Deviated Meaning:**

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