Multilingual Education

Mădălina Chitez
Claudia Ioana Doroholschi · Otto Kruse
Łukasz Salski · Dumitru Tucan *Editors*

University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation

Springer

Multilingual Education

Volume 29

The book series Multilingual Education publishes top quality monographs and edited volumes containing empirical research on multilingual language acquisition, language contact and the respective roles of languages in contexts where the languages are not cognate and where the scripts are often different, in order to be able to better understand the processes and issues involved and to inform governments and language policy makers. The volumes in this series are aimed primarily at researchers in education, especially multilingual education and other related fields, and those who are involved in the education of (language) teachers. Others who will be interested include key stakeholders and policy makers in the field of language policy and education. The editors welcome proposals and ideas for books that fit the series. For more information on how you can submit a proposal, please contact the publishing editor, Jolanda Voogd. E-mail: jolanda.voogd@springer.com

More information about this series at http://www.springer.com/series/8836

Mădălina Chitez • Claudia Ioana Doroholschi
Otto Kruse • Łukasz Salski • Dumitru Tucan
Editors

University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation

Springer

Editors
Mădălina Chitez
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology,
Department of Modern Languages and Literatures
West University of Timisoara
Timişoara, Timiş, Romania

Claudia Ioana Doroholschi
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology,
Department of Modern Languages and Literatures
West University of Timişoara
Timişoara, Timiş, Romania

Otto Kruse
Department of Applied Linguistics,
Language Competence Centre
ZHAW Zurich University of Applied Sciences
Winterthur, Zurich, Switzerland

Łukasz Salski
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics
University of Łodz
Łódź, Poland

Dumitru Tucan
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology,
Department of Romanian Studies
West University of Timişoara
Timişoara, Timiş, Romania

ISSN 2213-3208 ISSN 2213-3216 (electronic)
Multilingual Education
ISBN 978-3-319-95197-3 ISBN 978-3-319-95198-0 (eBook)
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0

Library of Congress Control Number: 2018953681

This Springer imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Switzerland AG
The registered company address is: Gewerbestrasse 11, 6330 Cham, Switzerland

Foreword

Eastern Europe is home to university traditions that date back, in several countries, more than 250 years. However, the changes over the last 25 years to universities, and to the nations they serve, have been enormous and revolutionary. The revolutions in higher education that accompanied the political ones, combined with the Bologna Process begun almost 20 years ago, have inspired the creation of a region-wide effort to support student and faculty writing—itself a kind of revolution.

I come from the USA, where vernacular writing instruction has been part of the university curriculum for many years, but for most of that history, it was concerned with what John Harbord (Chapter "A European Model for Writing Support") aptly calls "hygiene factors," issues of spelling, grammar, usage, and format (writing centers in the USA were for decades called "writing hospitals"). It is only in the last 40 years that we have been concerned with HOCs (high-order concerns) as well as LOCs (low-order concerns).

We in the USA are only now reaching the point where higher education institutions are looking at what Camelia Moraru and colleagues call in chapter "Academic Writing at Babeş-Bolyai University. A Case Study" the "organizational variables and mechanisms that could lead to the development of specific academic writing programs as part of a comprehensive institutional research strategy," and focus on the relationship between faculty and writing support, where ultimately the battle will be won or lost, as Harbord suggests.

So we in the USA have much to learn from the experience and research of other education systems and other regions, particularly from those where the academic writing efforts are being forged in the crucible of intense institutional and social change, as in Eastern Europe. I was grateful to briefly be part of the COST project Learning to Write Effectively (which produced tools used by several chapters in this volume) and visit universities in Macedonia and Romania.

I was able to see first-hand that the LIDHUM project, which produced much of the work presented in this volume, is a model of not only international collaboration but also intercultural learning. These may be regional or national cultures, institutional cultures, or disciplinary cultures learning from and with each other. More deeply, however, it is what Otto Kruse has elsewhere called "writing cultures."

Writing is central to higher education—and other modern institutions—because it is the tool and medium with which knowledge is not only communicated but also made and remade. Writing, in various practices and traditions, must also be conceived beyond mere models of "writing support," important as these are.

To understand writing cultures, joint research of the kind displayed in this volume is essential—and unfortunately rare—even in or perhaps especially in systems such as mine where research is established. This volume shows the breadth of methodologies necessary for comprehending writing cultures: textual and rhetorical studies of various kinds drawing on the rich traditions of the region (argument, contrastive, corpus, and so on), questionnaires, ethnographic observation case studies of institutional interventions, and so on. These studies investigate a wide range of phenomena: first-language and second-language writing and undergraduate, postgraduate, and faculty writing.

This book is a step toward creating what Harbord calls a European model for writing support, which in the end will weave together many models from different European contexts. Eastern European researchers are now very much part of that fabric.

Iowa State University
Ames, IA, USA

David R. Russell

Contents

Contributors

Mihaela Aluaş Faculty of Physics, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania

Robert Balazsi Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania

Cristina Băniceru Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, West University of Timişoara, Timişoara, Timiş, Romania

Mira Bekar Faculty of Philology, Sts Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia

Cristina Bojan Teacher Training Department and Counseling and Career Development Center, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania

Mădălina Chitez Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, West University of Timişoara, Timişoara, Timiş, Romania

Romana Emilia Cramarenco Faculty of European Studies, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania

Kata Csizér Department of English Applied Linguistics, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary

Olga Dolgikh Moscow Institute of Physics and Technology, Dolgoprudny, Russia

Claudia Ioana Doroholschi Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, West University of Timişoara, Timişoara, Timiş, Romania

Katalin Doró Department of English Language Teacher Education and Applied Linguistics, Institute of English and American Studies, University of Szeged, Szeged, Hungary

John Harbord Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences (FASoS), Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands

Marina Katic Faculty of Technical Sciences, University of Novi Sad, Novi Sad, Serbia

Andrei Kelemen Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania

Otto Kruse Department of Applied Linguistics, Language Competence Centre, ZHAW Zurich University of Applied Sciences, Winterthur, Zurich, Switzerland

Rodica Lung Teacher Training Department and Counseling and Career Development Center, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania

Ola Majchrzak Department of Humanities, University of Humanities and Economics in Łódź, Łódź, Poland

Aleksandra Makowska Department of Translation Studies, Institute of English Studies, University of Lodz, Łódź, Poland

Camelia Moraru Faculty of European Studies, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania

Jacek Mydla Department of Literary and Cultural Theory, Institute of English Cultures and Literatures, University of Silesia in Katowice, Sosnowiec, Poland

Sonia Pavlenko Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania

Francis J. Prescott Faculty of Humanities, Department of English Linguistics, Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church in Hungary, Budapest, Hungary

Jelisaveta Safranj Faculty of Technical Sciences, University of Novi Sad, Novi Sad, Serbia

Łukasz Salski Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, Institute of English Studies, University of Łódź, Łódź, Poland

David Schauffler Department of Literary and Cultural Theory, Institute of English Cultures and Literatures, University of Silesia in Katowice, Sosnowiec, Poland

Christian Schuster Faculty of European Studies, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania

Irina Shchemeleva Department of Foreign Languages, National Research University Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, Russia

Natalia Smirnova Department of Foreign Languages, National Research University Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, Russia

Gyula Tankó Department of English Applied Linguistics, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary

Dumitru Tucan Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Romanian Studies, West University of Timişoara, Timişoara, Timiş, Romania

Tatyana Yakhontova Department of Foreign Languages for Sciences, Ivan Franko National University of L'viv, Lviv, Ukraine

Introduction: Understanding Academic Writing in the Context of Central and Eastern European Higher Education

Claudia Ioana Doroholschi, Dumitru Tucan, Mădălina Chitez, and Otto Kruse

Abstract Academic writing in Central and Eastern Europe remains an under-explored area in both teaching and research. While in many Western countries universities have long acknowledged the importance of writing support and research-based teaching implementations, in Eastern and Central Europe student writing has merely been seen as a personal skill that is acquired in school and improved by practice during university studies. Research in academic writing is therefore needed not only to understand this particularly dynamic and varied region, with its changing institutional landscape, but also to understand how to best facilitate or effect positive change. We wish the present collection of studies to be a first step in that direction.

1 Rationale of the Book

Academic writing in Central and Eastern Europe remains an under-explored area in both teaching and research. It should not be difficult to understand why this has happened: After the end of communism, the transition to Western norms in higher education has been a slow and strenuous process. While in advanced Western societies

C. I. Doroholschi (✉) · M. Chitez
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, West University of Timișoara, Timișoara, Timiș, Romania
e-mail: claudia.doroholschi@e-uvt.ro; madalina.chitez@e-uvt.ro

D. Tucan
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Romanian Studies, West University of Timișoara, Timișoara, Timiș, Romania

O. Kruse
Department of Applied Linguistics, Language Competence Centre, ZHAW Zurich University of Applied Sciences, Winterthur, Zurich, Switzerland
e-mail: otto.kruse@zhaw.ch

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_1

universities have long acknowledged the importance of writing support and research-based teaching implementations, in Eastern and Central Europe student writing has merely been seen as a personal skill that is acquired in school and improved by practice during university studies.

This assumption has also been the starting point for the three-year research project Literacy Development in the Humanities (LIDHUM), wherein a consortium of three Eastern European universities from Romania, Republic of Macedonia, and Ukraine coordinated by the Department of Applied Linguistics of the Zurich University of Applied Sciences in Switzerland, aimed at studying and improving the field of literacy education in these countries (see chapter "Studying and Developing Local Writing Cultures: An Institutional Partnership Project Supporting Transition in Eastern Europe's Higher Education"). This volume is the result of the research synergies emerging from this project. It includes studies carried out in the frame of the LIDHUM project but expands its focus to other countries, collecting studies by researchers from various Central and Eastern European regions contributing to topics similar to those of the project.

With this collection of articles we hope to initiate discussions on academic writing practices in universities across Central and Eastern Europe. Very little has been published so far on this in the region, and even less empirical research has been done in the countries themselves. The book thus contributes to mapping a territory that has yet to be adequately explored and provides general overviews and initial attempts at research in the area of academic writing that document the growing interest as well as the need to focus on the particular problems in national contexts.

Writing, like all academic work, Russell and Foster (2002) argue, "is situated within complex national, regional, and local environments" (p. 6), and in spite of the influences of globalization, many national and regional influences shape the way writing is performed in educational contexts. Using a geographical specification as a focus for this book is thus justified by the fact that the countries in this region share a geopolitical heritage that tied them for a considerable span of time to the ideological and political sphere of the Soviet Union. Though diverse in their respective cultural backgrounds, during the communist period, the systems of higher education in these countries adopted similar organizational and educational modes of operation. Since the reorganization of the eastern world, they have all encountered similar challenges in implementing international models of higher education and university organization.

This volume should be of interest to all academic writing researchers and writing teachers from these countries as well as to those using writing as a means of teaching and learning at the tertiary level. By focusing on academic writing provision in the post-communist countries in Eastern, Central, and Southern Europe, it also addresses a high number of related aspects to which writing is connected, such as multilingualism, the connections of teaching to research, the discursive nature of academic writing, ways of collaborative learning, and the role of genres for the organization of thought and communication.

Additionally, the book presents several recent initiatives and emerging networks providing possible models for academic writing support in universities in the area. The important role of academic writing in English as an innovative agent in the higher education of the post-communist countries is reflected in the sections which focus on writing in English as a foreign language as well as on the impact of English upon national languages. These sections also clarify challenges to which traditional writing cultures are exposed when complex interactions between writing in national languages and writing in a second language are involved.

2 Background: Geography, History, and Higher Education

What is Eastern Europe? What are the countries that can be included in this area? Is this denomination only a geographical one? What are, apart from geography, the perspectives that can connect countries displaying considerably different cultural and institutional backgrounds? Although some of the answers may seem simple at first, a short analysis of the historical meanings associated with "Eastern Europe" could be confusing. This is why we need to clarify briefly the various historical meanings of the phrase and its implicit connection to the countries united under this phrase. We also need to explore the best and most useful perspective on studying academic writing in the context of higher education in the region.

The various definitions of Eastern Europe have changed over time according to specific goals and particular needs for legitimization. In the past couple of centuries, the term has acquired various different types of connotations—historical, geopolitical, cultural, or socioeconomic—which have frequently changed the outline of this entity that is only apparently geographical.

Since the eighteenth century, the idea of Eastern Europe began for Western Europeans to denote the other half of the continent, which was "left behind" by the more civilized and industrialized part of Europe (Armour 2013, p. 2; Frucht 2005, p. IX). This engendered a first connotation of the term, a socio-economic one, which generated ample cultural analyses and historical explanations meant to present the cultural differences between Western Europe and the vast region stretching across the eastern borders of Germany and the western borders of the Russian Empire on one side and the Baltic Sea and the Balkan Peninsula on the other side (see, for instance, Okey 2004, for an analysis of the European history of the last two centuries as a continuous search for modernization, or Berend 2003 and 1986 for an analysis of the socio-economic challenges of Eastern Europe in the nineteenth and twentieth century). In this particular context at the beginning of the twentieth century, it was felt that the term itself needed more subtle clarification, and thus the complementary term "Central Europe" slowly entered social and political discourse, itself used to denote various territories centered in and around present-day Germany and Austria (for example, Partsch 1904; Naumann 1915; see also Schöpflin and Wood 1989). This only partially reduced the negative connotations associated with a great number of the countries in the region (the eastern parts of the Austro-

Hungarian Empire). However, the political and social chaos emerging just before World War II (see Berend 1998) did nothing to improve the West's perception of both Central and Eastern Europe. In fact, this pejorative perception also extended to the concept of Central Europe (Berend 1986).

After the end of World War II, a further geopolitical idea of Eastern Europe (also including Central Europe) came into being: "Communist Europe." The area was constantly caught up in the strategic games of the Cold War and submitted to ideological constraints that succeeded in changing the directions of its economic, social, and institutional development (see, for instance, Judt 2005; Applebaum 2012). After the end of the Cold War, the socio-political perspective on Eastern Europe (again including some of the countries previously associated with the idea of Central Europe) was once again on the agenda during discussions on the potential enlargement of the European Union. At this point, the emphasis had shifted to the need for political and institutional reforms, which were seen as essential for bridging the gap between the two Europes (see Bideleux and Jeffries 1998, especially p. 602–620).

In fact, as noted above, the dominant perspective on Eastern Europe has been related to the socio-economic context, namely to the process of political, social, and institutional modernization. Historically speaking, the countries located in this vast region share a number of features: Their modern organizations are relatively young and they are characterized by an amalgam of cultural influences and by a certain lack of institutional tradition. As a result of the events in the recent history of the region, these countries have experienced a series of metamorphoses of an institutional nature that have prevented the construction of solid institutions and the implementation of organic reforms. If changes did take place, they were often forcibly imposed (see the communization of these countries immediately following World War II) and involved adapting or enforcing an outside model.

For the last 25 years, however, the process of European integration has led these countries along a straight road towards modernization and organic reintegration into the European family. Even though these countries are developing at their own pace, they seem to have a common aim: finding a clear pathway toward institutional modernization. As a discursive sign of this common aim and their new historical destiny, in the last decades "Eastern Europe" has been replaced by the increasingly more popular "Central and Eastern Europe," now used to denote the geographical and cultural area of the so-called "transition countries," i.e., the European countries formerly under Soviet control and now moving from a centrally planned to a market economy (see Berend 2009, Ekiert and Hanson 2003). Many experts concerned with the analysis of educational policies in this region of Europe have also begun to use the latter phrase (for example, Dobbins and Knill 2009). Those who attempt to understand the educational realities of the region seem to have identified the same features: the amalgam of influences and a deficiency in organizational structures, but also a dramatic need for reforms.

Our argument is, therefore, that despite the imperfections, ambiguities, and sometimes pejorative connotations of the phrase "Central and Eastern Europe," and despite the fact that it fails to capture the diversity of the traditions of the various countries in the region, it remains useful as a way of capturing the specificities of a

number of countries that share a range of commonalities in their historical, social, and political backgrounds.

For the practical aim of this book, which is concerned with the practices of academic writing in (Central and) Eastern Europe, acknowledging the shifting geographical borders of the region is less important than acknowledging the imperative need for institutional reform that is common to the countries in the region: Poland, Romania, Ukraine, Macedonia, Hungary, etc. This need has influenced the educational dynamics of the last quarter century and, at the same time, has re-modeled academic writing practices in the region. Research in academic writing is therefore needed not only to understand this particularly dynamic and varied region, with its changing institutional landscape, but also to understand how to best facilitate or effect positive change. We wish the present collection of studies to be a first step in that direction.

3 Higher Education Development in Central and Eastern Europe

In the period after the Fall of Communism, tertiary institutions in Central and Eastern Europe underwent a process of rapid transformation and redefinition, which took place against the backdrop of these countries' individual histories and educational traditions. With a few notable exceptions, university tradition in the region is relatively young, with many of the institutions established in the nineteenth century under the influence of pre-existing models – most notably the Humboldtian model and its Austro-Hungarian version – which were adapted to local needs (see Charle 2004 for a detailed discussion), traditions, and ideologies. Romanian universities, for example, maintained close connections to the French educational system, given the country's Romance heritage (Charle 2004, p. 43). After 1945, the countries in the region underwent a process of radical Sovietization that had dramatic effects on the structure of their tertiary institutions, which were transformed to comply with the requirements of a state-centered planned economy. The Soviet system (rooted in the Napoleonic system and practically incompatible with the Humboldtian background used in most of the region) replaced the local educational systems. As Neave (2011, p. 35–36) shows, the Soviet system was imitated throughout the region to varying extents and differently from one country to another, but it followed a similar philosophy of subordinating universities to the state and to the requirements of the planned economy. This resulted in an emphasis on economy-oriented specializations, changes in the discipline structure of universities (with technical, medical, or agricultural studies often breaking off to form independent "universities"), and a separation between university teaching and research, with the responsibility for research mainly shifting towards specialized academies (Neave 2011, p. 37-39). The old institutions in the region were transformed while new ones quickly became established. In many countries, such as Czechoslovakia, Poland, and Hungary, the

majority of tertiary education institutions were established during this period (Neave 2011, p. 46) and followed the Soviet model.

After the Fall of Communism, following the social, political, and economic transformations in Central and Eastern Europe, higher education institutions also entered a period of redefinition and reform. This once again took different shapes in individual countries but often had very similar purposes: responding to the needs (and constraints) of the newly established market economy, distancing themselves from the Soviet educational model and from state control and (re)gaining their place within Europe. To these post-1990 transformational factors was later added the Bologna Process, which came in as a further vector for change, modernization, and European integration. At present, these transformations are far from being complete and have yielded different models for tertiary institutions in the countries in question. However, they seem to be driving towards convergence along the lines of the Bologna Process and towards the adoption of an American-inspired market-oriented model (see Dobbins and Knill 2009 for a detailed discussion of these transformations in Bulgaria, the Czech Republic, Poland, and Romania).

4 Academic Writing in Central and Eastern Europe

Present-day academic writing practices in higher education in the region need to be understood in the context of these historical, political, and economic evolutions. How much writing is done at university and what genres are used and how they are taught varies from one country to another and is partially a reflection of the heritage of different university traditions (German, French, and Slavic). However, the common post-1945 history of these countries has done much to obliterate these differences, leaving each of the Central and Eastern European countries with many of the same institutional weaknesses in the wake of communism (Harbord 2010). This shared history has also resulted in a number of common features in what academic writing is concerned with, as they result from the few existing reports on academic writing in countries in the region.

Firstly, although there are varying amounts of writing undertaken by students at university, the teaching of writing as such is "relatively new" at the university level (Harbord 2010), as is writing as an academic discipline and as an object of scientific inquiry (e.g., Sofianou-Mullen 2016 on Bulgaria; Yakhontova, Kaluzhna, Fityo, Mazin, and Morenets 2016 on Ukraine). Consequently, there has also been little research on academic writing-related topics (Sofianou-Mullen 2016 on Bulgaria; Borchin and Doroholschi 2016 on Romania). Despite the fact that writing has been used for assessment in many Central and Eastern European countries (e.g., Yakhontova et al. 2016 on Ukraine; Sofianou-Mullen 2016 on Bulgaria; Machrzak and Salski 2016 on Poland; Borchin and Doroholschi 2016 on Romania), the ability to produce written text was generally considered to be a matter of talent and intuitive assimilation of models rather than a skill that can be taught, which means that in most higher education institutions in the region there were no specialized writing

courses, no forms of institutional writing support such as writing centers, and no coherent national or institutional policies for writing support. There was also no explicit writing instruction in traditional university settings (with the exception of foreign language departments). Students were supposed to have acquired writing skills intuitively, ideally before entering university, and the responsibility for helping them develop their writing skills belonged to individual instructors or thesis supervisors (for a discussion of these aspects in different national contexts, see Yahkontova et al. 2016 on Ukraine; Borchin and Doroholschi 2016 on Romania; Sofianou-Mullen 2016 on Bulgaria; Machrzak and Salski 2016 on Poland; Čmejrková, 1996 on the Czech Republic). Some authors (Machrzak and Salski 2016; Borchin and Doroholschi 2016) also mention an emphasis on writing as a product rather than process and the fact that writing as a means of assessment is used to reproduce rather than construct knowledge, with students mainly asked to compile sources with little critical thinking (e.g., Sofianou-Mullen 2016; Machrzak and Salski 2016; Yakhontova et al. 2016; Borchin and Doroholschi 2016; Gonnerko-Frej 2014).

Over the last 25 years, the desire for institutional modernization and the political move towards overcoming the gap existing between East and West, but also the general movement towards globalization in academia, have had an impact on the way in which writing is understood and taught in the region, particularly through the influence of Anglo-Saxon models. These have left Central and Eastern European academia in a "state of flux" (Bardi and Mureșan 2014, p. 121). In what writing is concerned with, this means that the diverse existing traditions are changing rapidly. The English language and publication in English are seen as a means of integration into the international community for academics and students alike. As a result, in many countries, forms of writing support have begun to appear at universities in the shape of writing courses. Many of these are in English as L2, but increasingly courses are being offered in the national languages. There are several writing center initiatives, some of them established soon after 1990 in American-style universities (such as the Center for Academic Writing at the Central European University in Budapest, Hungary, and the Writing Center at the American University in Bulgaria), and more recently further writing center initiatives have begun to appear throughout the region (e.g., in Ukraine, Poland, and Romania), although there is generally little funding available for writing development.

However, there is still a scarcity of research concerning writing and the teaching of writing in Eastern Europe, and there is currently little understanding of how all of these transformational phenomena have affected writing in Eastern European countries, of the individual characteristics of writing in each country within the larger regional context, and of what may be the best means to design writing instruction and institutional policies regarding writing development in the context of the ongoing changes.

One of the attempts at filling that gap is the book that resulted from the COST IS0703 Action entitled "Learning to Write Effectively": *Exploring European Writing Cultures: Country Reports on Genres, Writing Practices and Languages Used in European Higher Education* (2016), edited by Otto Kruse, Mădălina Chitez,

Brittany Rodriguez, and Montserrat Castelló. This book undertakes a study of writing genres at the tertiary level and provides opportunities for comparison among several European countries, including four in Eastern Europe (Bulgaria, Poland, Romania, and Ukraine). It is from this book that many of the above observations on writing in the region have been derived. However, the literature on writing with a specific focus on the region is still particularly sparse despite the fact that there has been an increased awareness of the importance of writing. Writing is organically linked to the developmental processes in higher education institutions in many different ways: It is the main means of disseminating research; it is one of the main ways in which students acquire and learn how to construct disciplinary knowledge during all three study cycles, particularly at the master's and doctoral levels; and in some fields, writing is part of professional training. Some of the changes that have occurred in Eastern European education have had significant effects on writing and have created further needs for writing instruction. For instance, as mentioned above, in many Eastern European countries, the Bologna Process is synonymous not only with finding ways to make university systems compatible, but also with the very processes of modernization, European integration, and transnational cooperation. At the same time, however, the adoption of the Bologna Process has entailed certain specific challenges. One of these has been the reduction of the length of bachelor's degrees and the introduction of compulsory bachelor's theses at the end of the first cycle of study, which has meant that in many countries students now have to produce a large piece of written research during their first degree with less time to learn how to do so. It has also brought the master's and doctoral cycles into focus, further highlighting the importance of thesis writing, of writing as a vehicle for original research, and of creating a need for supporting students in these areas. The increase in student mobility has meant that students now need to cope with different educational environments, often in a language that is not their native tongue, and it also suggests that universities should prepare students for writing across different cultures, different writing traditions, and possibly in different languages. As elsewhere, but probably more intensely in Central and Eastern Europe, where internationalization is often perceived as synonymous with progress, there has been pressure for staff to publish internationally (see, for example, Yakhontova et al. 2016 on Ukraine; Borchin and Doroholschi 2016 and Bardi and Mureșan 2014 on Romania; Čmejrková 1996 on the Czech Republic; Petrić 2014 on Serbia), thus creating a need for writing training as part of staff development.

5 The Contributions of This Book

Through the collection of these individual studies of different universities in various countries in Central, Eastern, and Southeastern Europe, the book will provide an image of current trends, initiatives, and conversations in university writing in the region. There are also several comparative studies or broader overviews that attempt to transcend national boundaries and probe potential connections between

countries. We hope that this volume will not only demonstrate the newly grown educational innovations in the Eastern part of Europe but also connect them with the research agenda of writing and literacy studies.

The book is divided into three main parts; what follows is an overview of the cultural, institutional, and academic contexts of the book and its contributors.

The first part discusses models, directions, and several strategies of developing writing support in Central and Eastern Europe.

In the chapter "A European Model for Writing Support," John Harbord provides a wider framework for the discussion of the specifics of academic writing support in Europe. Analyzing the options available to those teaching academic writing in non-English-speaking countries, the author proposes a European model for writing support that combines existing models in a way that can be adapted to local needs and resources.

In the chapter "Studying and Developing Local Writing Cultures: An Institutional Partnership Project Supporting Transition in Eastern Europe's Higher Education," Otto Kruse, Mădălina Chitez, Mira Bekar, Claudia Doroholschi, and Tatyana Yakhontova describe the experience of the LIDHUM project in which three universities from the East (Macedonia, Romania, and Ukraine) and one from the West (Switzerland) engaged in studying and changing local writing cultures. Creating new writing courses, creating writing center conceptions for their respective universities, and studying local genres and writing practices were among the most important activities of the three-year project.

The chapter "Academic Writing at Babeș-Bolyai University: A Case Study," by Camelia Moraru et al., presents the initiatives that have been developing concepts for academic writing support at Babeș-Bolyai University of Cluj-Napoca over the last few years as part of a comprehensive institutional research strategy.

In the chapter "Institutional Writing Support in Romania: Setting Up a Writing Center at the West University of Timișoara," Claudia Doroholschi examines current types of writing support in Romanian higher education with the aim of emphasizing not only the institutional difficulties that emerge when establishing writing centers in Romanian universities, but also some of the organizational difficulties. The chapter argues that existing (Western) writing centers can function as models which must be adapted to local institutional conditions.

The second part of the book compiles four empirical studies on academic writing done in the native languages of Russia, Poland, and Romania.

Irina Shchemeleva and Natalia Smirnova's study in the chapter "Academic Writing Within a Russian University Setting: Challenges and Perspectives," which is based on a survey research, reports the results of the current role of academic writing in L1 and L2 in Russia, reflecting at the same time a number of developmental needs that the authors consider relevant for the non-English-speaking European academic context.

In the chapter "Reader Versus Writer Responsibility Revisited: A Polish-Russian Contrastive Approach," Lukasz Salski and Olga Dolgikh start from Hind's distinction between reader- and writer-responsible languages and then describe the textual elements of reader and writer responsibility. The authors also advance a tool for

investigating these features and report the results of a research project in which they put this tool into practice.

In the chapter "Perceptions About "Good Writing" and "Writing Competences" in Romanian Academic Writing Practices: A Questionnaire Study", Cristina Băniceru and Dumitru Tucan investigate the perceptions of "good academic writing" in the Romanian educational context in order to emphasize some of the problems emerging from writing practice in Romania (for instance, the lack of explicit instruction when writing is used as a teaching strategy and the lack of connection between the writing and the research process).

In the chapter "Research Article as a Means of Communicating Science: Polish and Global Conventions," Aleksandra Makowska analyzes a corpus of 401 technical research articles written in Polish and English in order to investigate whether the articles follow the formal IMRAD text pattern and the CARS (Swales 1990) model. The study shows that following patterns relies on the nationality of the authors and the language they use, and thus the local writing tradition is an important variable in shaping academic writing products.

The third part focuses on research case studies in academic writing in the region, mainly in English as a foreign language.

In the chapter "Corpus Linguistics Meets Academic Writing: Examples of Applications in the Romanian EFL Context," Mădălina Chitez explores the advantages of corpus-based exercises in teaching academic writing, extracting the relevance of the proposed applications from three types of theoretical approaches: contrastive linguistics, academic phraseology, and move analysis.

Gyula Tankó and Kata Csizér report in the chapter "Individual Differences and Micro-argumentative Writing Skills in EFL: An Exploratory Study at a Hungarian University," on a mixed methods study concerning the written argumentation produced by top EFL students at a Hungarian university. The study aims to identify the weaknesses that need to be addressed in academic writing courses in order to improve the quality of students' writing.

In the chapter "In at the Deep End: The Struggles of First-Year Hungarian University Students Adapting to the Requirements of Written Academic Discourse in an EFL Context," Francis J. Prescott builds on an ethnographic study of 20 first-year bachelor's degree students in English at a large Hungarian state university in order to construct a grounded theory that aims at explaining how new students become familiar with written academic skills in an EFL context.

In the chapter "Assertion and Assertiveness in the Academic Writing of Polish EFL Speakers," Jacek Mydla and David Schauffler study the linguistic devices (i.e., pronouns, verbs, and adverbs) used by Polish students in English to express fact, opinion, or assertion in academic writing. The authors' conclusion is that there are two conflicting influences on students' writing that misrepresent the role of the authorial voice in English academic writing: that of their native language and that of their training in academic writing.

Relying on her experience as an academic writing tutor, Katalin Doró, in the chapter "Extended Patchwriting in EFL Academic Writing of Hungarian Students: Signs and Possible Reasons," investigates instances of patchwriting as

a student strategy used to avoid plagiarism. Her analysis offers not only a functional taxonomy of patchwriting, but also some practical propositions that can be considered in order to improve the academic writing skills of EFL students.

Ola Majchrzak and Łukasz Salski's contribution, the chapter "Peer Review and Journal Writing in the Eyes of First-Year Students of English Studies: A Writing Course at the University of Łódź," builds on a questionnaire study conducted with 91 students of English studies enrolled in the first-year writing course at the Institute of English, University of Łódź, Poland. The questionnaire, which was designed to explore three aspects of the course, the forms of feedback on written work, peer review, and journal writing, is seen as an important tool to measure whether the objectives of the course have been met.

Marina Katic and Jelisaveta Safranj, in the chapter "An Analysis of Dissertation Abstracts Written by Non-native English Speakers at a Serbian University: Differences and Similarities Across Disciplines," make an analysis of a corpus of abstracts across various disciplines from the Digital Library of the University of Novi Sad. By examining the length, the types, the frequency and the position of moves applied in the selected abstracts, the authors present a variation of strategies connected with the specifics of the disciplines and at the same time a number of influences of Serbian cultural conventions.

References

Applebaum, A. (2012). *Iron curtain: The crushing of Eastern Europe (1944–1956)*. London: Allen Lane.

Armour, I. D. (2013). *A history of Eastern Europe: 1740–1918. Empires, nations and modernisation*. London/New York: Bloomsbury Academic Press.

Bardi, M., & Muresan, L. M. (2014). Changing academic writing practices in Romania: Perceptions and attitudes. In K. Bennett (Ed.), *The semiperiphery of academic writing: Discourses, communities and practices* (pp. 121–147). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Berend, I. T. (1986). *The crisis zone of Europe. An interpretation of East-Central Europe history in the first half of the twentieth century*. Cambridge/London/New York/New Rochelle/Melbourne/Sidney: Cambridge University Press.

Berend, I. T. (1998). *Decades of crisis: Central and Eastern Europe before World War II*. Berkeley/Los Angeles/London: University of California Press

Berend, I. T. (2003). History derailed. In *Central and Eastern Europe in the long nineteenth century*. Berkeley/Los Angeles/London: University of California Press.

Berend, I. T. (2009). *From the Soviet bloc to the European Union. The economic and social transformation of Central and Eastern Europe since 1973*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bideleux, R., & Jeffries, I. (1998). *A history of Eastern Europe. Crisis and change*. London/New York: Routledge.

Borchin, M., & Doroholschi, C. (2016). Romania. In O. Kruse, M. Chitez, B. Rodriguez, & M. Castelló (Eds.), *Exploring European writing cultures: Country reports on genres, writing practices and languages used in European higher education* (pp. 179–200). Winterthur: ZHAW, Hochschul-online-Publikationen ZHAW. Available at: https://doi.org/10.21256/zhaw-1056.

Charle, C. (2004). Patterns. In W. Rüegg (Ed.), *A history of the University in Europe, Vol. III: Universities in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries* (pp. 35–80). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Čmejrková, S. (1996). Academic writing in Czech and English. In E. Ventola & A. Mauranen (Eds.), *Academic writing: Intercultural and textual issues* (pp. 137–152). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Dobbins, M., & Knill, C. (2009). Higher education policies in Central and Eastern Europe. Convergence toward a common model? in Governance. *An International Journal of Policy. Administration, and Institutions*, 22(3, July 2009), 397–430.

Ekiert, G., & Hanson, S. E. (2003). *Capitalism and democracy in Central and Eastern Europe. Assesing the legacy of communist rule*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Frucht, R. (2005). *Eastern Europe. An introduction to the people, lands, and culture*. Santa Barbara/Denver/Oxford: ABC Clio.

Gonerko-Frej, A. (2014). Teaching academic writing for the global world in Poland: The ELF perspective. In K. Bennett (Ed.), *The semiperiphery of academic writing: Discourses, communities and practices* (pp. 75–90). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Harbord, J. (2010). *Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Stakeholders and directions in initiating change*. Across the disciplines, 7. Retrieved from http://wac.colostate.edu/atd/articles/harbord2010.cfm [15 July 2014].

Judt, T. (2005). *Postwar. A history of Europe since 1945*. New York: Penguin Press.

Kruse, O., Chitez, M., Rodriguez, B., & Castelló, M. (Eds.). (2016). *Exploring European writing cultures: Country reports on genres, writing practices and languages used in European higher education*. Winterthur: ZHAW, Hochschul-online-Publikationen ZHAW. https://doi.org/10.21256/zhaw-1056.

Machrzak, O., & Salski, Ł. (2016). Poland. In O. Kruse, M. Chitez, B. Rodriguez, & M. Castelló (Eds.), *Exploring European writing cultures: Country reports on genres, writing practices and languages used in European higher education* (pp. 149–162). Winterthur: ZHAW, Hochschul-online-Publikationen ZHAW Available at: https://doi.org/10.21256/zhaw-1056.

Naumann, F. (1915). *Mitteleuropa*. Berlin: Reimer.

Neave, G. (2011). Patterns. In W. Rüegg (Ed.), *A history of the University in Europe, Vol. IV: Universities since 1945* (pp. 31-65). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Okey, R. (2004). *Eastern Europe: 1740–1985. Feudalism to communism*. London/New York: Routledge.

Partsch, J. (1904). *Mitteleuropa. Die Länder und Völker von den Westalpen und dem Balkan bis an den Kanal und das Kurische Haff*. Gotha: Justhus Perthes.

Petrić, B. (2014). English-medium journals in Serbia: Editors' perspectives. In K. Bennett (Ed.), *The semiperiphery of academic writing: Discourses, communities and practices* (pp. 189–209). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Russell, D., & Foster, D. (2002). Rearticulating articulation. In D. Foster & D. Russell (Eds.), *Writing and learning in cross-national perspective. Transitions from secondary to higher education* (pp. 1–48). New York: Lawrence Erlbaum/ NCTE.

Schöpflin, G., & Wood, N. (Eds.). (1989). *In search of Central Europe*. Totowa: Barnes and Noble.

Sofianou-Mullen, F. (2016). Bulgaria. In O. Kruse, M. Chitez, B. Rodriguez, & M. Castelló (Eds.), *Exploring European writing cultures: Country reports on genres, writing practices and languages used in European higher education* (pp. 36–52). Winterthur: ZHAW, Hochschul-online-Publikationen ZHAW. Available at: https://doi.org/10.21256/zhaw-1056.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis. English in academic and research settings.*Cambridge: CUP

Yakhontova, T., Kaluzhna, H., Fityo, T., Mazin, D., & Morenets, V. (2016). Ukraine. In O. Kruse, M. Chitez, B. Rodriguez, & M. Castelló (Eds.), *Exploring European writing cultures: Country reports on genres, writing practices and languages used in European higher education* (pp. 263–280). Winterthur: ZHAW, Hochschul-online-Publikationen ZHAW. Available at: https://doi.org/10.21256/zhaw-1056.

Part I
Academic Writing Provision in Central and Eastern Europe: Models, Directions, and Strategies

A European Model for Writing Support

John Harbord

Abstract The recent growth of writing initiatives in Central and Eastern Europe has created a situation where the natural solution is to look to countries where models for teaching writing are well established, most notably the US, but also to a lesser extent the UK. While the US provides highly developed models for teaching and supporting writing in English as a first language at the undergraduate level and in the context of a liberal arts model of higher education, the UK offers models for teaching writing in English as a second language at the graduate level so as to integrate them into the British education system. Neither of these models considers what it might be like to teach writing in a first language other than English or in English in a non-English-speaking country. In this sense, transferring models across new contexts involves a degree of risk for mismatch. In this chapter, I deconstruct the options available to those teaching writing in Romania and consider how institutions can combine elements in new ways in order to create a European model of writing support.

Keywords Academic writing · Teaching writing · Writing model · Writing support · Writing course

1 Introduction

In the first few years of this century, writing initiatives in East Central Europe (ECE) were still rare, and those that did exist were largely tied to American universities (such as Central European University) or English departments (such as at the Universities of Szeged and Vilnius; Harbord 2010). Happily, this is now changing for the better, for reasons that are beyond the scope of this chapter, and increasingly the idea that good academic writing is not inextricably connected to the English language is beginning to take hold. It is true, however, that historically the vast bulk

J. Harbord (✉)
Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences (FASoS), Maastricht University, Maastricht, The Netherlands
e-mail: jr.harbord@maastrichtuniversity.nl

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_2

of the experience and scholarship of teaching, tutoring, and supporting student writing has occurred in the English language environment of the US, where writing or composition has been recognized as a learnable and to an extent teachable subject for over 100 years (Russell 1991). Added to this, though much more recently, there has been a considerable body of experience and scholarship of teaching second-language writing in the context of English for academic purposes in the UK, a scholarship that has in many ways been more aggressively and perhaps successfully exported to ECE through the work of the British Council. The English-speaking world thus dominates both scholarship and practice in the field of writing, and it inevitably influences other cultures.

The promotion of English for academic purposes as a tool to serve British cultural and economic hegemony has been extensively criticized, notably by Phillipson (1992, 2001). The imposition of US models of writing teaching and tutoring has received somewhat less criticism, partly because it has not occurred as systematically. It does occur ad hoc, however, in that many scholars from ECE countries, particularly those in the field of English literature, undertake studies or educational exchanges in the US and return home with the ambition of reinventing at home the writing support models they have seen there. This is a laudable ambition, yet it is not without risks: Unless one is teaching in a fully American university in Europe, such as the American University in Bulgaria, the structures, needs, options, and expectations of various stakeholders in, say, a Croatian or a Polish state university are likely to be fundamentally different from those in any US institution or, come to that, any British institution. Yet neither would potential teachers of writing in ECE wish to reinvent the wheel, nor would it be advisable to do so. The task, then, and the objective of this chapter, is to reflect on what can be borrowed or adapted and how and to make the necessary adaptations and innovations in a controlled way, so that if things go wrong we have an inkling amongst a limited number of variables what exactly may have led to the failure.

Does this mean, as the title suggests, that there will be such a thing as a European model of writing support? Or will there be a Hungarian model, a Latvian model, a Dutch model, and so on? Or will there only be, say, a University of Olomouc 2018 model, with every local and chronological context requiring individual tailoring and no possible common rules? To tend towards the first would be powerful, because it would provide broad guidelines applicable across multiple contexts. It would also risk prescriptive solutions that to an extent might be as inappropriate as a US or UK model. To tend towards the last, however, would require great expertise, with every group of local teachers inventing their own model for their own institution, and would produce models that were transferable to other contexts only after labor-intensive adaptation. To steer between these two hazards, in this chapter I outline a number of factors that need to be taken into account and conclude with both cautious prescriptions and recipes for deciding how to fine-tune the "European" model. Inevitably, as relatively little has been published (the present volume being a worthy exception) on writing in ECE and much of what has been published in Western Europe has been constrained by national languages and to an extent national situations (e.g., Kruse 2000), I rely less on previous literature and more on 20 years of

experience in the field as a consultant, writing center director, and writing-across-the-curriculum advisor/trainer in a range of different countries and institutions. In this regard, this chapter is not an empirical study, but rather a vision that subsequent scholarship might fill out and confirm.

First, I outline the US and UK models and show why they are a poor fit for European writing needs. Following this, I unpack the power relations between teaching faculty and writing support and identify the concerns that will need to be addressed in order to achieve an effective working relationship. Finally I summarize the factors that need to be taken into account in constructing a European model and offer some broad suggestions.

2 Expository and EAP Models of Teaching Writing

Modern writing teaching has its roots in the expository writing program at Harvard in 1869, which originated out of concerns that students were unable to express themselves lucidly in their own language (Russell 1991). Indeed, with the exception of a small branch of scholars working on English L2 writing (e.g., Leki and Carson 1994; Bruce and Rafoth 2004), the vast bulk of composition classes, writing centers and more recently Writing Across the Curriculum (WAC) and Writing in the Disciplines (WiD) programs in the US have been driven by the needs of first language writing. Kitzhaber (1963), for example, throughout his extensive landmark work, whenever referring to "English" composition refers to "American students" who clearly speak English as their mother tongue. This does make for a slightly different ball game: While native speakers do make grammatical and lexical mistakes, and indeed there has been something of a cottage industry in the US developing errors such as run-on sentences to prove to students that their grammar is far from perfect (e.g., Chapel-Hill 2014), it is probably safe to say that the greater the likelihood of a first-language student not mastering the language, the greater the likelihood that student will not be able to present complex, sophisticated thoughts. With second language students, this is not true at all. All of us have read papers where a brilliant mind is clearly held back by the simple inadequacy of vocabulary and grammar. This reality is significant in shaping instructional models, as we will see later.

As a result of its focus on first language writers, then, it is not surprising that the US writing model developed in the twentieth century in directions that emphasized process (see Matsuda 2003, pp. 67–69, for a fuller discussion). While grammar errors also benefit from a process approach, it is first and foremost weaknesses of thinking and planning that are improved by process—the very weaknesses of muddled thinking that precipitated the professorial outrage towards first-language writers that led to the Harvard expository writing program and its successors.

It is important, at the same time not to lose sight of the educational context within which writing developed as a subject in the US, namely the liberal education model (Association of American Colleges and Universities 2016), which seeks to produce

a rounded, educated citizen rather than a subject specialist. It is an inherent part of the abilities of educated citizens to be able to express themselves cogently and lucidly, thus composition as an undergraduate subject fits liberal education extremely well and has its own sub-agenda: The educated citizen should be able to think and write a critical and lucid argument. Liberal education is an admirable concept and has been successful enough to spawn replicas not only in American private colleges in Europe, but also in branches of state universities such as Maastricht and Freiburg. It is not the default model of education, however, either in Western or in Eastern Europe. And because American models of writing are linked so closely to a model of education that is fundamentally different from the European one, their import is likely to be problematic unless they are adapted.

What then of the UK model of writing teaching? At least the UK, like the rest of Europe, has a specialized discipline-specific approach to higher education. Yet until about 10 or 15 years ago, the UK was distinguished by its almost total absence of dedicated first-language writing support. One of the first formal writing centers, at Coventry University, dating back to 2004, was founded and is at time of writing still run by an American (Coventry University 2016). This is not to say that writing has not been supported. The bulk of this burden traditionally fell to the tutor—a member of teaching staff who has a close relationship with the undergraduate student. While the traditional Oxbridge model entailed one-on-one meetings between tutor and tutee, many "poorer" universities have held tutorials in groups of three or four. This is still rather more personal attention than the average student in a state university in Slovakia or Serbia is likely to receive. Importantly, however, writing, where it was addressed, was addressed by subject specialists, not writing specialists.

What changed things in the UK was the enormous growth in the international education market from the early 1980s on (Rinne and Koivula 2008, p. 185). Because from 1980, international students becoming vastly more lucrative than home students and not requiring the same state subsidies made the development of a huge English for Academic Purposes (EAP) market both possible and desirable. The objective of EAP was to take the student who was not ready for UK higher education and close the gap. First of all, the gap was to be measured using some kind of language proficiency testing (from the 1980s often ELTS, later IELTS), then a schedule was mapped out for how many months of EAP the student would need (in the UK, where quality control was possible and money could be made) to reach the finishing point.

Importantly, writing was not seen as a life skill, a skill that needed to be developed in every language, whereby a student's writing abilities in their first language might be transferred into their second language. Rather, it was seen as an EFL skill—a part of the English language to be acquired. Indeed scholars of contrastive rhetoric such as Connor (1996) and Enkvist (1997) saw it as advantageous to emphasize the differences between language rather than the similarities. Thus much of the early teaching material for EAP writing did not assume that students would be able to transfer any skills from their first language.

It is not surprising then that books such as Jordan's *Academic Writing Course* (1980) adopted a fundamentally product approach to writing—that is, they focused

on the language nuts and bolts—the phrases that would be handy in composing academic sentences. This same approach designed for non-native students can be seen in Swales and Feak's more recent genre-driven *Academic Writing for Graduate Students* (2004). Although the genre approach is much more sophisticated and research-based than the product approach was, at the end of the day it is geared towards the writer who lacks the "language" not one who lacks ideas. Much of the EAP model that has become common within English departments in ECE countries, where its objectives are quite similar to those in the UK, has to be cast into question then when looking at solutions for first-language writing in Romanian or Macedonian.

3 Taking a Step Back: What Do Professors Care About and Why Does It Matter?

If, as I have argued, we want to turn away for a moment from the US and UK models to look for a European model, the first step might be to go back to the fundamental questions. Students are writing for university teachers (known in the US as faculty or professors, in the UK as lecturers; I use the terms interchangeably here), so any model of writing support needs to start by considering what these people want and what makes good writing for them.

Before progressing, it is perhaps worth saying a few words about the term *writing support* itself. I use the term here in the broadest sense to refer to any initiatives that support and thus seem to improve student writing at university. These might include teaching groups, tutoring individuals, advising faculty, co-teaching with faculty, or any mixture of these. The word *support* indicates that the supporter is encouraging and willing students to be successful (as in football), consolidating and preventing collapse (as in architecture), and, perhaps most importantly, equipping them with the means to achieve another goal. That is, we do not teach students to write for us, we teach them to write for others, whether faculty, employers, the academic community, or a wider audience. There are composition courses, especially in the US, where students write for composition teachers, who award a grade (see Kitzhaber 1963; for a critique of this see also Nelms and Dively 2007 and Downs and Wardle 2007). I am reluctant to call this writing support because teachers are supporting the students to pass their own classes; if this is support, so is every university class. For this reason, in looking at a European model of support, I am looking primarily at those options and considerations related to helping students to write better for others: in the first place, faculty. Writing teachers support, while faculty (or subject teachers) grade: in this sense, their grade is a measure of our support, though there are probably too many intervening variables for us to accurately measure the causality.

A common problem in many countries in the region is that faculty often set very little writing (see Harbord 2010), and courses are assessed either by multiple-choice tests or by oral interviews. In this regard, for a university or department that sees no value in students writing to learn (whether through more familiar graded writing

assignments or through ungraded, unevaluated, or peer-evaluated writing), it is hard to see a motivation to set up writing support. Yet at the same time it is risky for those interested in promoting writing to take the ball and run with it. If this happens, there is a risk that writing will not be seen as part of the real business of learning because it is divorced from the subject the student is graduating in—an important difference from the US liberal arts system.

What can be said is that by and large, across the region, when writing is set, it is viewed and graded ad hoc and holistically, and grading tools such as rubrics are not yet widespread (Harbord 2010). This means that any engagement with faculty as to what they want is bound to be hedged around with subjectivity and issues of taste. While engaged in a consultancy in an economics department at one university in Central Europe, I spoke to some lecturers who argued strongly that in economics, effective persuasive writing is key, while another equally senior professor bemoaned the focus on persuasive writing, which he saw as an attempt to cover up for poor models and inadequate data. In almost every university, some faculty see the use of many sources as virtuous while others stress the writer's own voice as paramount, some expect a claim as to contribution at the MA level while others see such claims as pretentious, and so on. Virtually the only thing most faculty will agree on is that they, not their colleagues or some outside authority, should decide what writing they set, if any.

We might expect lecturers to be most concerned about higher-order issues—about ideas—and indeed many are, but some also seem to pay considerable attention to lower-order concerns. Many professors in the economics department mentioned above seemed to expend an extraordinary amount of emotional energy on lower-order concerns, which had in part precipitated a consultant to evaluate whether the institution's equivalent of a writing center was really "doing its job." Indeed, when students are referred to writing centers, we are probably much more likely to expect the professor to have told them to "go and get this paper tidied up" or "go and work on your prepositions" than "go and get your research design sorted out." While students have regularly been sent to me by professors who wanted grammar rules learned or a paper polished, in 17 years I have yet to have a student referred to me because they needed help relating case to theory. What happens with surprising regularity, however, is that students arrive expecting to discuss grammar issues, only to prove unable to articulate the case-theory relationship of their paper.

Two things, I think, are going on here. One is that, if we view professors' work from a rational choice perspective, many will prefer to minimize rather than maximize their labor input. Not only do they have lives and families, they may also have research commitments, without which they may not keep their jobs. In many countries east of Vienna, they will also be badly paid, are likely to have more than one job, and teach large groups. One university teacher I worked with in Prishtina taught 40 h of classes a week as the sole breadwinner for her extended family; another from Kazakhstan taught groups totaling 360 students per week. Grading writing is time-consuming, especially if you have 360 students, and gets in the way of other

activities that offer better returns. Professors are thus extrinsically motivated to grade quickly, yet not to grade highly: No material benefits accrue to them if the student's paper is better written. Many thus see a personal benefit to having a text divested of the clutter that hinders evaluation, because they can read and grade faster. However, they derive little personal benefit from a student writing a better paper or being assisted in writing a better paper unless they are intrinsically motivated by the pleasure of seeing good work, as some indeed are. Even then, the genius paper that is cluttered with language errors (especially the non-native speaker discussed above) still rankles: "can I give this brilliant and original paper a top grade when it is full of article mistakes from start to finish?" Who will rid me, to paraphrase King Henry II, of this troublesome language?

The second, and perhaps more important, concern for those seeking to set up writing support is the marking out of territory. Case-theory relationships and research design are the territory of the professor in the discipline; they may well see themselves on dangerous ground delegating such concerns to a writing center, because to do so might imply that they cannot do their job. The interrelationship between case and theory, though it may seem a little unusual and specific, is highly relevant here because it is a paramount example of a higher-order concern. This is not to suggest that all writing instructors can or should always leap to address such problems. But if we see that a student has writing problems in this area, we have the expertise to address it; if we see that the professor is not doing so, we see no other pressing concerns in the student's writing, and we know of no pedagogical reason why the professor would wish the student to remain ignorant in this issue, why would we withhold needed support? The same can be argued for any other higher-order concern.

Addressing lower-order concerns, in contrast, is not something most academic staff are incapable of, given a reasonable command of English (which, indeed, the majority have, though their pedagogical tools may be limited); rather, it is something beneath them, and the lower on the scale from higher- to lower-order concerns, the more beneath them it is. In two universities of my experience, academic staff with excellent English, some of them native speakers, referred students to the writing center for lower-order issues because they saw it as their (the academics') job to focus on the big issues such as research design and use of theory. This desire to stake out territory is one of the biggest potential obstacles in negotiating effective writing support. The idea of the "grammar garage" (Carino 2002), a term frequently used by writing center directors to disparagingly refer to the role they do not want to have, is driven by a power relationship. This is especially acute in the case of peer-staffed writing centers, but it is true across the board. Writing tutors cannot be seen as the colleagues and peers of professors: Lines must be drawn between lower-status concerns and higher-status concerns that reflect the lines between lower-status and higher-status people, and those lines must be clear, because when they are crossed, status and expertise become muddied and unclear, and power and privilege are threatened.

4 Teaching and Correcting

This reflection on the power relationship between faculty and writing centers brings us to a closely related, possibly inseparable factor we need to consider in looking at how we build models of writing support: the relationship between teaching and correcting. Again, writing center directors are frequently at pains to emphasize the *educational* role they would like their centers to have (see North 1984; Brooks 1991). It is much more empowering for a tutor, and indeed a director, to feel that students are coming away from the center having learned something: that "they won't make that mistake again." And one likely feels more empowered as a tutor thinking students will not write an essay without a thesis statement again than that they will not misuse the perfect tense again.

But is this the view that faculty have? If they see students coming to the center to have their paper tidied up, then it certainly is not. In such a scenario, the role of writing support is to deal with what Herzberg et al. (1959) call hygiene factors: It will remove the things that are detrimental to an "otherwise good" paper, but it will not by its best application insert anything that will make a poor paper better. Indeed, it has been noted by some writing instructors that faculty and administrators may be wary of students coming to a writing center for fear that they may get "inappropriate help" such that the work they submit in the end is not their own (see Clark and Healy 1996). It is not entirely clear where the line for such inappropriate help might be drawn, but there seems to be a consensus that the scenario Brooks (1991) describes in his famous article on minimalist tutoring, where the tutor knows a bit about the subject, gives the student some good ideas, makes some concrete suggestions for improvement, and sees them carried out, is a step too far. The paper has been improved but the student is no better able to write the next paper. Correction and improvement have taken place but not learning.

Yet where do we draw the line? I once worked with a student writing a thesis about microfinance projects in Kyrgyzstan. She was unenthusiastic about the project and could not see a way forward. At one point she began talking about how many of these projects allow women to set up small businesses, empowering them and enabling them to escape from a role as housewives. Her voice came to life and she was suddenly engaged. I said "you really care about this, don't you? Why don't you shift the focus of your research to microfinance as a project to empower women entrepreneurs?" She did. I guided her and gave her feedback on draft chapters. She submitted the thesis and received a good grade. That sounds somewhat like Brooks' worst case scenario. But what if it had been her supervisor who had given her that advice? Then it all takes on a different hue: Supervisors are allowed to be directive—indeed they are often very directive, and such directiveness is highly valued (Shamoon and Burns 1995, p. 138; see also Harbord 2003). Again we are back to a difference in status: Supervisors are allowed to correct higher-order concerns and to influence the student's writing markedly, and it is not unfair help; writing centers are often expected to correct lower-order concerns only. If writing programs and centers tread too far into the territory of the professor, they are in danger: Either they are

correcting, in which case if they go beyond micro-concerns and are giving unfair help, or they are teaching, in which case they are not qualified and are presuming to do what the professor should be doing.

This teaching/correcting dichotomy is thus another one we need to consider when developing models. Writing models in the US tend very strongly toward teaching as a goal and have achieved some success in persuading faculty that this is their best role. In many European countries, this battle is yet to be fought.

5 The Impact of Different Formats of Writing Support

Finally, in considering a European model we need to think about the different formats support can take. We can:

Work with students individually (writing centers)
Work with students in regular classes (composition, EAP, or WiD courses)
Work with students in one-off thematic workshops
Work with lecturers individually or in groups to help them set and respond to writing more effectively (WAC advising)
Co-teach with faculty, where the writing specialist does a short focus on a written task (writing fellows)

Each of these has different costs (in terms of both financing and expertise required) and different impacts (both on student writing and on the perceived status of writing support within the institution). I try to illustrate these in Fig. 1. It is important to understand that Fig. 1 is not based on empirical data, it is rather an attempt to visualize the complex interrelation of different factors. Research is not needed to show that individual support is more expensive than teaching classes or that a person who can professionally advise and train faculty requires more expertise than a peer tutor. Of course, empirical research into the budgets of universities that use these approaches and the measuring of the impact of the respective support models would considerably advance our knowledge in the field, but this remains beyond the scope of this chapter.

As four-dimensional charts are not common in the field of writing, a brief explanation is in order. On the *x*- and *y*-axes, we can see the impact of writing mapped against status impact in the institution. By placing general writing courses at (2,2) I suggest they might have greater impact both on the status of writing support and on student writing than EAP courses (1,1). Not only do they specifically address writing rather than language (thus helping students), they are seen to be relevant to and directly address writing concerns. The face validity of writing support is thus raised. Writing-in-the-disciplines (WiD) courses, I would argue, are yet more effective (3,4) in that they address students' specific disciplinary needs (very relevant in the European context) much more precisely and are seen by faculty to be more relevant.

But here the second pair of dimensions comes into play. The dot for WiD courses is both larger (costs more) and darker (requires more expertise). It will be more

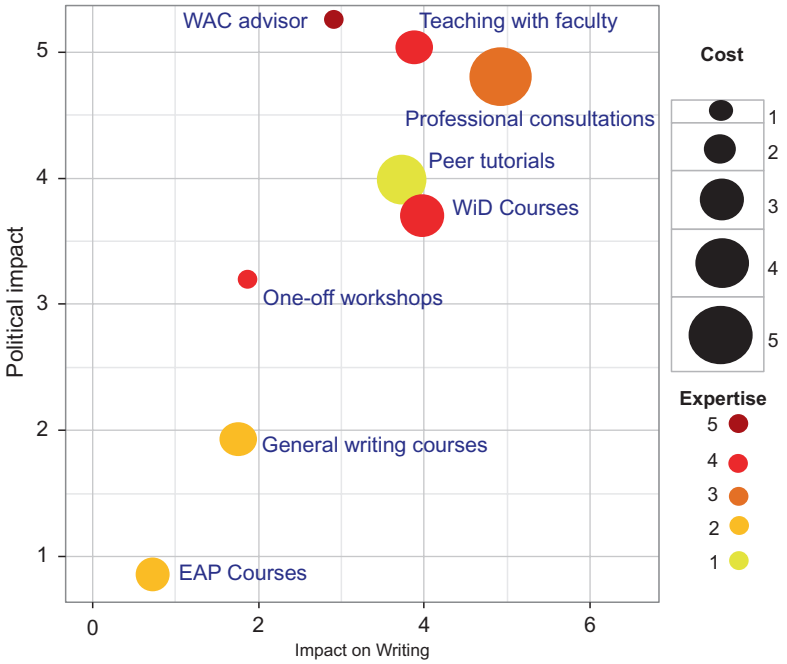

Fig. 1 Comparison of different support options and their impact on writing, status, and budget

difficult for cash-strapped institutions in Central and Eastern Europe to find the funds and adequately trained teachers for WiD courses than it will be for EAP courses, given the market surplus of English teachers. A professional consultation support service is highly effective (5,5) and may actually require less training than WiD teachers, but the high cost of one-on-one contact with students will put it beyond the reach of all but the richest universities. Finally, the most political impact comes from employing a WAC advisor who will work with lecturers to train them how to use, set, scaffold, and respond to writing effectively. Because these are very highly trained people, perhaps with a western PhD, they will be fully respected by lecturers and treated as a peer, maybe even looked up to by junior faculty, especially if well paid. The overall cost, actually, is not enormously high, as only one person is employed. However, the impact is not as great as say a writing center, because one person even with the multiplier effect of working with faculty can probably not reach so many students.

The exact placing of the different dots on four axes is open to debate. Proponents of EAP courses may argue that their provision has a greater impact on student writing, moving their dot to the right, or that EAP teaching requires greater expertise, darkening the color of the dot. All this is open to debate. What I have suggested here is not that the graph is accurate in all details, but that it is a useful way of visualizing the four interlinked factors that influence writing support.

6 A European Niche for Writing Support

Returning to the question of how to structure a model for European writing support, we see that the multiplicity of different impact factors makes it very hard to identify an optimal model. The shortage of funding is likely to mean that expensive models that involve a lot of individualized support will be beyond the reach of most institutions. Taught courses, though their impact is less, will be more affordable. But here, the more relevant the content and the more expert the teachers, the better the writing support will be viewed by the stakeholders it needs to impress: faculty, deans, and rectors. Unfortunately, in many institutions, there is a tendency towards what one might call bottom-end courses. Teachers and courses take up a lot of student time in the classroom, but the level of expertise is often low. There has long been a tradition in the former communist countries—one that has not disappeared—of core courses in the discipline being supplemented with more general courses in things "good for a person to know": something at first glance like the liberal arts model of education. Under communism these might have included "home defense" and "hygiene" while now they might include "national language and culture." In one institution in Azerbaijan not long ago I encountered a mandatory course for all first years that entailed learning to recognize the different national folk costumes of the country. Such courses are usually dismissed by students, and sometimes faculty, as a waste of time. If writing ends up being seen as one of these, it is pretty much doomed to ineffectiveness.

A few years ago, I argued that there was an opportunity for extensively retrained English teachers to become teachers of writing in their first language (Harbord 2010). I think now, eight years on, this window is rapidly closing: The ideal person in the long run to offer writing courses in the discipline is someone who is in the discipline or at least has a foot in the discipline. As mentioned above, students of political science or sociology are not likely to take seriously a course taught by a specialist in classical literature who does not understand what a dependent variable is.

What is assumed too often, however, is that by simply being in the discipline, a junior staff member can offer writing courses, because presumably if you are a sociologist you must know how to write sociology and thus you must know how to teach others how to write sociology. What often happens is that a junior member of the department is saddled with this low prestige job that no one else wants but that all pretend is simple and devoid of any required expertise. She or he then serves their time and moves on to better things,[1] and the job is handed down to the next unsuspecting junior. Low-status and low-specialist knowledge about writing contribute to make this a "hate class"—the teacher hates teaching it and the students hate to be there. This is not a recipe for success.

After many years, the US has finally reached a point where there are PhDs in rhetoric that are practical and related to the teaching of writing. Europe is a long

[1] In the words of one assistant professor I knew, "only one more year of legal writing and I'm out of here!"

way off from this yet. Nor is it a simple solution to pack people off to do PhDs in the States. Quite aside from the cost, as discussed earlier, there is no guarantee that a US qualification will train one well for a European context. And not just (though especially) in the US is it questionable whether a terminal degree is needed for any other reasons than to earn the respect of the faculty one works with. Statistics show there are already way too many PhDs in the world (Else 2015); while jobs need to be created for PhD graduates, the reverse is less obviously true.

What the European writing specialist needs then is a reasonable level of education, perhaps a specialist master's qualification (though none currently exists, to my knowledge) or, failing that, a higher degree in one of the relevant disciplines, so as to be able to talk to faculty on a level playing field and have the personnel skills, flexibility, and a good ability to match means to needs—on a shoestring, most of the time. To circumvent the invidious power relation that tends to relegate writing support to a menial lower-order correcting role while preserving higher-order and teaching roles for faculty requires expertise, tact, and helpfulness. One of the most valuable questions a writing specialist engaging with faculty can ask is "How can I help you?" And when you talk to those who set and grade writing, do not ask them what is wrong with student writing; do not ask them for their pet gripes. Asking faculty to be negative generates nitpicking, usually about micro concerns such as grammar and inadequate citation style; it takes us back to Herzberg's hygiene factors. Ask them what good writing is for them, what gives them pleasure in a student assignment. Very few, I suspect, will hold forth on the pleasure it gives them to see a comma in the right place or a correctly-used preposition.

By talking about good writing together, you are setting a common and collaborative agenda: You are agreeing together on the kind of writing you both want to see and that you will both help your students towards, whether through a writing center, writing courses, student workshops, co-teaching, or WAC advising. What writing specialists have to offer in this partnership, which faculty frequently do not, is the time and the patience to work with features of writing such as coherence, clarity, logic, organization and with drafts in process that are unclear, incomplete, and messy; to use the messy instances of misunderstanding and ineffective expression as a springboard to learning; and above all to take pleasure in such time-consuming work, to see it as their main goal, and to see its achievement as a cause for professional satisfaction. Who would not want such an ally?

7 Conclusion

Two clear messages, then, come out of the above analysis for European writing support. First, for the time being, it will need to be low budget, yet at the same time it must not be low status. Models need to be selected on a shoestring that will have political impact, and political impact will require expertise. Expertise does not always have to be obtained from a degree course in the US or the UK, however; it can be gained through professional and scholarly networks such as the European

Association for the Teaching of Academic Writing and others, through EU or Swiss-funded collaboration projects; to an extent, it can even be acquired through Google Scholar if one has a little guidance. Those small dots in the top half of Fig. 1 may be the place to start: WAC advising, co-teaching with faculty and one-off writing workshops, well publicized. While instituting a general basic writing course may look like a success because it generates a lot of class time, it may not have a particularly positive impact on faculty perceptions of writing, and thus in the long term it may not succeed, especially if it is sidelined as a "mandatory extra."

The second message is that although many faculty will likely lobby for and encourage writing initiatives as a low-status, lower-order correctional activity that will ease their workload, this support is a false friend. Effective writing support has to be promoted and negotiated for as a higher-order, educational activity that will benefit students first and foremost, yet faculty intrinsically, because those students graduate with better abilities, which faculty do wish to see. Yet while professors' extrinsic needs, their pet hates, are not helpful to the development of writing support, it has to be as relevant to their intrinsic needs, to their desire to see good work, as possible. It has to build on the idea of a joint goal of helping students to achieve the sort of work that will earn them a deserved "A" grade. Essential to the concept of writing support is that it will support those who set and respond to university writing, and if they do not see that it does this, they will assume it is none of their business. If that happens, sooner or later it will fail. If writing initiatives are developed specifically to support faculty by helping their students to become better writers (North 1984), only then will they have a realistic chance of success.

References

Association of American Colleges & Universities. (2016). *What is a 21st century liberal education?* Retrieved from Association of American Colleges & Universities website: https://aacu.org/leap/what-is-a-liberal-education

Brooks, J. (1991). Minimalist tutoring: Making the student do all the work. *Writing Lab Newsletter, 15*(6), 1–4.

Bruce, S., & Rafoth, B. A. (Eds.). (2004). *ESL writers: A guide for writing center tutors*. Portsmouth: Boynton/Cook Pub.

Carino, P. (2002). Reading our own words: Rhetorical analysis and the institutional discourse of writing centers. In *Writing center research: extending the conversation* (pp. 91–110). New York: Routledge.

Chapel Hill, Writing Center. (2014). *Fragments and run-ons.* Retrieved from Chapel Hill Writing Center website: http://writingcenter.unc.edu/handouts/fragments-and-run-ons/

Clark, I. L., & Healy, D. (1996). Are writing centers ethical? *WPA: Writing Program Administration, 20*(1/2), 32–48.

Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Coventry University. (2016). *Centre for academic writing*. Retrieved from Coventry University Centre for Academic Writing website: http://www.coventry.ac.uk/study-at-coventry/student-support/academic-support/centre-for-academic-writing/

Downs, D., & Wardle, E. (2007). Teaching about writing, righting misconceptions: (Re) envisioning "first-year composition" as "Introduction to Writing Studies". *College Composition and Communication, 58*(4), 552–584.

Else, H. (2015). Too many PhDs, not enough tenured positions. *Times Higher Education*. May 28, 2015. Retrieved from: https://www.timeshighereducation.com/content/too-many-phds-not-enough-tenured-positions

Enkvist, N. E. (1997). Why we need contrastive rhetoric. *Alternation, 4*(1), 188–206.

Harbord, J. (2003). Minimalist tutoring–an exportable model? *The Writing Lab Newsletter, 28*(4), 1–5.

Harbord, J. (2010). Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Stakeholders and directions in initiating change. *Across the Disciplines, 7*.

Herzberg, F., Mausner, B., & Snyderman, B. (1959). *The motivation to work* (2nd ed.). New York: Wiley.

Jordan, R. R. (1980). *English for academic purposes: A guide and resource book for teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kitzhaber, A. R. (1963). *Themes, theories, and therapy: The teaching of writing in college*. New York: McGraw Hill.

Kruse, O. (2000). *Keine Angst vor dem leeren Blatt: ohne Schreibblockaden durchs Studium* (vol. 16). Campus Verlag.

Leki, I., & Carson, J. G. (1994). Students' perceptions of EAP writing instruction and writing needs across the disciplines. *TESOL Quarterly, 28*(1), 81–101.

Matsuda, P. K. (2003). Process and post-process: A discursive history. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*(1), 65–83.

Nelms, G., & Dively, R. L. (2007). Perceived roadblocks to transferring knowledge from first-year composition to writing-intensive major courses: A pilot study. *WPA: Writing Program Administration, 31*(1–2), 214–240.

North, S. M. (1984). The idea of a writing center. *College English, 46*(5), 433–446.

Phillipson, R. (1992). *Linguistic imperialism*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Phillipson, R. (2001). English for globalisation or for the world's people? *International Review of Education, 47*(3–4), 185–200.

Rinne, R., & Koivula, J. (2008). The dilemmas of the changing university. In M. Shattock (Ed.), *Entrepreneurialism in Universities and the Knowledge Economy: Diversification and Organizational Change* (pp. 183–199). Maidenhead: McGraw-Hill Education.

Russell, D. R. (1991). *Writing in the academic disciplines, 1870–1990: A curricular history*. Order Dept., Southern Illinois University Press, PO Box 3697, Carbondale, IL 62902-3697.

Shamoon, L. K., & Burns, D. H. (1995). A critique of pure tutoring. *The Writing Center Journal, 15*(2), 134–151.

Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2004). *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills* (Vol. 1). Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Studying and Developing Local Writing Cultures: An Institutional Partnership Project Supporting Transition in Eastern Europe's Higher Education

Otto Kruse, Mădălina Chitez, Mira Bekar, Claudia Ioana Doroholschi, and Tatyana Yakhontova

Abstract This chapter reports on the LIDHUM institutional partnership project between a Swiss university and three Eastern and Southeastern European partner universities. The aim of the project was to improve our understanding of the role of writing at the respective universities and introduce new ways of teaching and learning writing. This was accomplished by such activities as developing new writing courses, creating writing center conceptions, initiating writing research, networking within the local universities, presenting joint research, and publishing research papers. Beyond the project-related activities, the program involved all participants in a personal learning experience in which intercultural learning was of equal importance to the training units offered and joint research activities. This chapter discusses what the process of transition means and what it takes to set out on a personal, intercultural, and organizational transformation process.

O. Kruse (✉)
Department of Applied Linguistics, Language Competence Centre, ZHAW Zurich University of Applied Sciences, Winterthur, Zurich, Switzerland
e-mail: otto.kruse@zhaw.ch

M. Chitez · C. I. Doroholschi
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, West University of Timișoara, Timișoara, Timiș, Romania
e-mail: madalina.chitez@e-uvt.ro; claudia.doroholschi@e-uvt.ro

M. Bekar
Faculty of Philology, Sts Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje, Republic of Macedonia

T. Yakhontova
Department of Foreign Languages for Sciences, Ivan Franko National University of L'viv, Lviv, Ukraine

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_3

Keywords Intercultural learning · Writing research · Writing center · Academic writing · Writing course

1 Introduction

Writing at Eastern and Southeastern European universities is probably as omnipresent an activity as it is in all institutions of higher education around the world. It is not a topic that has received much attention in the past, similarly to Western European countries, which, however, started to pay attention to student writing one or two decades earlier. Compared to more urgent issues such as adapting study programs to international standards, introducing cutting-edge research technologies, and building new organizational structures, writing pedagogy ranked at a low level of importance for educational reforms.

When the Literacy Development in the Humanities (LIDHUM) project set out in 2011 as a Scientific Cooperation Between Eastern Europe and Switzerland (SCOPES) partnership project between three Eastern/Southeastern European and one Swiss institution, few signs of a deliberate teaching of academic writing were visible, with the exception of some American-type universities and a few English departments (see Harbord, chapter "A European Model for Writing Support"). Even though the introduction of new educational measures by the Bologna Declaration (which many of the Eastern European countries adopted) had begun to change student writing by such measures as obligatory theses at all educational levels and the introduction of graduate courses or doctoral programs, there were no institutional discussions about the importance of the development of writing skills. It seemed that instructors and institutions as a whole did not yet recognize the need to explore issues such as providing writing support (for example, through writing centers), or considering the link between writing competences, learning, and critical thinking. Academic writing was still invisible, receiving almost no attention in the curricula of university studies.

The LIDHUM project was based on a thorough analysis of academic writing as a matter of high concern not only for teaching but for all academic transactions, including research, knowledge communications, and organization. Additionally, the pressures of internationalization forced the universities (both in the East and the West) to join international discourses and enter conversations across national borders. Getting acquainted with new publication norms, acquiring new genre conventions, and understanding the rhetoric of English as the new lingua franca became necessary. For this, the role of literacy in university development had to be reconsidered, and, along with the teaching of writing, such issues as multilingualism along with publication and communication skills became matters of importance for all university members, not only students.

Participants of the LIDHUM project were

- the Faculty of Letters, History, and Theology at the West University of Timișoara, Romania
- the Faculty of Foreign Languages at the Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, Ukraine
- the Doctoral School at the National University of the Kyiv Mohyla Academy (which later had to withdraw from the project)
- the Institute of Macedonian Literature and the English Department at the Faculty of Philology of the Ss Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje, Macedonia) and
- the Language Competence Center in the Department of Applied Sciences at the Zürich University of Applied Sciences, Switzerland.

The funding source required the Swiss institution to be the coordinator of the project.

2 Background of the LIDHUM Project

The origin of this project was the SCOPES funding scheme of the Swiss National Science Foundation and the Swiss Agency for Development and Cooperation, aimed at supporting research partnerships with universities from Eastern European countries. The funding was explicitly devoted to supporting the transformational processes in higher education by developmental or research projects. According to the call for proposals, it served three purposes:

- Supporting transition: Projects have to be relevant for the modernization and transformation of higher education.
- Capacity building: Individual and institutional research capacities should be developed.
- Partnership approach: Projects should be built on jointly established objectives and shared responsibility as well as on accountability, transparency, non-discrimination, participation, and efficiency.

All of the partners mentioned above had a record of writing research or experience in the teaching of writing in the past, so were therefore invited to participate. The jointly written project proposal described the status quo in each of the participating institutions and defined developmental goals for each of them. Overall goals were defined as follows: (1) Building a shared knowledge base in writing and literacy development; (2) assessing and analyzing the situation in the four member universities regarding their writing practices, genres, and developmental needs; (3) introducing didactic means such as writing courses, writing-intensive seminars,

tutorial systems, or writing centers that will individually be designed for each university; (4) including faculty members and university leaders in writing/teaching development to secure institutional support; (5) evaluating and documenting all processes to preserve them for future use; and (6) including and integrating young researchers to secure sustainable development. In order to be flexible, the proposal left open what kind of a literacy development unit this would be for each university.

3 Languages and Language Policy

One of the factors that needs to be considered in an international project is the language in which communication within the project will take place. A project across cultures in Europe has to rely on English as a communication language, even though this also bears some risks. As Pennycook (2013) states, "English and English language teaching seems ubiquitous in the world, playing a role everywhere from large-scale global politics to the intricacies of people's lives" (p. 4). As a lingua franca, English enables effective communication across different linguistic cultures but also works like a filter, transporting only information that can be expressed in English and withholding any information for which English does not provide adequate terms or expressions. English is likely to promote concepts that are developed in one of the English-speaking countries and tends to transfer their respective teaching philosophies (Canagarajah 2002; Donahue 2009). Although European views as expressed in educational politics such as the Bologna Process have proper translations into all the members' languages, the reverse, from national languages into English terminology and idioms, is not guaranteed. One of the project's aims was to apply a methodology sensitive to the linguistic subtleties needed by the participating cultures of this multilingual continent, with its roughly 50 major languages and as many national educational systems (see, for instance, Foster and Russell 2002; Björk et al. 2003; Deane and O'Neill 2011; Castelló and Donahue 2012; Chitez and Kruse 2012; Kruse 2013).

According to Harbord (2010), most writing initiatives in Eastern and Central Europe are situated either at American-style English-medium universities or within the English departments such as the Lviv English Writing Center (Yakhontova 2011). Progress in teaching often goes along with English language instruction. Only a few initiatives have developed as spin-offs from these institutions in which writing is taught in the national languages. It was a main aim of the project to promote a bilingual or multilingual teaching approach (for an overview, see Veronesi and Nickening 2009) to writing as opposed to approaches preferring English-medium instruction only at the expense of national languages. We argue that universities today are multilingual institutions in which English has its firm place next to the national languages. We suggest that the teaching of writing has to be done in national languages and English alike in order to avoid both threats: the exclusion from international discourses and the restriction of discourses to the realm of minor

language communities. Therefore, when developing their literacy development strategies, the partner institutions considered how they could develop writing provision and initiate research in both L2 (English) and L1 (national languages).

4 The Situation of Research Institutions in Eastern Europe

Writing at the university is deeply rooted in the overall strategies for academic communities' research, teaching, and communication (see also chapters "Introduction: Understanding Academic Writing in the Context of Central and Eastern European Higher Education" and "A European Model for Writing Support"). In any research university, writing is not a detached way of teaching and learning but part of the literacy practices carried out by its members. At the latest, when students write their undergraduate theses or dissertations, they are expected to assume the role of a scholar or scientist and participate in academic discourse similar to their teachers. Academic writing always has to be research based, discursive, and critical. Empirical, rhetorical, and theoretical issues have to be solved equally, and there must be a demand for high qualification in writing as well as in instruction and supervision.

Successfully introducing new ways of teaching writing, therefore, was necessarily connected with the development of new ways of research, communication, and theoretical work among the participants. The project's focus was well connected with the aim of the funding scheme in that it also had to deal with the East-West gap in research capacities that resulted from the long seclusion of Eastern research institutions from international developments and to some extent is still related to the remains of organizational and social distortions in the communist regimes.

The political background was somewhat different for each of the three countries. While Ukraine was part of the Soviet Union and became a separate country only in 1991, Romania had its formal independence in Soviet times, but suffered from what was probably the most cruel and bizarre dictatorship in Eastern Europe, which ended in 1989. Macedonia was part of the comparatively liberal Yugoslavia (liberal in contrast to other countries of the Soviet sphere), which was less secluded from Western developments than the two other countries and had maintained closer relationships to the West. Macedonia gained independence from Yugoslavia in 1991. While Romania has become a member of the European Union (EU), both Macedonia and Ukraine are still in the state of negotiations with the EU. In all three countries, economic development progresses slowly but steadily while the overall national income still remains at a lower level than that of the Western European countries.

Since the early 1990s, all three countries have been struggling to remodel their education systems and have committed themselves to the Bologna principles, which the countries of the European Union (and many additional ones) have all agreed on. The roughly 25 years that have passed since the end of the communist rule have led to innumerable changes in all three countries and in almost all areas of life, not only in economics and politics, but also in culture, education, mentalities, and social

relations. Eastern European universities are part of the European research area and are connected by many bi- and multilateral activities to universities from other parts of Europe and the world. A new generation of university scholars and researchers, many of them (at least partially) educated in Western countries, has developed, leading not only to new ways of teaching but also to a transformation of the minds, which is as essential for change at these institutions.

5 The Components of the Program

The program included several fields that are usually not connected in research projects or teaching arrangements, but which in this case proved to be a fortunate mix from several different skills areas, and targeted both the development of research capacities and the creation of literacy support within the participating institutions:

- Joint qualification and knowledge exchange: Creating a shared knowledge base and learning from each other
- Teaching: Developing and implementing writing courses in English and national languages
- Research: Collecting data to understand and compare one's own writing culture and that of others; strategies of data collection, statistics and basic SPSS
- Organizational innovations: Creating and realizing writing center conceptions
- Networking: Building stable networks at each of the universities and connecting internationally
- Organizational development: Changing local (institutional) writing cultures and writing curricula
- Building publication and presentation skills: Joint conference presentations and publications
- Participating in and initiating national discourses: Dissemination and transfer within each country

All activities were prepared jointly and discussed at the project meetings. Each of the fields allowed different activities and connected the participants with another field of academic performance. There was a distribution of labor within each of the three teams allowing for specialization in accordance with individual interests.

6 The Working Program

The activities were developed in a meeting program proposed and agreed on by all partners, which was a mix of several components in order to adapt to the varying needs of the heterogeneous group of participants (see Table 1).

Table 1 Working plan and schedule of LIDHUM meetings

Date	Meeting place	Main topics	Milestones
October 2011	Winterthur, Switzerland	Getting started and understanding the writing process	Kick-off meeting: Group is ready for work
January 2012	Timișoara, Romania	Essentials of the teaching of writing and constructing writing courses: Genre, feedback, and intertextuality	Designing writing courses for each university
April 2012	Coventry, UK	WiD principles, critical thinking, and writing center work	Visit to Coventry Writing Centre and conference on writing
October 2012	Skopje, Macedonia	Writing research and writing center conceptions: Data collection and statistics course including SPSS	Studying writing cultures at the participating universities
February 2013	Lviv, Ukraine	Evaluation of research and preparation of conference presentations/writing center concepts	Principles of writing center work
June 2013	Budapest, Hungary	Writing research/presenting results at EATAW Conference/participating in research workshop	Seven presentations at EATAW Conference
October 2013	Winterthur, Switzerland	Evaluation of program and preparing publications/construction of website	Evaluating and preparing publications
April 2014	Timișoara, Romania	Valorization Meeting: Conference on "Academic Writing in Eastern Europe"	Opening writing center in Timișoara

7 The Topics of the Teaching Units

Teaching units on writing and writing pedagogy were included in all meetings to create an equal level of knowledge among the participants. Teaching was done by some of the more experienced members of the group while some units were covered by invited guests. The topics were:

- Writing process and process-based teaching
- Intertextuality and discursive writing
- Genre and genre teaching
- Writing and critical thinking
- Writing in the disciplines
- Structuring and developing writing courses
- Writing-center work and writing-center conceptions
- Teaching writing online
- Writing provision for doctoral students
- Creating and supervising writing connected with a research project

The teaching units served a basis for the project members' own writing and teaching. It was also considered an exchange of competences among members.

8 Development of Writing Courses

One of the first tasks for all teams was to develop new writing courses in both their national languages and in English. At the second meeting these proposals were discussed and optimized. After the first new courses had been developed and implemented, all teams developed new teaching offers. Obviously, the exchange on writing course construction and the experience of some essential exercises effectively stimulated the creation and innovation of more course offerings. Tables 2, 3 and 4 list the courses that had been realized at the end of the project.

Table 2 New writing courses and workshops at the West University of Timișoara, Romania

Topic/Name	Time	Language
Academic writing/writing a research paper (1st year, American Studies MA, obligatory course)	Since spring 2012	English
Writing a diploma paper (3rd year, English Language and Literature undergraduates, optional course)	Since autumn 2012	English
Writing a diploma paper (3rd year, undergraduate)—included in proposal for new degrees at the Faculty of Letters, History, and Theology	Developed in 2011-2012	Romanian
Academic Writing (new MA programs in Romanian)	2013	Romanian
Workshop: What is a Symposium Paper?	2013	English
Academic writing for 1st year undergraduate students in the humanities (to be opened to students from other faculties)	2014	Romanian
Workshop: Plagiarism	2013	Romanian
At Ion Vidu High School: *Cum ne gândim la ce scriem? Procesul de scriere* (How do we think about writing? The writing process)	2012	Romanian
At Avram Iancu High School: *Cum scriem când nu ne gândim la ce scriem. Scrierea automată* (How we write when we don't think about writing. Free writing)	2012	Romanian

Table 3 New writing courses and workshops at Ss Cyril and Methodius University, Skopje, Macedonia

Course	Year	Language
Course in Academic Writing—optional course	Since September 2013	Macedonian
Institute of Macedonian Literature, Postgraduate Cultural Studies	2014	Macedonian
Course in Academic Writing for postgraduate students at the Institute and at the Doctoral School of the University		
English Department: Changes in the writing curriculum (stricter focus on academic writing, citing, argumentation, critical thinking) in Year 3 course	2013	English
Workshop: Academic Writing: Reliability of sources, revision of existing writing course materials, student paper assessment	2012	English

Table 4 New writing courses and workshops at the Ivan Franko University of Lviv, Ukraine

Course	Year	Language
English academic essay writing (taught as part of the EFL course for master's students in humanities)	2012	English
Ukrainian academic essay writing (taught as a series of workshops under the auspices of the CEAW to students of humanities)	2012	English
Distance academic writing course for students of the history department	2013	English
Ukrainian academic essay writing (taught as a series of workshops under the auspices of the CEAW to students of humanities)	2012	Ukrainian
Workshop: Ukrainian doctoral dissertation as a genre	2013	Ukrainian
Workshop: Language and style of Ukrainian doctoral dissertations in humanities	2013	Ukrainian
Workshop: A basic guide to essay writing	2013	Ukrainian
Workshop: Preparing for presentations: practical tips	2013	Ukrainian

The Romanian team was most successful in introducing new courses. The members were able to include the writing courses into their own study programs as regular offers for the students in the English and Romanian departments. They also developed courses for other faculties and held workshops in schools. This does not include offerings in creative writing, as they have a long tradition here and have been given in English and Romanian.

The Macedonian team had three members who were working in the Macedonian Institute of Literature Studies and had little experience in academic writing. They developed a new course for doctoral students, which was integrated into the study program. The fourth member became acquainted with the teaching of writing in her previous studies in the US and is currently teaching writing at the English department. She expanded the course offers for the advanced undergraduate Macedonian students majoring in English and offered a new workshop.

The Ukrainian team had already been offering writing courses before the project started, but only in English. Among the new courses there were more offers in Ukrainian than in English and most of them were addressed to other groups in humanities departments rather than the English Department, as they had been before.

The preparation of the workshops in Ukrainian appeared to be one of the most challenging and interesting tasks implemented by the Ukrainian team, as there have been no traditions of the explicit teaching of writing in the national language. To elaborate such courses, their authors had to borrow some elements of the rhetorical writing models developed within other educational systems and modify them with regard for the Ukrainian context. This practice of intercultural transfer and mixture seemed to work quite well and can be seen as a starting point for developing writing programs in former Soviet countries.

9 Joint Research

One part of the project was devoted to joint research. This was done for two reasons. First, it was meant to introduce participants to basic research activities in intercultural writing research and recollect principles of questionnaire research, including data processing and displaying results. Second, it served the purpose of providing data on writing skills and writing practices at the participating universities that could be used for institutional development and internal communication. Third, it was intended to provide materials for joint publications and research-based conference presentations.

To assess writing skills and practices, the student version of the European Writing Survey (EUWRIT; Chitez et al. 2015) was used. EUWRIT was created to systematically gather data on student writing in various institutional and disciplinary contexts. The final version used in the LIDHUM project included questions on personal and demographic data, general questions on writing in the study program, writing process and feedback, text genres and writing practices, self-evaluation (students) and appreciation (faculty) of the writing skills, conceptions of "good writing," study competences, and writing support.

The EUWRIT questionnaire was translated into Ukrainian, Romanian, and Macedonian. Translation problems were discussed at a regular project meeting. Data were collected in selected study programs of the humanities departments, were statistically processed, and results were presented at the EATAW 2013 conference in Budapest. Results were published in the *Journal of Academic Writing* (Bekar et al. 2015). In the chapters "Academic Writing in a Russian University Setting: Challenges and Perspectives" and "Perceptions About 'Good Writing' and 'Writing Competences' in Romanian Academic Writing Practices: A Questionnaire Study" of this volume, results of the implementation of EUWRIT in different contexts are presented.

10 Conference Participation and Publication

Funding for conferences is not available in abundance to Eastern European researchers; therefore, the LIDHUM project provided means for meetings in connection with writing conferences. One such conference was EATAW 2013 in Budapest, where several presentations by members were given and a symposium was offered with results from the EUWRIT study. Another event where the LIDHUM project was jointly presented by all participants was the "Academic Writing Theory and Practice in an International Context" Conference, held by the Centre for Academic Writing, Coventry University, UK, in 2012.

Apart from the above-mentioned 2015 publication, several participants of the projects published reports on writing situations in their countries (Borchin and Doroholschi 2016; Yakhontova et al. 2016). The reports investigated and generalized

major features of their educational contexts and also included some reflexivity on writing issues developed as a result of discussions held in the course of LIDHUM implementation.

11 Writing Center Conceptions

The University of Lviv group revised their existing writing center, the Timișoara team actually created a new writing center according to their plan, and the Macedonian team created a concept which has been sent to the rectorate of the university and the Ministry of Science and Education for discussion (so far without a positive result). For the Macedonian team it was crucial to try to broaden the capacities of a small number of trained staff to teach writing to all university units. The need for improving the writing of academic texts/papers both of students and staff was more than obvious. The Writing Center was conceptualized to partner with all institutions that offer studies in the field of humanities and in that way to help other institutions realize their long-term objective of improving the general situation of academic literacy in Macedonia.

12 Writing in English and in the Local Languages

As mentioned above, project meetings and communications took place in English, but all institutions involved considered academic writing both in English and in their local languages. Project teams, therefore, were formed as a mix of English-language specialists with teachers and researchers working in the national languages of Macedonian, Romanian, and Ukrainian respectively. As a result, writing course offers were made in English, but also in the local languages. The participants' design of writing support units considered the particular needs of their institution with regard to writing development and the extent to which it needed to be done in the local language, in English, or both. All eventually decided on using both, in proportions that suited each particular context. In all three cases, participants felt that there was a simultaneous need for (1) developing the teaching of writing in L1, given the lack of institutional traditions in writing support and development in these countries; (2) developing the teaching of writing and the availability of support in English as a language that facilitates intercultural communication and integration within the scientific community; (3) fostering dialogue between specialists who teach writing in different languages; and (4) developing an instrument for data collection that will succeed in all languages involved in the project.

The work on the joint research project—translating the EUWRIT questionnaire and comparing responses between countries—highlighted both the limits and the benefits of working through a common L2 (English). This helped connect different cultural realities, but the process also involved a lot of rephrasing and explanation

and led to the questioning of long-held assumptions in order to achieve successful and precise communication.

In addition to the multilingual genre research undertaken by means of the EUWRIT questionnaire, some of the participants took advantage of the multilingual teams created within the project and undertook further research, e.g., in the case of the Romanian team, which published several papers comparing genres in English and Romanian (Băniceru et al. 2012; Borchin and Pungă 2014; Pungă and Borchin 2014). This research also fed into the Romanian participants' design of writing courses and workshops, which addressed aspects of multilingual literacy and aimed to raise students' awareness of the culture-specific aspects involved in writing.

13 How the Participants Saw the Project

Learning and professional development within LIDHUM was largely realized as a mentoring process even though this term had not been spelled out in the project proposal. Mentoring is usually defined as a form of informal learning in which a less experienced person learns from a more experienced one. This definition may also apply to a team with members of different levels of experience. A specific feature of mentoring in LIDHUM was its intercultural character, offering an open forum for negotiating collaboration and cooperation. The participants' feedback provided below illustrates a number of aspects of mentoring built into the project, such as focusing on disciplinary and personal development, getting guidance, encouragement, insider knowledge and support, and being mediated by a group.

As an informal evaluation, participants were asked to write a personal reflection in which the positive and negative aspects of the projects should be mentioned. The reflections showed that the learning process was significant for most members. A series of illustrative quotations from participants' reflections addressing various aspects of project's activities is listed below without any further comments.

- "[The project] contributed to building a network of colleagues and experts from different European countries, which will be of great professional benefit for all our further activities in the field of academic writing and literacy development" (Republic of Macedonia).
- "I feel that the biggest gain is that the members of the Macedonian team themselves, those who come from the area of Literature, have become aware of the existence of fields such as first and second language writing at an academic level and that the concept of genre is understood differently by different camps." (Republic of Macedonia).
- "What I learned was mostly of a very practical nature, which means I could actually use the information with my students and colleagues during lectures and workshops. LIDHUM became the framework for opening the first writing center in Romania, at our faculty, which is another big plus (most probably, if we had not been involved in this project, we would not have thought about opening a writing center)" (Romania).

- "Also, the training sessions organized during the project's meetings were like a 'school' for me. Learning about writing genres, critical thinking, about how to do research in academic writing, how to use online tools, how to design AW courses, the structure of a writing center or basic statistics and other things have all been exceptional opportunities for me to develop..." (Romania).
- "This project brought together two teams that had not communicated much before (the English and the Romanian departments).... Before the project, I had problems understanding the Romanian context for academic writing and now I have a better overview on AW in my country." (Romania).
- "It has also meant an intense learning experience. Learning was one of the main personal reasons that made me embark on the project in the first place, and I gained more out of the experience than I thought was possible..." (Romania).
- "All in all, to me, being involved in the project felt almost like doing a new university degree, or at least an intensive course, that helped me specialize in a new field" (Romania).
- "Due to the LIDHUM project, I started to think more about writing in a native language and especially about multi-literacy as a concept" (Ukraine).
- "I became fascinated by the idea of the questionnaire that we distributed as a research tool for investigating…. I think such empirical methods (as part of the genre mapping procedure) can tell us much about the things we as teachers and researchers do not know or even never think about. I am inspired and plan to conduct an empirical study of the same type among the graduate students of sciences..." (Ukraine)
- "I also enjoyed many other aspects of LIDHUM: its general format with workshops marked by lively discussions and democratic atmosphere, the meeting in Coventry, joint presentations in Budapest and the speakers invited to our workshops" (Ukraine).

14 Discussion and Conclusions

Institutional partnership projects, as the one reported on here, are by no means ordinary formats of research funding. The format, as conceptualized by the Swiss National Science Foundation administration, is tailored to the special needs of the Eastern European countries and reflects the necessities of cooperation between partners with different backgrounds and developmental needs. Though built on jointly established objectives and shared responsibility, the project also had some mentoring qualities leading to an exchange of knowledge and competencies.

Research in this project was connected with various ways of intercultural learning through meetings, conferences, training events, and joint publications. This combination made the project not only beneficial for the participants but also led to sustainable developments. Results cannot be measured at the level of research results only but also on the level of personal experience, growth, and a gain in

research capacities, which all feed into the way in which the institutions involved adapt to the transformational processes they are undergoing.

As conclusions, we would like to highlight some results which bear significance for the region and might be useful to similar initiatives in the future:

- The need for communication between neighboring or near-neighboring countries in Eastern Europe is great. Problems and developmental potentials in these countries are very similar and joint learning proved to be beneficial for them. Funding opportunities thus should not be directed towards research only (as in the H2020 funding scheme) but also support such cooperation and exchange programs. This situation has improved due to the effective Erasmus+ exchange programs, which give opportunities to students and scholars to start some collaborative work.
- Mentoring proved to be a very effective way of collaboration, as it establishes an unobtrusive and non-hierarchical relationship.
- Genres used in research and teaching—this was the result of the questionnaire study—are fairly similar in the countries studied. Academic cultures turned out not to be as different as might be imagined, even when the countries had historical and cultural backgrounds as different as those of Ukraine, Romania, Macedonia and Switzerland.
- A matter that is certainly of high importance for every career in academic contexts is interaction with the international community of scholars and provision of access to the never-ending resources a large, international disciplinary community can provide to its members. Learning through joint publishing and conference presentation proved to be a very useful way of personal growth.
- Developing new writing courses for various disciplines, study programs, and levels of study proved to be the most productive way of innovation, especially when the courses could be included in the curricula and become regular teaching assignments.

References

Băniceru, C., Borchin, M-I., Doroholschi, C., & Tucan, D. (2012). Academic writing in Romania: A contrastive analysis of BA thesis introductions in Romanian and English. *Qvaestiones Romanicae* (Papers of the International Colloquium Communication and Culture in Romance Europe). Szeged: Jatepress, pp. 331–344.

Bekar, M., Doroholschi, C., Kruse, O., & Yakhontova T. (2015). Educational genres in Eastern Europe: A comparison of the genres in the humanities departments of three countries. *Journal of Academic Writing, 5*(1), 119–132. Available from http://e-learning.coventry.ac.uk/ojs/index.php/joaw/article/view/164/168

Björk, L., Braeuer, G., Rienecker, L., & Jörgensen, P. S. (Eds.). (2003). *Teaching academic writing in European higher education*. Dordrecht: Kluwer.

Borchin, M., & Doroholschi, C. (2016). Romania. In: O. Kruse, M. Chitez, B. Rodriguez, & M. Castelló (Eds.), *Exploring European writing cultures. Country reports on genres, writing practices and languages used in European Higher Education* (Working papers in applied linguistics 10, pp. 181–201). Winterthur: ZHAW Zurcher Hochschule fur Angewandte Wissenschaften.

Borchin, M., & Pungă, L. (2014). Aspecte ale interlingvismului în lucrările de licență. In M. Boncea et al. (Eds.), *Quaestiones Romanicae* (Vol. II/1, pp. 271–280). Szeged: Jatepress.

Canagarajah, A. S. (2002). *A geopolitics of academic writing*. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press.

Castelló, M., & Donahue, C. (2012). *University writing: Selves and texts in academic societies* (Studies in writing, volume 24). Bingley: Emerald.

Chitez, M., & Kruse, O. (2012). Writing cultures and genres in European higher education. In: M. Castelló & C. Donahue (Eds.), *University writing: Selves and texts in academic societies* (Studies in writing, volume 24, pp. 151–175). Bingley: Emerald.

Chitez, M., Kruse, O., & Castelló, M. (2015). The European writing survey (EUWRIT): Background, structure, implementation, and some results. Zurich University of Applied Sciences: Working Papers in Applied Linguistics. URL: https://digitalcollection.zhaw.ch/handle/11475/1016

Deane, M., & O'Neill, P. (Eds.). (2011). *Writing in the disciplines*. Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.

Donahue, C. (2009). "Internationalization" and composition studies: Re-orienting the discourse. *College Composition and Communication, 61*(2), 212–243.

Foster, D., & Russell, D. (2002). *Writing and learning in cross-national perspective: Transitions from secondary to higher education*. Urbana: National Council of Teachers of English.

Harbord, J. (2010). *Writing in central and Eastern Europe: Stakeholders and directions in initiating change*. Across the Disciplines, 7. Retrieved from http://wac.colostate.edu/atd/articles/harbord2010.cfm

Kruse, O. (2013). Perspectives on academic writing in European higher education: Genres, practices, and competences. *Revista de Docencia Universitaria. Número monográfico dedicado a Academic Writing*, 11, 37–58. URL: http://pd.zhaw.ch/publikation/upload/204156.pdf

Pennycook, A. (2013). *The cultural politics of English as an international language*. Oxon/New York: Routledge.

Pungă, L., Borchin, M. (2014). The metatextual role of introductions to BA papers. *Romanian Journal of English Studies*, *11*. Berlin: Versita de Gruyter, pp. 36–47. Available: http://www.degruyter.com/view/j/rjes.2014.11.issue-1/issue-files/rjes.2014.11.issue-1.xml

Veronesi, D., & Nickening, Ch. (Eds.) (2009). *Bi- and multilingual universities: European perspectives and beyond*. Conference proceedings. Bozen-Bolzano, 20–22. Sept. 2007. Bozen-Bolzano: Bozen-Bolzano University Press.

Yakhontova, T. (2011). A "middle ground" university unit as a site of innovation and internationalization. Proceedings of the international conference "Internationalization of post-soviet universities" (May 20, 2011, Kyiv). Kyiv, 2011, pp. 135–141.

Yakhontova, T., Kaluzhna, H., Fitio, T., Mazin, D., & Morenets, V. (2016). Ukraine. In O. Kruse, M. Chitez, B. Rodriguez, & M. Castello (Eds.), *Exploring European writing cultures. Country reports on genres, writing practices and languages used in European higher education* (Working papers in applied linguistics 10, pp. 267–282). Winterthur: ZHAW Zurcher Hochschule für Angewandte Wissenschaften.

Academic Writing at Babeş-Bolyai University. A Case Study

Camelia Moraru, Mihaela Aluaş, Andrei Kelemen, Rodica Lung, Romana Emilia Cramarenco, Sonia Pavlenko, Christian Schuster, Cristina Bojan, and Robert Balazsi

Abstract Research-focused higher education institutions can achieve scientific visibility, research performance, and excellence in teaching and research that is validated by internationally relevant publications by improving and maintaining the academic writing competencies of their researchers. Our case study presents the dynamics of trends and initiatives regarding academic writing at Babeş-Bolyai University over the last 5 years. It focuses on the developments that have led to the launch of the present training program aimed at developing the research competencies needed to publish relevant research findings, output, or data in English and German academic publications. The research methods used in this chapter include document analysis, project design and results analysis, direct observation, and interviews. Our results offer an insight into the organizational variables and mechanisms that could lead to the development of specific academic writing programs as part of a comprehensive institutional research strategy.

C. Moraru (✉) · R. E. Cramarenco · C. Schuster
Faculty of European Studies, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania
e-mail: camelia.moraru@ubbcluj.ro; Romana.cramarenco@ubbcluj.ro; schuster@euro.ubbcluj.ro; christian.schuster@ubbcluj.ro

M. Aluaş
Faculty of Physics, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania
e-mail: mihaela.aluas@phys.ubbcluj.ro

A. Kelemen · S. Pavlenko
Faculty of Economics and Business Administration, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania
e-mail: andrei.kelemen@ubbcluj.ro

R. Lung · C. Bojan
Teacher Training Department and Counseling and Career Development Center, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania
e-mail: rodica.lung@econ.ubbcluj.ro; bojan.cristina@ubbcluj.ro

R. Balazsi
Faculty of Psychology and Educational Sciences, Babes-Bolyai University, Cluj-Napoca/Cluj, Romania
e-mail: robertbalazsi@psychology.ro

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_4

Keywords Research strategy · Academic writing · University research · Research competencies

1 Introduction

In this era dominated by the "publish or perish" maxim, when individual as well as institutional performance is mostly measured in terms of published work, academic writing skills have become an important factor for achieving success in the competitive world of research and academia.

With most traditional top-ranked universities have academic writing centers and provide academic writing courses for students at all levels, studies show that academic writing skills are not automatically acquired (Johns 1997; Street 1999; Poel and Gasiorek 2012). Academic writing skills development initiatives have become an urgent necessity, particularly in universities without a tradition in developing dedicated writing programs that aim to gain international recognition as research universities or world-class universities (WCU).

Research universities are seen nowadays by researchers, politicians, and academic staff as central for a knowledge-based society and economy (Salmi 2009). Defined as being "complex institutions with multiple academic and societal roles," research universities have two major purposes: as national institutions to "contribute to culture, technology, and society" and as international institutions to "link to global intellectual and scientific trends" (Altbach 2011, p. 65). Research universities that have historically been a nation's elite institutions and trained the best minds of the country are being confronted with their international mission to also gain and maintain their place in international research developments. Especially for public universities, this role has been challenged significantly in the last years by the massification of education, the rise of the private sector, and the effects of economic crises on the funding available for research in universities (Altbach 2011). This development has led to several important changes at the level of higher education national systems in terms of the status and funding of the universities as well as the development of a tendency towards the creation of world-class universities (WCU) at the national level.

In Romania, there have been a number of attempts to evaluate research carried out at universities and to allocate funding based on research-performance indicators. Starting in 2000, Alexandru Ioan Cuza University of Iași and Babeș-Bolyai University (BBU) in Cluj-Napoca initiated a process to identify a set of criteria for the classification of Romanian universities. In addition, in 2008 a Ministerial Ordinance was issued in order to establish an Institutional Development Fund that was intended for universities aiming to become WCUs to compete for funds; however, due to lack of official commitment, this financial instrument was not properly implemented. The latest initiative, starting in 2011, has classified Romanian universities into three categories: (1) teaching-focused universities, (2) teaching and research universities or teaching and artistic creation universities, and (3) advanced-research and teaching universities. BBU was classified under the third category.

Nevertheless, the differentiation of higher education institutions based on performance and excellence relied on the introduction of quality indicators in the university financing mechanism. These criteria have been constantly developed; for example, in 2008, quality indicators represented 30% of the total budgetary financing amount (Agachi et al. 2011).

The research focus at the institutional level preceded the design of a national research strategy, with a clear scheme of differentiated allocations of financial resources.

Consequently, strategic developments regarding internationalization, the use of English as a research and publishing language, attracting research funds, and becoming visible at an international level were key factors in transforming BBU into a research university able compete at an international level for the status of WCU.

2 The Role of Academic Writing in Increasing Research Visibility at the International Level

The efficacy and usefulness of different aspects of academic writing initiatives have been analyzed in various studies. Rickard et al. (2009) showed how a formal 1-week writing course followed by monthly group meetings for a two-year period increased the average number of in print publications of the attending group from 0.5 to 1.2 per person/year. One of the most important conclusions of the study is that writing for publication is a skill that can be learned and evaluated during such a program.

Storch and Tapper (2009) analyzed the impact of a postgraduate EAP course with a focus on structure, accuracy, and academic vocabulary. With regard to structure, they acknowledged the fact that during postgraduate studies all students improved this aspect of their writing due to exposure to academic texts in their current studies. However, students enrolled in the course credited their improvement to the course. Analysis of language fluency showed mixed results, with no significant change over time, while the use of academic vocabulary statistically improved. The use of qualitative and quantitative methods in their study validated the conclusion that this institutional approach to academic writing development has a positive impact and is measurable in quantitative terms.

Several studies present formal and informal successful approaches to teaching academic writing. The use of portfolios was proposed by Romova and Andrew (2011), the efficacy of including academic writing tasks in a traditional programming course was analyzed by Cilliers (2012), and the effect of a collaborative working group was presented in Nesset et al. (2014). Other studies have presented findings related to particular aspects of academic writing such as paraphrasing (Hirvela and Du 2013) and acquisition of lexical phrases (Li and Schmitt 2009). A review of previous academic writing interventions can be found in McGrailet et al. (2006).

All these studies focused on measurable effects of proposed interventions in terms of quality of writing. Poel and Gasiorek (2012) presented an efficacy-focused approach with emphasis on students' perception of themselves as writers, arguing for an English writing program that explicitly addresses disciplinary expectations for academic writing. In addition, Perpignanet et al. (2007) showed that academic writing courses led to important secondary outcomes related to personal development that were unrelated to writing in English. Eighty-four percent of participants involved in this study acknowledged the existence of such outcomes; most of the subjects identified them as other skills (related to reading, thinking, and organizing) and effectiveness (increased expectations and confidence and reduced fear of criticism). Other byproducts mentioned were awareness of the meaning of writing, broadening of the knowledge base, behavior in a professional context, learning the meaning of learning, social interaction, and creativity.

Gopee and Deane's (2013) analysis of how students perceived institutional and non-institutional support for academic writing presented findings indicating that universities should provide a dedicated writing support center with appropriate human resources offering one-on-one writing tutorials.

Based on these arguments regarding the role and efficacy of academic writing interventions, the initiatives in the academic writing programs at BBU are identified and analyzed below.

3 Research Questions and Methodology

In the context in which BBU defines itself as a research university, gaining leading positions in national and international research rankings/classifications and aiming to enter the top 500 universities, the objective of the present article is to offer potential answers to the following frequent inquiries about the role of academic writing in this specific strategic context:

- Which were the most relevant steps in developing specific academic writing training programs in English and German as part of doctoral education?
- What are the main perspectives of the major actors at the institutional level regarding the role of academic writing competencies in fostering the publication culture at the institutional level?
- What are the identified variables and mechanisms at the strategic institutional level that were perceived as playing a crucial role in increasing the visibility of BBU's scientific publications?

Using a mixed-method approach, as defined by Greene and Caracelli (2003) and Teddlie and Tashakkori (2010), based on a "dialectic stance"[1] that combines

[1]As defined by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2010) based on previous definitions of Greene and Caracelli (2003) and Greene (2007), a "dialectic stance" is defined as the researchers' mental model that can encompass different paradigms in one single explanatory framework of the studied phenomenon.

document analysis, comparative analysis, direct observation, questionnaires, and interviews, we aim to identify and describe the different perspectives and mental models that are generated and used by different actors involved in the design and implementation of academic writing initiatives at BBU during 2008–2013.

Document Analysis The documents selected for analysis were produced during 2008–2013. Documents older than 2009 that were included in the research due to their impact on initiatives and phenomena that occurred during the study period: institutional strategic plan for 2008–2011 and the institutional strategic plan for 2012–2015.

Projects Analysis The projects designed and implemented by BBU between 2008 and 2013 in the field of doctoral and postdoctoral studies that proposed specific training to improve the academic writing competencies of doctoral students were selected and analyzed in order to identify the strategy that led to the inclusion of such trainings in the project design, the selection of the specific subjects, the trainers, and the results obtained in terms of publications.

Comparative Analysis The comparisons used data computed by the Research Department of BBU regarding the scientific production (published ISI papers) for the 2008–2013 period by different categories of projects.

Direct Observation Over the period of 2008–2013, some of the research team members were project managers of BBU's doctoral projects and took part in the analyses carried out for the elaboration of institutional research strategies as researchers and/or acted as trainers. The direct observations they made were investigated in the following areas: the impact of specific strategic decisions on designing specific projects, the relevance of the value given to academic/scientific writing as a component in the development of a competitive research staff, the needs expressed by doctoral and postdoctoral students regarding academic writing and publishing, and the impact of specific practices of different research schools.

Interviews Aiming to develop a more detailed image of the processes and variables that led to the development of a long-term program of academic writing at BBU, the vice-rectors for research and doctoral studies (3) and trainers from the implementation teams (2) were interviewed. The main structure of the interviews focused on the link between research strategy objectives and specific doctoral programs, including specific types of training for doctoral students, the perceived role of academic writing in developing research and publishing competencies, the preferred ways of developing academic writing skills, and the institutional variables and mechanisms supporting academic writing initiatives and stimulating the publishing process.

4 Perspectives and Discussions

Our research questions were generated by the reflections of different actors (doctoral students, teachers, researchers, and vice-rectors) over the 2008–2013 period that raised fundamental inquiries about the development and future of academic writing initiatives at BBU: What value are we assigning nowadays to scientific/academic writing? Do we—students, teachers, and publishers—still share a common value regarding writing? How can we nurture the value of critical, reflective, and creative academic writing in a time of high publishing pressure? It is our mission to teach students how to write or it is something that we still expect to just occur osmotically in the teaching and mentoring process?

The answers obtained, the data analyzed, the conclusions of the feedback, and evaluations of the implemented projects indicated the following general themes as a pattern for reflection regarding the process of the introduction of academic writing trainings at BBU:

1. Developing academic writing training programs at BBU as part of doctoral education
2. The role of academic writing competencies in fostering a publishing culture at an institutional level
3. Variables and mechanisms at a strategic level playing a role in supporting academic writing initiatives and in increasing the visibility of the scientific publications of BBU

4.1 Developing Academic Writing Training Programs at BBU as Part of Doctoral Education

One of the most relevant and important parts of BBU's institutional mission is its research mission. The Strategic Plan for 2008–2012 defined for the first time BBU's strategic goal "to become a world-class university," which could be accomplished through

- training and support for the most competitive researchers, with internationally acknowledged scientific results and
- training of innovators aiming to create new products and processes and to enrich the technological endowment of the global society.

Consequently, the research strategy of the university included several measures such as

- developing research evaluation exercises oriented towards the quantitative and qualitative evaluation of the output,
- support for researchers to publish in international journals/ISI ranked journals,
- increasing researchers' visibility at the international level, and
- developing research centers with specific research programs and a dedicated infrastructure.

The 2012–2015 Research Strategy stressed again the university's commitment to ranking first among the Romanian universities and to accessing the Top 500 ARWU Shanghai Ranking. A special focus was given to the inter- and multidisciplinary research programs, centers (poles of excellence), and teams with appropriate funding allocations.

Doctoral education is seen institutionally as one of the major priorities in supporting the research mission of the university and promoting excellence in a scientific career (Gräfet et al. 2011)—an excellence that was one of the distinctive characteristics of BBU in its historical development as one of the country's leading institutions in both teaching and research. Doctoral education has been seen as an important process that supports institutional visibility in terms of international publications and its international presence in general. Due to the dynamics in recent years, BBU initiated several changes in order to adapt its agendas and redefine its goals.

(a) **Research agenda.** In order to maintain its position among the top three national research institutions, BBU continued investing in research projects based on its own research strengths and on relevant national research priorities. Several research areas of excellence have been established and, as a result, a project for investment in infrastructure of 15 million euro was secured and six projects totaling more than 26 million Euro for doctoral studies and postdoctoral research were contracted between 2008 and 2013.

(b) **Doctoral and postdoctoral training for career development.** Training programs, whether specific or general, have been integrated into projects financed through the Sectorial Operational Program Human Resources Development (SOPHRD) in order to enhance research-management and research project-management skills among the participants. Training programs have been designed to be carried out in close cooperation with national or international experts/partners (such as the Center for Doctoral Studies of the University in Vienna and the House of Competences at the Karlsruhe Institute of Technology, Leipzig University). It was the first time in the history of doctoral studies at BBU that specific measures dedicated to the enhancement of writing skills at the doctoral level were implemented in an organized manner for more than 5 years in a row. These initiatives were designed by teams selected by the vice-rectors for research and doctoral studies at the beginning of the first doctoral program financed by SOPHRD in 2009 and have been continuing since with the later support of the Institute for Doctoral Studies.

(c) **Exposure to different perspectives and different languages.** There have been two main institutional initiatives. First, doctoral schools in BBU have been open for cotutelle doctoral programs within the same field, but between BBU and foreign partners and in interdisciplinary fields, particularly in life sciences (in an effort to connect chemistry, biology, physics, medical research, etc.). Second, due to its multicultural mission, BBU developed cooperation at doctoral levels with partners that are vital for the future development of its Hungarian and German lines of study.

The inclusion of specific training programs aiming to develop research skills alongside the formal doctoral program started as an initiative with the launch of the first two strategic doctoral projects in 2009. The first training initiatives were developed in cooperation with experts from the University of Vienna and included several modules of training in academic writing, research management, and research project management, which were offered as compulsory courses for all the enrolled doctoral students (Pavlenko et al. 2014).

The succeeding generation of projects launched in 2010 added several partners at the international level in order to foster a specific component of researchers' education: internationalization of studies. The partnership offered opportunities to develop new forms of training in academic writing and research management, such as summer schools and courses offered at partner universities (University of Vienna, Regensburg University, University of Leipzig, and Karlsruhe Institute of Technology). Academic writing was considered a major component of doctoral education.

The design of the strategic doctoral and postdoctoral programs aimed at proposing a different approach to the doctoral training process relied on the following set of actions:

- Supplementary training programs at the institutional level with the aim of facilitating the interaction between doctoral students from different fields and developing certain specific complementary competencies
- Training of students in academic writing and research management—including research project design and implementation
- Internationalization of doctoral studies through cotutelle, research mobility (a period of 6–8 months of study abroad supported by the project) at partner institutions or other EU institutions, joint summer school between partner institutions on developing the research competencies of the doctoral students, especially related to promoting their research and research results
- Writing and publishing in international journals in English or other languages (each enrolled doctoral student had to, by the end of their PhD program, publish three papers from which at least one must be in an international journal)

The design of doctoral and postdoctoral grants focused especially on specific field challenges at the level of doctoral and postdoctoral programs and included specific training modules in research management and specific mechanisms to develop the publishing capacity of doctoral and postdoctoral students.

Following these evolutions, by the year 2012, the present project[2] was designed as a research-oriented project that aimed to demonstrate the efficacy of academic writing training at the doctoral level. The project was conceived as a complementary tool alongside doctoral programs offered by BBU's doctoral schools. Its aim was to

[2] OPEN RES—Open School for Academic Self-improvement. Research, Academic Writing, and Career Management (PN-II-PCCA-2011-3.1-0682 212/2.07.2012 grant funded by UEFISCDI [www.uefiscdi.gov.ro] project website: http://econ.ubbcluj.ro/~rodica.lung/openres/ http://academic-writing.ro)

develop an efficient, optional program for the supplementary development of academic writing and research competencies. The project combines different types of modules: research methods, academic writing, research management, and career management as well as different training formats such as informal and non-formal. The project offers the academic writing training program in both English and German. The decision to offer training in English and German was based on the language preference of the academic staff for publishing and also on the fact that BBU is offering complete training routes at the bachelor's, master's, and doctoral level in German (Aluaş et al. 2014, 2017).

4.2 Projects Facts

As a research institution, BBU has published extensively at the international level; a record of the ISI-ranked publications as the number of papers in the Web of Science Core Collection (all indexes, all types of papers) reflects a constant growth over the last 5 years from 692 in 2008 to 1024 in 2013 (see Fig. 1).

The preference of BBU authors is to use English to publish in prestigious international journals. From the total of ISI-ranked papers published between 2008 and 2013, 97.08% were published in English, 1.03% in Romanian, 1.2% in French, 0.05% in German, 0.03% in Hungarian, and the rest in Czech, Croatian, Slovak, Italian, and Spanish (see Fig. 2).

Starting in 2009 from, a significant number of ISI-ranked articles were produced within the doctoral programs financed through SOPHRD projects and projects that included initiatives dedicated to the development of research competencies, including academic writing skills (see Fig. 3).

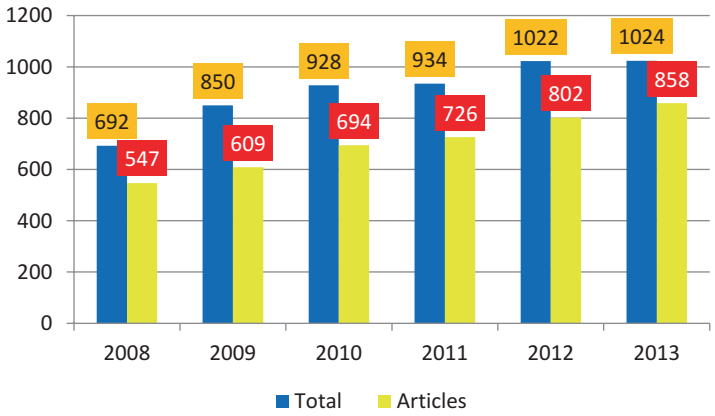

Fig. 1 Number of ISI-ranked papers at Babeş-Bolyai University 2008–2013. (Source: Data computed by BBU's Research Department from Web of Science Core Collection)

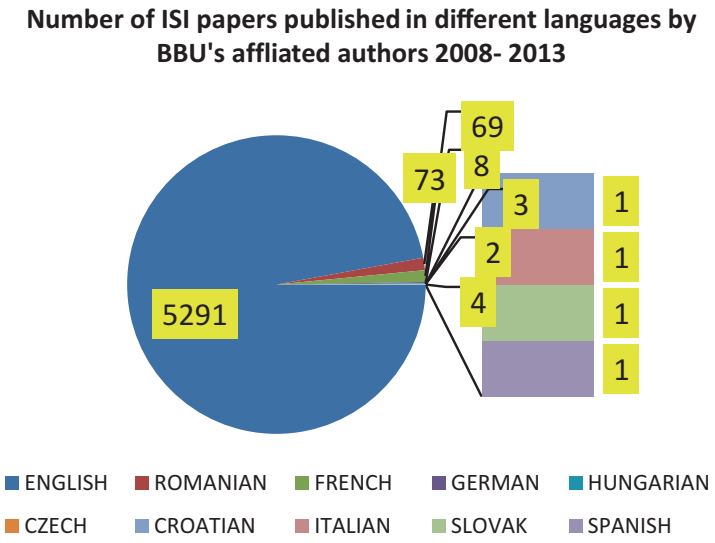

Fig. 2 Number of ISI-ranked papers published in different languages by BBU's affiliated authors 2008–2013. (Source: Data computed by BBU's Research Department from Web of Science Core Collection)

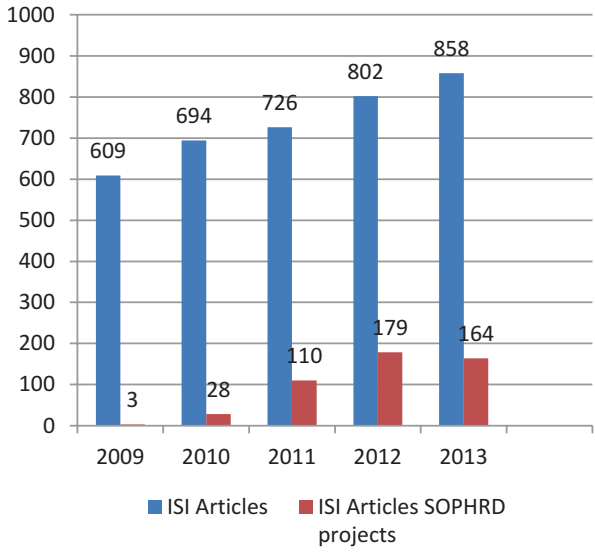

Fig. 3 Number of ISI articles in SOPHRD doctoral and postdoctoral projects at Babeș-Bolyai University 2009–2013. (Source: Data computed by BBU's Research Department from Web of Science Core Collection)

The students that were supported by the doctoral and postdoctoral projects launched in 2008–2009 started to publish by the end of 2009 and more significantly in 2010 and 2011. Thus, an important number of articles published can be considered a direct result of the implementation of doctoral and postdoctoral projects, where publishing was a contractual obligation.

Meanwhile, the increasing publishing activity at the international level was also an outcome of other measures at the institutional level, including the internationalization of teaching and research, competitive research projects' management, and the evaluation of research activity at doctoral, postdoctoral, and teachers' level based on the publishing indicators.

4.3 The Role of Academic Writing Competencies in Fostering a Publishing Culture at Institutional Level

Actors' Voices: Academic management's Perspective

The academic culture of the BBU is characterized by a long-term, already traditional interest in writing and publishing. BBU has several publishing houses, its own bookshop, and several journals in Romanian and other international languages.

Several doctoral programs took into consideration the writing and publishing activity of the candidates during their admission process, and all the doctoral schools of BBU request that doctoral students prove their competency by publishing internationally before the public defense of their thesis. The academic staff is evaluated based on the number of publications that are produced on a one-, two-, or three-year basis, and several measures to encourage publication have been taken over the last 5 years (internal grants for young research teams, prizes for publishing ISI ranked articles, etc.).

The majority of measures at the strategic level have been related to the outcome of the writing process: prizes for articles, evaluation based on published articles, and initiatives to support BBU's journals to become ISI journals, and a few of these have been targeting the process that leads to a published paper, such as internal grants for young researchers, new research teams, and access to international scientific databases. At the beginning of 2008, no specific measures had been taken to improve the quality of the writing process regardless of the support given for completing a specific research project (P. ş. Agachi,[3] personal communication, October 2, 2011).

The measures developed were based on a common understanding at the level of the BBU's management team that academic writing was a process that should be encouraged at the doctoral student and researcher level in order to enhance the quality of the BBU's staff engaged in research and its publications' international visibility.

The first initiative to include specific measures that could increase the quality of writing, especially in English, in a combined training program that also encompassed research management competencies was launched in 2008 in the framework

[3] Paul şerban Agachi was BBU's vice-rector for research from 2001 to 2008 and the President of the Academic Council from 2008 to 2012.

of the SOPHRD projects. It was a common idea shared by the vice-rector for research (L. Silaghi Dumitrescu,[4] personal communication, August 20, 2008) and the vice-rector for doctoral studies (R. Gräf,[5] personal communication, August 20, 2008) based on their long-standing collaboration and exchange experiences with University of Vienna's Center for Doctoral Studies.

Learning how to write was seen either as the exclusive task of the teacher or as a competency that each student had to somehow acquire during the multiple interactions with the written text produced in the research group or team. This specific representation (P. ş. Agachi, personal communication, July 5, 2014) of the teacher's role in the academic writing process is similar to other evidence of ambivalence regarding, in particular, the teacher's involvement in the academic writing process, as discussed by Lea and Stierer (2000) and Barnett and Di Napoli (2007).

A new tendency is also visible at the institutional level, namely, a shift from the major role of the PhD coordinator towards the inclusion of the PhD students in research teams working on specific projects and teams in which they can learn from different researchers and not only from the PhD coordinator (R. Gräf, personal communication, July 5, 2014).

The research training, especially the training regarding writing and publishing, that took place in a formal or informal manner at the level of the research groups and research schools and in several doctoral schools, has been an unwritten tradition at BBU and has been viewed as an important phenomenon in the development of research skills as long as it does not interfere with the basic doctoral program in terms of time or priorities (R. Gräf, personal communication, July 5, 2014).

In terms of the evaluation of the best strategy for developing academic writing skills, the preferred interventions (R. Gräf, personal communication, July 5, 2014; L. Silaghi Dumitrescu, personal communication, July 5, 2014) were:

- A constant program of reading and writing that students themselves should be able to develop and follow (with or without the supervision of their PhD coordinator)
- Feedback from the PhD coordinator on how to write about the same results in a better manner
- Participation in conferences with their own presentations/papers;
- Optional training programs on academic writing and research methodology

The optional character of these additional programs is perceived as important as its contents should also include research methodology for a successful academic writing program. The encouraged approach has been characterized as one in which "we should offer the most and we should not compel at all" (R. Gräf, personal communication, July 5, 2014).

With regard to the level at which the training on academic writing should begin, the preference is to start earlier, if possible at the master's level (R., Gräf, personal communication, July 5, 2014; P. ş. Agachi, personal communication, July 5, 2014; L. Silaghi Dumitrescu, personal communication, July 5, 2014).

[4] Luminişa Silaghi Dumitrescu was BBU's vice-rector for research from 2008 to 2012.

[5] Rudolf Gräf was BBU's vice-rector for doctoral studies from 2008 until now.

Efforts to publish in international journals are encouraged by the majority of the PhD coordinators as being one of the best instruments to join the international debate as a researcher and to make your own research results visible (L. Silaghi Dumitrescu, personal communication, July 5, 2014).

The language in which the writing process is encouraged, in order to gain international visibility, should not be English as a rule, but rather "the language in which they could best express heir ideas, the language in which they are the best writers" (R. Gräf, personal communication, July 5, 2014). Even so, a tendency towards publishing in English is very visible even in research domains (research about Southeastern Europe, for example) in which the international English-speaking research community is not very interested (R. Gräf, personal communication, July 5, 2014).

Writing and publishing in English is not only an indicator of the institution's visibility at the international level, but it is also an important step in any researcher's career. Publishing in international journals, especially in English-language journals, as a consequence of English becoming the lingua franca of the international research community, makes the researcher more visible worldwide. This process could lead to the extension of the interest in the same topic and could create a sense of belonging to a specific research community (L. Silaghi Dumitrescu, personal communication, July 2, 2014).

Even if there are initiatives at different levels, such as informal initiatives regarding the development of academic writing skills at faculty levels and training modules offered through doctoral scholarship projects, the efficiency of these activities has not been demonstrated (R., Gräf, personal communication, July 5, 2014; L. Silaghi Dumitrescu, personal communication, July 5, 2014). Collecting data regarding specific AW initiatives at the BBU level is the next step to be carried out in demonstrating the role of AW in increasing institutional visibility and its research quality.

Actors' Voices: SOPHRD Doctoral Scholarship Projects' Managers[6]

The SOPHRD projects supporting the development of doctoral studies at the university level were designed following the objectives established in BBU's Strategic Plan (regarding research and developing doctoral competencies) as part of research competencies development (Silaghi Dumitrescu L., Gräf R., Moraru C., Kelemen A., Crişan G., personal communication August 2008, August 2009, August–September 2010, August–September 2011, and August–September 2012). Academic writing modules were included as a tool for developing research competencies.

[6] The perspectives of the project managers are the results of direct observation and direct participation in the design, implementation, and evaluation of the above-mentioned projects between 2008 and 2013. The managers of the projects cited were Crişan, G, 2008–2013; Kelemen, A. 2010–2013; Moraru, C., 2008–2011; and Aluaş, M., 2010–2012.

The language chosen for the AW training modules was English, based on data regarding the number of papers published in an international language by BBU staff as well as based on other objectives of the projects, such as the internationalization of doctoral experience (through mobility and cotutelle). The modules, offered on a compulsory basis at the beginning, were offered as optional courses, starting with the second generation of projects.

There have been significant differences in expectations and previously developed research skills at the level of different doctoral schools. Some of the faculties are developing research competencies before the doctoral level, such as at the master's level and even a few of them at the bachelor's level. Doctoral students coming from these schools have already published scientific papers or articles at the master's level[7] (Cramarenco et al. 2015; Aluaş et al. 2017).

The compulsory nature of the training in the doctoral scholarship projects was seen as limitative by the students in the first projects, but, as they appreciated after the completion of courses, they would not have enrolled voluntarily in training not knowing in advance exactly what they were going to study or learn. With the second generation of projects, the students already had a reference point from their colleagues in the second or third year of their doctoral program and had been well informed about training modules; therefore, the participation was optional.

Perceived as interesting modules that were useful for future publishing or as initiating modules in the difficulties of using English as an academic writing language, the AW modules were appreciated by the majority of the participants in courses as being useful; however, the efficacy of AW interventions on writing and publishing was not measured.

Trainers were represented by English and German teachers from the Center for Doctoral Studies who specialized in AW training as well as in research management and research-project management.

Actors' Voices: Partners and Trainers' Perspectives[8]

The structures of the modules proposed by the Center for Doctoral Studies Vienna reflected the structure of AW modules at the University of Vienna (Zinner, personal communication, March 17, 2011).

The participants' level of English was evaluated by our partners/trainers as being medium to good, with participants developing learning objectives to improve language competencies. The attendance rate for the academic writing courses was fairly high, with students becoming more motivated by participating in sessions

[7] As identified during the enrollment process of several generations of PhD students.

[8] The partners involved in several doctoral trainings were Lucas Zinner, Markus Rheindorf, Birgit Huemmer, Christian Kolowrat, Alisson O'Reilly, and Martin Buxbaum from the Center for Doctoral Studies, University of Vienna. The trainers from BBU were Romana Cramarenco and Rodica Lung.

(Rheindorf, Huemer, Kolowrat, and Buxbaum, personal communication training reports, November 22, 2012).

Interest of the participants was mainly related to their involvement in specific writing tasks or in the completion of specific tasks relevant for their research interests or goals (Cramarenco and Lung, personal communication, July 30, 2009, and September 30, 2010).

The optional character of the training courses led to a better selection of the high achievers and self-motivated students (Cramarenco and Lung, personal communication, July 30, 2009, and September 30, 2010).

The length, duration, and content of the program should have been more adapted to their needs in terms of introducing specific AW modules for writing inside the discipline, a module regarding access to international and relevant literature and publishing criteria, and self-management as a researcher and writer (Moraru, Cramarenco, and Lung, personal communication, September 30, 2010, November 2011, and November 2012).

4.4 Variables and Mechanisms at the Strategic Level Playing a Role in Supporting Academic Writing Initiatives and in Increasing the Visibility of the Scientific Publications of BBU

Based on the analyzed documents and interviews, the process of AW introduction at BBU both historically and as reflected by the relevant actors of the AW initiatives during the last 5 years was supported by a set of variables and mechanisms:

- AW initiatives that contributed to a strategic goal or objective
- Internationalization and increasing interest for institutional visibility that acted as important support mechanisms for writing and publishing in English and that are important determinants in supporting an AW program at the institutional level
- The organizational culture that oriented towards excellence and especially excellence in research as a catalyst for the writing and publishing processes
- Being part of an international research team or of a research group/school is an important mechanism in supporting the development of academic writing skills
- The perspective of the management team is essential in starting long-term initiatives
- An open program that is offered for both master's and PhD students can be attractive for all of them, especially when different types of modules and delivery formats are included
- Insights on the perceived and measured effects of the academic writing program are essential to all the actors involved: management team, trainers, researchers, doctoral students, and teachers.

5 Conclusion and Implications

One of the first conclusions was that developing the academic writing training at BBU was a step-by-step process. Its development has been linked with the defined role of BBU as a research university and with its aim to become a WCU.

The perceived role of academic writing as a core competency in the development of highly skilled researchers varies across the university and the inclusion of academic writing courses at the master's and doctoral levels depends on the professors' view of academic writing as a process.

Academic writing is an instrument that ensures research results' visibility at national and international levels. It is seen as a specific tool that should be acquired by doctoral students early in the doctoral program or should have already been developed as a prerequisite. Three major perspectives have been identified: (a) strong support of specific initiatives in promoting academic writing as a central component in developing competitive researchers; (b) writing as a competency needed by highly qualified researchers, but which nevertheless should first be developed at the level of the research group or research school and second through specific academic writing programs offered at the institutional level; and (c) reluctance to follow any specific approach to developing academic writing skills at the doctoral level outside the curriculum.

Access to training modules on academic writing was an extended initiative that continuously granted interested doctoral students the opportunity to develop their publication skills in English. It was perceived as an opportunity by talented doctoral students that had not published in international journals before.

Developing academic writing skills is a concern for BBU at the doctoral level and not at the undergraduate level, even if specific courses on methodology and how to write a bachelor's or master's thesis are offered at the undergraduate/postgraduate level as part of the curriculum.

Regarding publishing language, there is still a debate about whether to choose English as a writing vehicle in order to gain international visibility and recognition or to use German, Hungarian, or Romanian in order to preserve the specific cultural and scientific identity of the research group or school developed over the years at the institutional level.

Students at the majority of doctoral schools write their doctoral theses in Romanian, but the publication of articles in English, German, or French and less frequently in other languages on their thesis research topic is also encouraged.

Mostly because of its provision of access to international visibility and the world-class university league, academic writing is seen as a variable that can increase the level and quality of publications in English, especially in international journals. Due to that perception, a training program aiming to develop both research skills and academic writing skills is perceived as a better institutional investment than a specific academic writing program.

The academic writing initiatives at BBU were not based on previous research on the evidence-based results and impact of academic writing programs; rather, they started from personal experience, personal values regarding the aim and importance of the writing process in academia, and the best practices of previous international institutional partners in teaching and/or research and were promoted extensively in a top-down manner.

Developing researchers who will aim to test the efficacy and role of the academic writing programs in developing writing and publishing skills is a must for designing a sustainable institutional strategy in the field. Meanwhile, to assure this process development, a long-term critical mass at the level of all the involved actors is needed.

References

Agachi, P. ș., Moraru, C., Cucuruzan, R., & Curaj, A. (2011). Is developing Elite universities a top priority agenda for higher education? In N. C. Liu, Q. Wang, & Y. Cheng (Eds.), *Paths to world class university—Lessons from practices and experiences* (pp. 83–105). Taipei: Sense Publishers.

Altbach, P. (2011). The past, Present, and future of the research university. *Economic & Political Weekly, XLVI, 16*, 65–73.

Aluaș, M., Bojan, C., Huemer, B., Kelemen, A., Lung, R. I., Moraru, C., Pavlenko, S., Rheindorf, M., & Schuster, C. (2014). Scrierea academică. Cercetare și autoperfecționare. *Casa Cărții de Știință*. ISBN 978-606-17-0625-9.

Aluaș, M., Moraru, C., Rheindorf, M., Huemer, B., Filip, C., Kelemen, A., & Lung, R. I. (2017). An innovative approach for delivering academic writing courses. *Current Science 5/25, 112*(10), 1997–2007.

Barnett, R., & di Napoli, R. (Eds.). (2007). *Being an academic today. Changing identities and voices in higher education*. Buckingham: SRHE/Open University Press.

Cilliers, C. (2012). Student perception of academic writing skills activities in a traditional programming course. *Computers & Education, 58*(4), 1028–1041.

Cramarenco, R. E., Moraru, C., Balazsi R., & Aluaș, M. (2015). Meta-analysis versus systematic review in studies regarding specific interventions in academic writing in English. *Cognition, Brain, Behavior, 19*(1), 55–73.

Gräf, R., Moraru, C., & Kelemen A. (2011). *Whose priorities are priority? Doctoral education challenges in Romanian institutions*. FOURTH EUA-CDE ANNUAL MEETING 2011 Strong Universities for Europe, 9–10 June 2011, Carlos III University of Madrid, Spain.

Greene, J., & Caracelli, V. (2003). Making paradigmatic sense of mixed methos inquiry. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research*. California: Sage.

Gopee, N., & Deane, M. (2013). Strategies for successful academic writing—Institutional and non-institutional support for students. *Nurse Education Today, 33*(12), 1624–1631.

Hirvela, A., & Du, Q. (2013). "Why am I paraphrasing?": Undergraduate ESL writers' engagement with source-based academic writing and reading. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 12*(2), 87–98.

Johns, A. M. (1997). *Text, role, and context: Developing academic literacies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Lea, M. R., & Stierer, B. (2000). *Student writing in higher education: New contexts*. LERU press statement. Retrieved at http://www.leru.org/files/general/LERU_press_statement.pdf

Li, J., & Schmitt, N. (2009). The acquisition of lexical phrases in academic writing: A longitudinal case study. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 18*(2), 85–102.

Lung, R. I., Moraru, C., Balazsi, R., Both, I., & Aluaș, M. (2014). Needs analysis as an instrument to design and adapt specific academic writing interventions. *Cognition, Brain, Behavior, 18*(4), 261–281

McGrail, M., Rickard, C., & Jones, R. (2006). Publish or perish: A systematic review of interventions to increase academic publication rates. *Higher Education Research & Development, 25*(1), 19–35.

Ness, V., Duffy, K., McCallum, J., & Price, L. (2014). Getting published: Reflections of a collaborative writing group. *Nurse Education Today, 34*(1), 1–5.

Pavlenko, S., Bojan, C., Kelemen, A., & Aluaș, M. (2014). Academic writing: Global views and Romanian trends. *Transylvanian Review, 23*, 259–270.

Perpignan, H., Rubin, B., & Katznelson, H. (2007). 'By-products': The added value of academic writing instruction for higher education. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 6*(2), 163–181.

Poel, K., & Gasiorek, J. (2012). Effects of an efficacy-focused approach to academic writing on students' perceptions of themselves as writers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 11*(4), 294–303.

Rickard, C., McGrail, M., Jones, R., O'Meara, P., Robinson, A., Burley, M., & Ray-Barruel, G. (2009). Supporting academic publication: Evaluation of a writing course combined with writers' support group. *Nurse Education Today, 29*(5), 516–521.

Romova, Z., & Andrew, M. (2011). Teaching and assessing academic writing via the portfolio: Benefits for learners of English as an additional language. *Assessing Writing, 16*(2), 111–122.

Salmi, J. (2009). *The challenges of establishing world-class universities, directions in development, human development*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.

Street, B. (1999). Academic literacies. In C. Jones, J. Turner, & B. V. Street (Eds.), *Students writing in the university: Cultural and epistemological issues*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Pub.

Storch, N., & Tapper, J. (2009). The impact of an EAP course on postgraduate writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 8*(3), 207–223.

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2010). Overview of contemporary issues in mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori & C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Sage handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research* (pp. 1–41). California: Sage.

Universitatea Babeș-Bolyai, Plan Strategic 2008 2011. Retrieved at http://www.ubbcluj.ro/ro/despre/strategii/files/plan-strategic-2008-2011.pdf

Universitatea Babeș-Bolyai, Plan Strategic 2012 2015. Retrieved at http://ubbcluj.ro/ro/despre/strategii/files/Plan_Strategic_UBB_2012-2015.pdf

Institutional Writing Support in Romania: Setting Up a Writing Center at the West University of Timișoara

Claudia Ioana Doroholschi

Abstract The chapter examines the current types of writing support provided in Romania and presents an attempt to establish a writing center at the Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, West University of Timișoara, as a result of the SCOPES-funded project entitled LIDHUM (Literacy Development in the Humanities). It addresses some of the challenges encountered in setting up a writing center in the specific context of tertiary education in Romania and outlines some of the ways in which these have been dealt with, arguing that existing writing center models can only be adopted partially and need to be adapted to local conditions.

Keywords Academic writing · Writing support · Writing center

1 Introduction

The need for the adaptation of writing center work to local needs and to local contexts has been stated repeatedly in the literature. Bräuer (2002) notes that American-style writing centers cannot be transplanted as such to another context but should "grow directly out of existing structures and their cultural contexts" (p. 62). Harris' (1985) well-known "ideal" writing center is not an iteration of an established model but a local version characterized by variety and flexibility; "no two ideal writing labs function in exactly the same way" (p. 8). Even without this advice from more experienced colleagues, our own attempt at starting a writing center at the West University of Timișoara could only have been an attempt at reinventing the idea of a writing center, given the specific institutional, social, political, and economic background of a Romanian institution in the post-communist period. In what follows, I will try to outline this attempt, alongside some of the challenges and

C. I. Doroholschi (✉)
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, West University of Timișoara, Timișoara, Timiș, Romania
e-mail: claudia.doroholschi@e-uvt.ro

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_5

questions that have arisen from it, in the hope that these will stimulate discussion on how such a unit can be established in the context of Eastern European institutions.

2 Academic Writing Provision in Romanian Universities

Since 1989, the Romanian higher education system has been in a process of redefinition, modernization, and dynamic transformation from the Soviet-inspired educational model imposed after 1945 to a more market-oriented model (Dobbins and Knill 2009). It has also gone from a centralized state-controlled university system to one that recognizes the autonomy of universities and from isolation to integration and exchange with the rest of Europe. In what concerns academic writing, this has resulted in a highly dynamic landscape in which several different traditions coexist (see chapters "Introduction: Understanding Academic Writing in the Context of Central and Eastern European Higher Education" and "A European Model for Writing Support" for context description). Romanian academic writing conventions have crystallized in the last two centuries under French (and to a lesser extent German) influences. The French model held particular appeal as part of Romania's attempt to assert itself as a Romance culture, which is a strong component of the Romanian national identity. Grammar and citation norms were centrally elaborated by the Romanian Academy and made unitary throughout the country. This has changed radically in the years after 1989, with the institutional, social, and political transformations that took place in the country. A significant factor has been the increasing impact of English, which in Romania is not only due to the general tendency of using English for communication in academia worldwide, but also because it is perceived as a means for modernization and integration. The normative role of the Academy has weakened, with individual instructors or faculties now often preferring the international writing conventions of their discipline to the Academy norms.

Simplifying the picture, before 1989, in Romanian higher education, student writing was used mainly for assessment and to demonstrate knowledge and was not strongly linked to research and thinking, particularly at the undergraduate level. Written tasks were often restricted to written examinations or to compilation of sources. The pre-1989 writing culture, still strong today in some disciplines (such as history or Romanian, inherently more connected to the Romanian tradition), focuses on writing as a product rather than a process. The teaching of writing is usually implicit, with the exception of formal aspects such as citation norms. Good writing is seen as grammatical correctness and compliance with norms. Beyond these persists the largely Romantic view of writing as inspiration rather than skill; students are, rather than become, good at writing. Overall, there is less writing in Romanian higher education, especially at the undergraduate level, than in some other traditions (e.g., the German or the English one). There are no general first-year composition courses and there is no tradition of one-on-one tutorials.

In recent years, however, many of these aspects have been changing, particularly under the above-mentioned influence of internationalization and under the impact of English writing conventions and pedagogies. There has been an increasing number of writing courses at universities, and other means of writing support have begun to emerge (e.g., online or print how-to guides for writing different types of theses that are often translations or adaptations of English sources). These are a result of the increasing need for academic writing support for both students and researchers. Following Romania's adoption of the Bologna Process, all undergraduates have to write a bachelor's thesis at the end of their first 3 years of study. In many cases, this is the first longer research work they write, and there is a need to mediate between high school writing (often either reproductive or focusing on informal self-expression) and writing to communicate one's research in a university setting. Students are often required to do much more writing at the postgraduate level and may later do research and/or a PhD, for which they often feel unprepared. Increased student mobility and the fact that academics are now required to publish internationally suggest that students and staff should be able to have some cross-cultural writing skills (for instance, the ability to adapt to different genre conventions than those they are used to in their home environment), and may need support in acquiring them. The need for writing support has therefore emerged as a necessity in many disciplines, and teachers have been quick to respond to this need by creating various forms of support specific to each faculty or discipline, but these are usually not brought together in an institutional writing development strategy.

3 The Idea of a (Timișoara) Writing Center

Our own response to the issues was the result of our joining the LIDHUM[1] project (2011–2014), an institutional partnership project led by the Zurich University of Applied Sciences and involving cooperation among universities in Switzerland, Macedonia, Romania, and Ukraine. At the moment of joining, the five Timișoara project members, coming from the Romanian Studies and the Modern Languages and Literatures departments at the Faculty of Letters, History, and Theology, all had some experience teaching writing, either separately or within our courses or as part of our bachelor's and master's thesis supervision, but there were no writing courses as such in our faculty. We had not undertaken writing research, and, despite the fact that we were very much aware of the need to provide some sort of writing support to our students, we were unaware of the options that we could consider. Throughout the years of the project, we had the opportunity to get involved in writing research, were able to connect to the international writing community, and had the

[1] Literacy Development in the Humanities: Creating Competence Centres for the Enhancement of Reading and Writing Skills as Part of University Teaching, SCOPES no. IZ74Z0_137428, project funded by the Swiss National Science Foundation and co-coordinated by Prof. Dr. Otto Kruse and Dr. Mădălina Chitez.

opportunity to see a few successful writing center models, all of which gradually crystallized the idea of a writing center at our own university as an attempt to respond to the needs for writing development and writing support we identified within our institution. A writing center would provide support for students whose writing skills needed to be built up gradually beginning with their first study cycle. It would also respond to the demands of staff members who needed support in writing for publication, especially international publication. We could disseminate what we knew in terms of how writing can be used in the classroom and as an effective learning tool. We could then possibly expand to the outside community and provide services to professionals. We would help prepare students for the writing they might do at the workplace after graduation. We would cater to writers in Romanian and to the increasing demand for writing in English, and most importantly we could do research in order to better understand the specific problems of writing in our institution and how best to address them. In short, the idea seemed a powerful one, and one that had the potential to improve teaching, learning, and research in our university in many significant ways. We now had to find out if it could actually be implemented in our context and to come up with a realistic way of setting it in motion.

To start with, we were less bound by some of the issues that confront writing centers worldwide, such as the idea of the writing center as a "fix-it shop" (North 1984, p. 435), which gave us more freedom but also meant that we had no traditions that we could resort to when we tried to explain to others what a writing center does and little we could look at in other people's practice in our own country. Therefore, we drew on some of the models that we got acquainted with during the years of the project in an attempt to create a flexible and sustainable model to suit the needs of our institution: two well-established UK models, the Centre for Academic Writing at Coventry University and the Thinking Writing program at Queen Mary, University of London, as well as two further initiatives in Central and Eastern Europe, the Center for English Academic Writing at the Ivan Franko University of Lviv, Ukraine, and the English wRiting Improvement Center (ERIC) at the University of Łódź, Poland.

A first challenge was finding the position of the writing center within the institution. Creating a new structure at the institutional level tends to be difficult in our university, especially due to financial reasons. It would have been a viable option with a self-financing unit, but we believed it was going to be problematic to guarantee continuous external funding for the center, so we had to find a way to integrate it within existing structures. There was also the related issue of what to call the new writing center: In Romania, a "center" is traditionally a research center, accredited according to a set of well-established criteria by the Ministry of Education. We thought it might be beneficial to preserve this label since, after all, we intended to do research. The disadvantage would be creating a certain amount of confusion as to the actual function of the center, which would have other purposes besides research. Its staff would be researchers, but would also be involved in teaching and counseling. It would also mean entering a strict accreditation process, with demanding requirements especially for center directors, who have to be senior professors with a long activity in the field, and this was not our case. A closer equivalent would

have been a "department," but creating a new department was not a possibility, given the recent trend to fuse existing departments in an attempt to save money. Another option would have been to integrate the center within one of the structures that offered help and counseling to students or within a language development center. However, at the time of our initiative, the university did not have a center for student counseling that matched what we intended to do, and a language development center would have risked blurring the identity of the writing center and deviating it towards English language teaching and editing staff articles for publication.

Our eventual response was to establish our Centre for Professional and Academic Writing within the Faculty of Letters, History, and Theology, and we accredited it at the faculty level in the spring of 2013. We decided to call it a "center" both in the hope that we might obtain Ministry accreditation as a research center in the long run, and because it would make it easier to explain the role of the center by referring to the international writing center movement. We decided to use existing resources in the process, both in terms of material resources (teaching and office space, server space, computers, and furniture, which we obtained with the help of our faculty, who understood the need for writing development and supported us wholeheartedly) and staff positions. Existing staff with an interest in academic writing development—the LIDHUM project team—would allocate part of their existing workload within the faculty to academic writing-related activities such as doing writing research, engaging in writing-related projects, and attempting to include writing courses in the faculty curricula and then teaching them. We felt we had a good mix of backgrounds and expertise to start. Two of us were linguists, three were literature scholars with experience in teaching creative writing (and thus with an interest in writing as a process and as a skill), two were Romanian language scholars, and three brought in experience with English language teaching and pedagogy. We were allocated a room in the main university building, and a website in Romanian was set up on university web servers (http://csap.uvt.ro/) explaining our concept of the writing center and the services we would offer. The center thus acquired an institutional identity and could in the long run develop in several possible ways, e.g., by offering writing courses to other faculties, acquiring external funding for development and research, and developing a peer tutor team.

This formula is probably closest to other Eastern European initiatives such as the Lviv writing center, which also uses existing staff who work on a voluntary basis. Our center, however, tried to avoid relying extensively on voluntary work; therefore, we attempted to make the teaching of writing and research on writing part of our regular workload. Also, unlike the Lviv writing center, which began by providing writing support in English, we wanted to focus on writing in both English and Romanian from the outset, as it would enable us to address more of our institution's needs. We also wanted to address the complex issues of the current impact of English in Romanian academia and give our work a multilingual/multicultural dimension, as we have the belief that students and staff should not merely transition towards English writing but should also be able to write for different communities and negotiate different writing cultures.

We were also inspired by the concept of the writing center as a "hub" for writing development and research (Deane and Ganobcsik-Williams 2012). We believe that our center could serve as a way of bringing together all the efforts for writing improvement scattered around the university. In the long run, as we accumulated expertise, we felt that, given the small number of staff members, we could maximize our impact in the institution if we adopted a model similar to the Thinking Writing program at Queen Mary, University of London (McConlogue et al. 2012). This program would allow us to work together with subject teachers to help them develop writing courses and writing tasks for use with their students. This was also in keeping with Harbord's suggestion that "the introduction of writing into the curriculum of universities in the region can best be achieved by a collaborative effort between retrained teachers of English, refocused teachers of local languages, and faculty in the disciplines" (Harbord 2010, p. 2).

In what concerns support for students, we also considered the possibility of gradually setting up a peer tutor team, which researchers such as Harris (1995) see as one of the defining features of a writing center. Such a team of volunteers functions effectively at the English Writing Improvement Center at the University of Łódź, Poland. This was postponed for a later stage in the development of the center because of the workload it would involve not only in recruiting and training the tutors, but also in running the center and introducing the academic community to the very idea of tutorials, and not least because we would have liked to reward students for their work within the center, and it was difficult to find a way to do so.

All in all, we began with a vague idea of what the center would be and with an awareness of a multitude of possibilities. We thought this was the right way to proceed, given the newness of the enterprise in our institutional context. In any case, we felt that the writing center should take on a double role: that of understanding and diagnosing, especially given the lack of scholarship on academic writing in Romania, and that of effecting change by disseminating expertise and finding solutions to existing problems. This change would be triggered by encouraging reflection rather than by proposing alternatives, by bringing writing into discussion, and by working from within already existing structures.

4 Developing the Writing Center

The first activity of our writing center was the training of the core team, which took place mainly within the LIDHUM project; further training opportunities were also taken. We began to engage in research that would help us understand the specifics of academic writing in our institutional and national context. We held a meeting on writing with colleagues in the faculty to discuss preliminary research results and what opportunities for writing improvement we had at faculty level. Taking advantage of a process of reaccreditation of the faculty's study programs, we managed to introduce several writing courses in the curriculum at both the bachelor's and master's levels in both Romanian and English. In April 2014, we organized the Academic

Writing in Eastern Europe conference as an attempt to initiate discussion on writing in the region and to establish contacts among national and regional researchers. We also organized a number of writing workshops on specific topics for students and staff (in English and Romanian) on topics that were of immediate relevance to them (e.g., teacher feedback, how to avoid plagiarism, and how to write a conference paper).

These activities have proved sustainable, and they have continued after the completion of the LIDHUM project. The center members have since responded to invitations to teach courses on writing within various settings such as writing for research courses to PhD students of the university (in Romanian) and a training course in assessing writing for high school English teachers done in collaboration with the School Inspectorate of Timiș County. The bachelor's and master's level writing courses have continued and in one of the English study paths there is now an attempt at continuous development from an introductory one-year academic writing course (in the second year of the bachelor cycle) to an optional thesis writing course (in the first semester of the third year) to a course focusing on writing research papers (at the master's level).

A number of recent developments may prove to be opportunities for the development of the writing center. As of the 2015–2016 academic year, the university officially recognizes credits obtained by students doing volunteer work, which would make it possible to reward a volunteer peer tutor team of undergraduate and/or postgraduate students for holding tutorials at the center. In 2013, the university introduced transversal elective subjects that students must choose from faculties other than those in which they are studying, which has given us the opportunity to offer an academic writing course. Recently, the rector of the West University of Timișoara stated the university's commitment to improving academic writing by announcing an intention to introduce academic writing courses in all programs at the university, especially in the context of raising the quality of theses and research produced by our students and faculty and of taking a pedagogical approach to eradicating plagiarism, which may prove to be another opportunity for us to disseminate our expertise.

Some limitations and risks have also become apparent in the years since the establishment of the center. One of these is our association with English and the English department, which soon triggered requests for us to do English language training for staff instead of writing development. Given the current need for English language training, editing papers for publication, and even translation, our center faces the choice of either expanding its reach to include a language support unit (which would carry the risk of obscuring the writing support purpose of the center and even taking over the greater part of its activity) or of continually struggling to explain that this is not included in the center's services.

Attempting a bottom-up approach in a university in which most important decisions are implemented from the top down also has its risks, and it involves convincing various stakeholders of the long-term usefulness of one's enterprise. Still, in the absence of dedicated funding, the most challenging aspect has been not so much the day-to-day functioning of the center, which is manageable with existing faculty

resources, but the human resources. Balancing the existing workloads of staff and their pre-existing academic interests with writing center work has proved difficult. Allocating an amount of one's workload to writing center work is a viable strategy, but the share that can be dedicated to this work is vulnerable to external pressures, given our many other research, teaching, or administrative duties. Expanding the number of staff members involved in writing center work would be the logical solution, but this is difficult to accomplish in the absence of dedicated funding, especially since there are as yet no opportunities to specialize in academic writing at our university (e.g., no PhD programs in the field). Some of our initial plans have therefore developed more slowly than intended, such as the desire to work with subject teachers, which has so far only materialized into one pilot collaboration project between our center and our colleagues from the history department.

5 Concluding Remarks

At the outset, our writing center model was, to our knowledge, the first initiative of its kind in Romania. In the meantime, we have learned of another initiative at the Ștefan cel Mare University in Suceava, which has attempted to establish itself using a different model: that of offering paid services to the academic community (tutorials for students, editing services for staff, etc.), and one at Babes-Bolyai University in Cluj-Napoca. It remains to be seen whether one of our models will prove the most effective in the long run or whether we will have to find different formulas for writing support. In any case, our writing center initiatives will have to be flexible and adapt to the transformations that take place in our universities and in our society as well as be open to new opportunities and connections to institutional developments.

So far, we feel that our initiative has proved worthwhile in terms of improving writing support in our institution as well as in creating expertise in academic writing and starting a discussion on academic writing. Given the existence of many different writing-related initiatives scattered throughout higher education institutions in Romania at the moment, establishing a writing center or another type of writing research and/or support unit can be a powerful tool to bring all these initiatives into contact, facilitate exchange of ideas among those who are engaged with writing development, and generate solutions for writing improvement. Lack of institutional funding is a serious limitation, but not an insurmountable one. As has been noted so many times before and has been confirmed by writing centers worldwide, a writing center is not so much a room in an institution as it is a group of people committed to what they are doing.

References

Bräuer, G. (2002). Drawing connections across education: The Freiburg writing center model. *Language and Learning Across the Disciplines, 5*(3), 61–80.

Deane, M., & Ganobcsik-Williams, L. (2012). Providing a hub for writing development: A profile of the Centre for Academic Writing (CAW), Coventry University, England. In Thaiss et al. (Eds.), *Writing programs worldwide: Profiles of academic writing in many places. Perspectives on writing* (pp. 189–202). Fort Collins, Colorado: The WAC Clearinghouse and Parlor Press Retrieved from http://wac.colostate.edu/books/wpww/ [15 July 2014].

Dobbins, M., & Knill, C. (2009). Higher education policies in Central and Eastern Europe. Convergence toward a common model? In: Governance. *An International Journal of Policy. Administration, and Institutions, 22*(3, July 2009), 397–430.

Harbord, John. 2010. Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Stakeholders and directions in initiating change. *Across the Disciplines*, 7. Retrieved from http://wac.colostate.edu/atd/articles/harbord2010.cfm [15 July 2014].

Harris, M. (1995). Talking in the middle: Why writers need writing tutors. *College English, 57*(1 (Jan.)), 27–42 Retrieved from: http://www.jstor.org/stable/378348 [15 July 2014].

Harris, M. (1985). Theory and reality: The ideal writing center(s). *The Writing Centre Journal, 5.2/6.1*, 4–10.

McConlogue, T., Mitchell, S., & Peake, K. (2012). Thinking writing at Queen Mary, University of London. In Thaiss et al. (Eds.), Writing programs worldwide: Profiles of academic writing in many places. Perspectives on writing (pp. 203–211). Fort Collins: The WAC Clearinghouse and Parlor Press. Retrieved from http://wac.colostate.edu/books/wpww/

North, S. M. (1984). The idea of a writing center. *College English, 46*(5), 433–446. https://doi.org/10.2307/377047.

Part II
Research in Writing: Case Studies in L1

Academic Writing in a Russian University Setting: Challenges and Perspectives

Irina Shchemeleva and Natalia Smirnova

Abstract Competence in academic writing among university undergraduates has been a key area of research for over the last 30 years. However, the dominant status of English as the lingua franca of the global academic community has led to substantial changes in the academic language landscape of non-Anglophone countries. In particular, local traditions and practices of L1 academic writing within a university context tend to be under-supported while L2 (English) academic writing experience is treated as a top teaching priority.

The present study, carried out with the help of the LIDHUM project team, reports results on the current role of academic writing in L1 vs. L2 in Russia. A questionnaire was developed for first- and third-year undergraduates of a leading national research university to answer such questions as: whether academic writing plays an important role in the university, whether L1 writing is supported, which L1 and L2 written genres students use, how much time students spend on classroom-based vs. home-based writing, whether written tasks require critical thinking competence, whether academic writing is supported, and how writing skills are developed.

The chapter focuses on L1/L2 similarities and differences as well as on first-year undergraduates' (i.e., entry-level) writing competence vs. third-year students' perceptions of writing skills. The study likewise reflects on developmental needs, which are also relevant for the European context.

Keywords Academic writing · Writing competence · Writing survey

I. Shchemeleva (✉) · N. Smirnova
Department of Foreign Languages, National Research University Higher School of Economics, St. Petersburg, Russia
e-mail: ishemeliova@hse.ru; smirnovan@hse.ru

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_6

1 Introduction

Academic writing competence among university undergraduates has been a key area of research for the last 30 years. The Anglophone countries, in particular the US and the UK, have been the main contributors to research in this field (see also chapter "A European Model for Writing Support"). These English-speaking countries have produced the main stream of research in the field of writing, which means that most studies have been related to writing in English (both by native and non-native speakers).

The dominant status of English as the lingua franca of the global academic community has led to substantial changes in the academic language landscape of non-Anglophone countries. English is increasingly regarded as the primary medium of university instruction and the core language of academic communication among scholars. As a result, local traditions and practices of native language (L1) academic writing within a university context tend to change while English (L2) academic writing experience continues to be seen as the top teaching priority.

Two key factors, Anglophone research in writing/teaching writing and the dominance of the English language, have directed the main strands of research into academic writing across various levels such as genre analysis, text ethnography, linguistics, and teaching perspectives. However, despite the existence of scientifically robust and widely applied approaches to developing writing competence, the field of academic writing research is only just emerging in some non-Anglophone periphery countries, including Russia, where writing has traditionally been under-researched and belongs primarily to studies in linguistics.

This chapter suggests that an examination of periphery geographical contexts can bring fresh insights to the field of global writing researchThe main aim of the study is to investigate whether writing competence is seen as a key skill that students should acquire during their university education in Russia and whether they receive sufficient support in terms of their writing skills development within the university setting.

The main research questions are as follows:

- Does academic writing play an important role in the university?
- What written genres do students need and use?
- Is writing competence supported in the university context?
- How are writing skills developed in the university?

We also aimed to ascertain students' perceptions of the kind of assistance that might be given to them by the university to develop their writing skills.

The chapter primarily highlights the importance of writing competence by reviewing theories of academic literacies, especially those developed by UK scholars, and American approaches to writing competence. It then focuses on studies into the role of writing competence in a number of Eastern European countries, which share a similar historical background with Russia. Finally, the chapter presents a case study of teaching and learning practices and attitudes related to writing at a

Russian university, the National Research University Higher School of Economics. It then draws a number of conclusions and identifies some implications for further research in the field of academic writing.

2 The UK Perspective: Academic Literacies Approach to Writing Competence

The UK has taken the leading role in defining not only the concept of literacy, but also academic literacy/literacies. Although the term *academic literacy* continues to be debated and re-evaluated, its key features remain constant.

Literacy can be defined as sufficient control of a secondary discourse (Gee 1989), which is related to all types of institutions with the exception of one's home and goes beyond the family and peer group (Gee 1989). When students enter a university, they need to be prepared to be active participants of a secondary discourse at a more sophisticated level. This means they should be taught to speak, write, and develop arguments as well as do research at the higher educational level.

Academic literacy is related to a wide variety of competencies and social and academic characteristics, which together lead to students' academic progress and success in their studies. Researchers adopt different methods in defining the academic literacy concept. It can be related to behaviors and practices which maximize successful interaction and self-fulfillment in a particular social context (Freire 1989). Lea and Street (1998) highlight the importance of study skills within a particular discipline as a central element of academic literacy. Bartholomae (1985) considers the concept in relation to students who are just entering higher education and explains that students need to be taught to speak the language of the new discourse and to appropriate its conventions.

Despite a wide variety of approaches to defining the notion of academic literacy, writing competence is often claimed to be its common characteristic within the higher education framework and academic community (Bartholomae 1985; Bizzell 1982; Lea and Street 1998). This skill of written communication forms the basis of interaction among peer students, teaching, and administrative staff and is related to the ability to become educated rather than to the content of education (enhancing academic literacy).

As a result, a great deal of attention has been given to supporting the writing skills of students at a pre-university level when all students (including foreign students) are required to undertake preparatory courses in academic writing (Murray 2010). At higher levels, nowadays, students have access to the support of academic writing centers where they can receive advice on developing their writing skills, proofreading, or help with writing a particular genre (e.g., master's thesis, report) in the language of instruction. Overall, writing competence is seen as a critical skill, and its development at university is well supported.

3 The US Perspective: Writing Skills in WAC and WID Approaches

Writing has been widely incorporated into teaching and learning in the educational framework of the US (see also chapter "A European Model for Writing Support"). The idea that thinking skills are closely interconnected with writing skills is reflected in the writing-to-learn approach (as opposed to writing to produce), which seems to be the main tool to develop discipline-specific knowledge and skills (Delcambre and Donahue 2012; MacLeod 1987; Russell et al. 2009; Tynjälä et al. 2001). This approach means that students become active participants and meaning-makers in the educational process (Boscolo and Mason 2001).

Writing has become a central focus at the university level as new knowledge and new critical competencies can be developed by exposing students to substantial writing experience (Council of Writing Program Administrators et al. 2011). As a result, apart from traditional first-year writing (composition) courses aimed at learning how to produce academic and disciplinary genres, students are increasingly engaged in writing activities within Writing Across Curriculum (WAC) and Writing in Disciplines (WID) approaches (Russell et al. 2009).

WAC is an approach to university teaching where writing competence is seen as a tool to acquire new knowledge. Its key principles can be integrated naturally into the teaching of any discipline and provide undergraduates with the opportunity to analyze and think critically about what and how they learn. Research shows that writing to learn activates students' metacognition substantially if they have an extended period of writing experience (Delcambre and Donahue 2012).

Unlike WAC, WID actively employs writing within a particular discipline. Students acquire new disciplinary knowledge and learn thinking patterns within the discipline as well as its key genres and writing traditions. Writing activities include producing particular genres (all characteristics of a disciplinary text) with a particular focus on writing as a process (MacLeod 1987). This approach can be implemented by either teachers of academic writing or teachers of the discipline, who can work independently or in collaboration in teaching academic genres and disciplinary thinking (MacLeod 1987). MacLeod (1987) emphasizes that, despite the fact that WAC and WID approaches prove to be beneficial, they face common challenges. She identifies two key elements that hinder teaching success: students' unpreparedness for extensive writing experience and subject teachers' lack of relevant competences and knowledge in integrating the key writing principles.

Both approaches have led to significant changes in the higher school curriculum design and teaching staff qualifications. The switch from writing to produce to writing to learn requires the re-evaluation and restructuring of the instructional framework, knowledge assessment approach, and the set of key competences that should be developed at the given stage of education. Moreover, teachers also need to possess certain knowledge and skills to integrate writing components into their courses.

4 Academic Writing Competence in Eastern Europe and Russia

Traditionally, the concept of literacy in Russian scholarship has been mostly limited to primary and secondary school students' abilities in reading, writing, and mathematics (numeracy) (Tumeneva and Kuzmina 2013). Numerous studies have focused on measuring these skills and assessing the overall literacy level of children entering primary, secondary, and high school. However, little research has been conducted into the measurement of literacy levels among Russian university undergraduates (Korotkina 2009).

According to research into writing traditions by Harbord (2010), there were similar education systems in many Eastern European countries prior to the collapse of the USSR. In general, writing competence was not regarded as a key skill and was not treated as a goal in teaching and learning (Harbord 2010). Writing was also rarely used in knowledge assessment and academic progress measurement. A key genre traditionally produced by university students was lecture note-taking or literature review notes. Written papers (often referred to as "reports") primarily sought to measure how much a student had read in a subject and were limited to a summary of the relevant literature. Harbord concludes that the ability of students to write was related to their knowledge of the subject and its content and facts rather than to their writing skills.

Kruse (2013) similarly reaches the conclusion that within the context of Eastern Europe there has been no systematic teaching of writing as a particular competence that should be developed. Writing was commonly linked to thinking abilities, and, as a result, students were taught to think critically rather than to write, i.e., to use the language of instruction to communicate their thoughts (Kruse 2013).

Although there has recently been a shift in Russian Higher Education from a culture of oral assessment (widespread in Soviet times when the majority of exams were oral) to written exams, there has been no systematic teaching of writing. In most educational settings in modern Russia, writing to produce is still the dominant approach, which means that the majority of teachers prioritize the quality of the written product. They tend to neglect the importance of the process of writing itself as a productive activity that allows for the fostering of critical thinking skills. As a result, students are not offered special courses in writing (Shchemeleva and Smirnova 2014).

The only exception is academic writing courses in English (L2) that are given to students in many Russian universities. As a result, local traditions and practices of L1 academic writing within a university context tend to be under-supported, while L2 academic writing experience is seen as a top teaching priority. This situation, in which academic writing is taught primarily through English while teaching of writing in L1 is neglected, is typical of other Eastern European countries (Harbord 2010).

Only recently has the role of writing competence and teaching writing in the language of instruction received the attention of the research community. A key

concept at the last European Association of Teaching Academic Writing (EATAW) conference in 2013 (http://www.asszisztencia.hu/eataw2013) was multilingualism (Chitez and Kruse 2012). This means that students have to master academic skills (including writing competence) in different languages of instruction. Along with that trend, instruction in native languages is increasingly being overtaken by instruction in English as the lingua franca. As a result, students have to learn to deal with two discourse realities: one in their native language and the second (most commonly English) in another language.

The first successful example of a multilingual approach to teaching can be seen at the Center for English Academic Writing at the Ivan Franko National University of Lviv, Ukraine. This center aims to develop academic skills in both English and Ukrainian, and the native language is seen as the primary basis for academic skills development.

Substantial research has been carried out by the project Literacy Development in the Humanities (see chapter "Studying and Developing Local Writing Cultures: An Institutional Partnership Project Supporting Transition in Eastern Europe's Higher Education"): Creating Competence Centres for the Enhancement of Reading and Writing Skills as Part of University Teaching. This example of a shared effort in transforming higher education and fostering an academic literacies approach involves universities in multiple countries such as the Ss. Cyril and Methodius University of Skopje (Republic of Macedonia), Ivan Franko National University of Lviv (Ukraine), Kyiv Mohyla Academy (Ukraine), West University of Timișoara (Romania), and Zurich University of Applied Sciences (Switzerland). The result of this successful and productive collaboration was the first Conference on Academic Writing in Eastern Europe (AWEAST), organized by the Centre for Academic and Professional Writing at the Faculty of Letters, History, and Theology of West University of Timișoara, Romania, which marked the establishment of the writing center as a result of the LIDHUM project (http://csap.uvt.ro/aweast).

These few yet successful examples of local and international collaboration in fostering academic skills show that although Eastern European countries vary in their institutional and educational frameworks, academic literacy, including its key critical component of writing, requires further research.

5 Case Study

This study was conducted at St. Petersburg campus of the National Research University Higher School of Economics (NRU HSE), which was chosen for the following reasons: It sets high educational standards, employs highly qualified staff, and has demanding entry-level requirements. Importantly, the institutional standards of higher education developed by the university identify students' ability to write as one of the key competences (Smirnova and Shchemeleva 2015). All these factors make the NRU HSE a good site for research as they allow for the investigation of best local practices of fostering the development of students' writing skills in higher education.

The present study is in line with as well as under permission of the Eastern European project Literacy Development in the Humanities: Creating Competence Centres for the Enhancement of Reading and Writing Skills as Part of University Teaching.

5.1 Participants and Procedures

Two questionnaires were developed for first-year (269 undergraduates) and third-year (162 undergraduates) Bachelor of Arts (BA) students majoring in economics, management, sociology, and law. The key goal was to compare and contrast the experiences of students at the university entry stage with the experiences of those in their third year of study. The first-year students were given a questionnaire during their first week at the university, i.e., before they were exposed to any writing requirements in a new educational institution. The first-year questionnaire aimed to investigate the writing experience the students had been exposed to at school as well as their perceptions of writing skills at the university entry level. The response rate was 39.6%. Similarly, the third-year students were given a questionnaire to examine the writing practices of students who had already undergone 2 years of university study. The response rate was 39.2%.

All questionnaires were anonymous, and the participants were informed of the research framework and agreed to participate. The data collection and processing was carried out by a team of researchers in the Department of Foreign Languages.

5.2 Methods

Data Collection

Two LIDHUM project-based questionnaires were developed for first- and third year students. The original LIDHUM questionnaire was adapted to better reflect the research context. The majority of questions originated from the LIDHUM survey, and only the genres in question were substantially modified. In the original version there were 14 options, to which we then added eight more genres that are common in Russian educational institutions. The English-medium original questionnaire was translated into Russian.

Third-Year Students' Questionnaire

The questionnaire for third-year students contained eight sections:

1. Personal data
2. General questions on writing in your study program
3. The process of writing and feedback

4. Text genres and writing practices
5. Self-evaluation of the competences in academic writing
6. "Good writing"
7. Study competences
8. Writing support

The main aims of the questions were to identify how much the students write at the university, what genres they produce, and how they assess their abilities in writing. The questions also aimed at determining the students' understanding of what good academic writing is and their attitudes towards possible types of writing support that is currently or could potentially be provided by the university in the future.

First-Year Students' Questionnaire

The main aim of the first-year students' questionnaire was to study their writing skills at the university entry level, so the sections from the third-year students' questionnaire devoted to writing practices at the university level were removed. Thus a shorter version of the questionnaire was created, containing five sections (personal data, general questions on writing at school, text genres and writing practices, "good writing," and writing support) that aimed, first and foremost, to identify what writing practices had been used by students at school. For this purpose, some of the questions were reformulated. Therefore, the question from the third-year students' questionnaire, "Which of these genres do you write in your classes?" was changed to "Which of these genres did you write in your classes at school?" while all the options in both questions were identical.

Data Analysis

The questionnaires from both groups of students were collected in September 2013 and were processed using SPSS statistics software.

6 Results and Discussions

6.1 Writing Component across the University Curriculum

To assess the importance of writing skills at the university level, it was necessary to find out what percentage of university courses include a writing component. To answer this question, third-year students' responses were analyzed. The results suggest that writing does play an important role in the Russian university education:

More than half of the university disciplines require students to produce written texts that are graded (about 80% of students said that in 75% of courses their texts are graded). The majority of courses (75–100%) include a writing component: either writing in class or written homework assignments. Eighty percent of the respondents spend 3–9 h per week on writing tasks.

6.2 Written Genres

To identify what key genres students can produce at the entry level and to learn what new academic genres they have to master at university, a comparative analysis of the two groups' questionnaires was carried out.

It appears that students are exposed to a number of similar genres at both school and university. These genres are (1) academic summaries of different academic sources, or *referat*; (2) written reports on a subject; (3) notes during classes; (4) summary of a previously read text; and (5) written in-class exams.

The first two genres are examples of genres that were widespread in the Soviet educational system and, as our results show, are still used today. They both require students to write on a certain academic topic and to summarize the content of different sources without making their own judgments about either the topic or the read sources. Academic summaries are longer than written reports on a subject.

It is important to note that the first four genres in the list imply the reproduction of information and do not normally require either analyses of the material or the writer's own conclusions. All these genres originate from the Soviet system of education in which the only approach to writing was "writing to produce," which demanded that students demonstrate new knowledge and which focused solely on content. The fact that these genres are common today, both at school and university, may suggest that this approach is still used in the Russian educational system.

This analysis has also revealed another group of academic genres that are only common at the university level: (1) notes for seminars, (2) notes during lectures, (3) term papers (course papers), and (3) written texts for oral presentation.

The most commonly used genre in this group, notes for seminar, is another example of reproductive writing that does not imply any analysis of information. Students usually take written notes summarizing the theoretical works they read in preparation for seminars in order to be able to reproduce its content in class.

The comparison of first- and third-year students' responses suggests that the four genres included in this group are unknown to the students at the beginning of their time at university; therefore, it is possible to conclude that in the process of university studies, particular attention should be given to assisting students in mastering these genres (which does not mean neglecting instruction on the more familiar ones).

6.3 Writing Instruction and Feedback

The next point in the research was to discover what kinds of writing skills support, if any, students receive at the university. For this purpose, we focused on the third-year students' answers to the questions about writing instructions and feedback, which are two key components in fostering the development of writing.

While instructions for writing tasks are more commonly given in written form, about 38% of students said that oral instructions are often given. This means that while fulfilling written tasks, the students have no chance to read the task. They can only rely on their memory or their notes, and the only source they can refer to for assistance is other students.

The results show that teachers do discuss with students how a particular type of assignment should be fulfilled (about 60% chose the variants "often" or "always" when asked about the frequency of such discussions with teachers). Nevertheless, it is mainly their peers whom students ask for help with a writing task (78% chose the option "often" or "always"). These answers signal that in many cases students lack both instructions and explanations from teachers.

The analysis of questions relating to feedback indicates that students rarely receive any written or extended feedback on their texts. In most cases, feedback is only made up of teachers' notes on the final draft or brief oral feedback. It is clear from the questionnaire results that students mostly receive a final score, which, as a rule, simply indicates the level of students' performance without explaining the results or providing ideas on how to improve their writing.

Overall, two issues related to feedback might be identified here: First, in many cases feedback is insufficient, and, second, it is aimed at grading the paper rather than improving and developing students' writing skills.

6.4 Students' Perception of Good Writing

To analyze the final question in our research (How are writing skills developed in the university?), the questionnaire responses from both groups of students were compared. Our aim was not to evaluate how correct or incorrect students' perceptions of "good academic writing" are, but to identify the differences in the perceptions of the two groups of students. Our hypothesis was that if third-year students' understanding of the norms and conventions of academic writing differs from that of first-year students', it might suggest that students receive some training in writing at the university. Surprisingly, the responses from both groups were very similar in 9 out of 12 cases when asked about the importance of different characteristics of "good academic writing" (Table 1).

The perception of a number of characteristics, such "terminological accuracy," where there is a less than 1% variation in all three options, is almost identical in both groups. In some cases the difference is more obvious. Closer examination of the figures for "objectivity" reveals a somewhat surprising difference: the percentage of

Table 1 Perceptions of good academic writing: First- and third-year students

Characteristics of good academic writing	Very important		Important		Average importance	
	1st year students (%)	3rd year students (%)	1st year students (%)	3rd year students (%)	1st year students (%)	3rd year students (%)
Elegant language	40.2	33.8	40.2	39.4	17.4	20.6
Terminological accuracy	60.8	59.4	31.3	31.3	7.2	7.5
Supporting arguments with evidence	72.2	69.0	22.6	21.5	4.8	5.7
Convincing arguments	68.5	58.1	27.1	31.9	3.7	6.3
Critical thinking	55.3	59.4	31.9	27.5	10.3	9.4
Clear thematic structure	42.0	43.1	31.5	28.8	18.5	20.0
Basing the text on sources	28.8	31.3	36.7	38.8	25.2	19.4
Objectivity	58.5	47.8	29.2	39.0	9.0	9.4
Figurative language	40.5	35.0	22.3	18.8	8.8	5.0

third-year students who consider this a very important characteristic of academic writing is lower than that of first-year students. This may suggest that the perception of this characteristic changes with time, but not in the desired direction, provided that students receive training in academic writing skills.

The characteristics of "good academic writing" that are perceived differently by the two groups have been identified, although the difference is not substantial. They include (1) avoiding the use of the first person singular; (2) simple, comprehensible language; and (3) creative ideas. Thus, more first-year students consider creative ideas, as well as simple comprehensible language, to be important in academic writing while more third-year students believe that it is important to avoid the first person singular pronoun.

One possible explanation for the fairly similar perceptions of "good academic writing" might be that the ability of students to write well is not given enough attention at the university. This conclusion supports the idea that students' needs in developing academic writing skills tend to be under-supported in the Russian system of higher education. As a result, students are expected to complete written assignments and demonstrate their excellence in writing their ideas and critical thoughts, although the university fails to provide support or teach them how to do so effectively.

6.5 Writing Support at University

To find out what kind of writing support might be offered at the university, third-year students were asked how instructions for writing during their studies could be improved.

From the students' point of view, the most effective ways to improve writing skills are getting more feedback on their texts (86% consider this option either "rather helpful" or "very helpful") and better writing instruction in existing courses (79%) provided by academic lecturers. More than half of the students (6569%) believed that online support in the form of additional materials, instructions, models of good papers, and special training in writing to improve powers of expression might also prove helpful.

Students do not consider professional tutoring from a writing center very effective: Only 53% of students considered this option "rather helpful" or "very helpful." However, it is hard to interpret the value of writing center support, because Russian universities have no such centers for academic writing, and it is still not clear why over half of the students were positive about the writing assistance they can get from such centers.

7 Future Research Implications and Limitations

This study contributes to the investigation of the complex nature of teaching academic writing at the university level and also stresses the importance of developing academic writing skills in L1, although it is limited to only one Russian university. A larger-scale investigation and longitudinal comparative study (including collaboration with academic writing researchers both at the local and international levels) that includes a number of universities across different regions may provide more insights into the particular geopolitical space in the field of academic writing.

8 Conclusions

This study confirms that developing academic literacies, particularly academic writing skills, has been one of the key priorities in university education in the US and the UK for many years, with some European countries following suit. In many Eastern European universities, including Russian universities, the development of L1 writing skills is still not an objective of higher education. This finding signals that in times of increasing academic mobility and educational globalization, the Russian system of higher education should find a way to better itself. It should be fair and achieve a good balance between teachers' expectations and demands as well as teaching and support in order to prepare students to meet these high standards.

The results of this study have shown that despite the fact that writing is an important component of the curriculum, Russian students do not have special support in writing skills development. At the university level, students' ability to write is very often viewed as something that naturally develops and does not require any training. The discrepancy between the demand to produce written texts and the lack of instruction on how to do it should be addressed by university authorities as well as by professors and instructors working with students.

These research results are consistent with the conclusions drawn by Harbord (2010) about the prevalence in the educational systems of former Soviet states of written genres that require reproduction of the sources students have read. They call for a revision of the general approaches to student assessment and a restructuring of the framework for writing instruction.

References

Bartholomae, D. (1985). Inventing the university. In E. Cushman, E. R. Kintgen, B. M. Kroll, & M. Rose (Eds.), *Literacy: A critical sourcebook* (pp. 511–524). Boston: Bedford.

Bizzell, P. (1982). College composition: Initiation into the academic discourse community. *Curriculum Inquiry, 12*, 191–207.

Boscolo, P., & Mason, L. (2001). Writing to learn, writing to transfer. In P. Tynjälä, L. Mason, & K. Lonka (Eds.), *Writing as a learning tool. Integrating theory and practice* (pp. 83–104). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Chitez, M., & Kruse, O. (2012). Writing cultures and genres in European higher education. In M. Castelló & C. Donahue (Eds.), *University writing: Selves and texts in academic societies. Studies in writing series* (Vol. 24, pp. 151–175). Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Council of Writing Program Administrators, National Council of Teachers of English, and National Writing Project. (2011). Framework for success in postsecondary writing. Retrieved 2014, July 1 from: http://wpacouncil.org/files/framework-for-success-postsecondary-writing.pdf

Delcambre, I., & Donahue, C. (2012). Academic writing activity: Student writing in transition. In M. Castelló & C. Donahue (Eds.), *University writing: Selves and texts in academic societies. Studies in writing series* (Vol. 24, pp. 129–149). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Enhancing academic literacy in the first year: A quality enhancement plan for Gordon College. Retrieved from: https://www.gordonstate.edu/pdf/GC_QEP.pdf

Freire, P. (1989). *The pedagogy of the oppressed*. New York: Continuum.

Gee, J. P. (1989). Literacy, discourse, and linguistics: Introduction. *Journal of Education, 171*(1), 5–25.

Harbord, J. (2010). Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Stakeholders and directions in initiating change. *Across the Disciplines*, 7. Retrieved 2014, July 1 from: http://wac.colostate.edu/atd/articles/harbord2010.cfm

Korotkina, I. B. (2009). Gramotnost' v vek informatsionnykh technologiy: V poiskah kontseptual'nogo edinstva // Obrazovaniye i obshchestvo, 4. Retrieved 2014, July 1 from: http://www.jeducation.ru/4_2009/125.html (in Russian).

Kruse, O. (2013). Perspectives on academic writing in European higher education: Genres, practices, and competences. *Revista de Docencia Universitaria, 11*(1), 37–58.

Lea, M., & Street, B. (1998). Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach. *Studies in Higher Education, 23*(2), 157–172.

Macleod, S. (1987). Defining writing across curriculum. *WPA: Writing program administration, 11*(1–2), 19–24.

Murray, N. (2010). Conceptualizing in English language needs of first year university students. *The International Journal of the First Year in Higher Education., 1*(1), 55–64.

Russell, D., Lea, M., Parker, J., Stree, B., & Donahue, T. (2009). Exploring notions of genre in "academic literacies" and "writing across the curriculum": Approaches across countries and contexts. In C. Bazerman, A. Bonini, & D. Figueiredo (Eds.), *Genre in a changing world* (pp. 395–423). Fort Collins: WAC Clearinghouse.

Shchemeleva, I., & Smirnova, N. (2014). Akademicheskoye pis'mo v vuze: keys analiz NRU HSE. In I. Shchemeleva (Ed.), *Homo Loquens: Aktual'niye voprosy lingvistiki i metodiki prepodavaniya inostrannyh yazykov. Vypusk 6* (pp. 268–279). St. Petersburg: Asteriks (in Russian).

Smirnova, N., & Shchemeleva, I. (2015). Rol' pis'ma v sovremennom universitete: Analiz zarubezhnoy praktiki obucheniya academicheskomu pis'mu. *Vestnik SPbGU. Seriya 9, Vol.2*, pp.185-–197 (in Russian).

Tumeneva, Yu. A., Kuzmina, Yu. V. (2013). Chto dayot god obucheniya rossiyskomu shkol'niku. Na materialah PISA-2009: Gramotnost' chteniya. *Journal of Educational Studies, 1*, 107–135 (in Russian).

Tynjälä, P., Mason, L., & Lonka, K. (2001). Writing as a learning tool: An introduction. In G. Rijlaarsdam (Series Ed.). P. Tynjälä, L. Mason, & K. Lonka (Vol. Eds.), *Studies in Writing: Vol. 7. Writing as a learning tool: Integrating theory and practice* (pp. 7–22). Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Reader Versus Writer Responsibility Revisited: A Polish-Russian Contrastive Approach

Łukasz Salski and Olga Dolgikh

Abstract Since Hinds (Writing across languages: analysis of L2 text. Addison-Wesley, Reading, 1987) proposed his distinction between reader- and writer-responsible languages, there has been little research into what exactly makes a language, or text, either reader- or writer-responsible. Likewise, little has been done to estimate to what extent a specific language represents either side of the dichotomy (Salski, PASE studies in linguistics. Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego, Łódź, 2007). At the same time, apart from concern about sensitizing students to discrepancies between how texts are composed and perceived in different languages (Golebiowski, Transcultures 1, 2005), a growing need to teach clarity of expression in L1 writing can be observed in some contexts.

This chapter is an attempt to take Hinds' dichotomy a step further, looking into text features that constitute components of reader and writer responsibility. The authors propose a tool for investigating the phenomenon and report on a pilot action research project in which they put it into practice. Implications of such an investigation pertain not only to L2, but also to L1 academic writing instruction, where student writers need to learn to respond to the expectations of the discourse community they are about to enter.

Keywords L2 writing · L1 writing · Reader versus writer responsibility · Academic literacy · Discourse community · Intercultural communication

Ł. Salski (✉)
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, Institute of English Studies, University of Łódź, Łódź, Poland
e-mail: lukasz.salski@uni.lodz.pl

O. Dolgikh
Moscow Institute of Physics and Technology, Dolgoprudny, Russia

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_7

1 Background

Anyone who has taught writing in a foreign or second language has probably heard from her/his students that what they are taught in their classes is not compatible with their previous writing instruction and the style they were instructed to adhere to when writing in their first language. In fact, this has to do not only with writing in a foreign or second language, it may also be true about any context in which students are taught to write for an audience they are not familiar with. On the other hand, L2 writers who have received a limited amount of writing instruction and practice in their first language, which is often the case of Polish and Russian students, may have little audience awareness or understanding of what their prospective readers expect of them. For these students, the difficulty inherent to learning to write in a second language doubles as, apart from mastering a second language, they also need to develop writing skills that they cannot transfer from their native language writing experience. Consequently, the term *reader versus writer responsibility*, coined by Hinds (1987), is related not only to language-specific text features but also to differences between educational traditions characteristic of different language cultures.

In this pilot study, we approach the phenomenon of reader versus writer responsibility as a derivative of cultural and educational traditions that are manifested in writers' practices and beliefs. It is the clash of these language-specific traditions that makes L2 writers compromise on their beliefs and adapt their behaviors, thus adding to the difficulty of learning to write in a second language.

2 L1 and L2 Writing

The ability to write has undoubtedly been of paramount importance to the development of civilization and culture. Written text allows transfer of information not only over distance, but also over time. At the same time, writing is by far the most complex of the four language skills, as it requires operating on the level of symbols (written forms) rather than words themselves (naturally acquired spoken forms). Psycholinguistics sees learning to write as transition from spontaneous and subconscious speech to consciously controlled language behavior (see Vygotskij 1999; Leont'ev 2014). As opposed to spoken native language, the ability to use written language—both L1 and L2—can only be developed in a systematic learning process (Leki 1992). Within this process, the learner develops awareness of varied language items and the ability to use them by making conscious choices.

While the ability to write—understood both as literacy and as text composition skills—is obviously formed at and by school, academic writing can only be taught at university. That is part of the professional training that university students need to undergo in order to become fully capable members of the academic community. As Bure et al. (2003) point out, "together with a body of specialist knowledge, every

professional receiving higher education should master a certain minimum of knowledge, habits, and skills connected with the academic style and register used within his/her field" (p. 3, authors' translation). However, as Bure et al. further admit, paradoxically, academic communication is not always taught by higher education institutions. An analysis of academic textbooks and publications on native language writing pedagogy shows that academic written communication is rarely taught or analyzed in the Russian context (see chapter "Academic Writing in a Russian University Setting: Challenges and Perspectives"), with the exception of few works: Mitrofanova (1976), Zamurueva (2008), and Romanova (2006). This is also true for the situation at Polish universities. In Poland, although L1 writing manuals do exist (e.g., Kuziak and Rzepczyński 2000; Pawelec and Zdunkiewicz-Jedynak 2003), none of them is devoted specifically to academic writing in Polish.

In a way, foreign language writing is privileged. Students majoring in foreign languages receive instruction in writing as part of their general language development program. So, even if separate classes are devoted to academic writing and communication, they are considered necessary because they give foreign language students the opportunity to develop their competence in the language, not because they offer general practice in the skill of writing. Moreover, both Polish and Russian native speaker authors have published L2 English academic writing textbooks (Adams-Tukiendorf and Rydzak 2003, 2012; Dubovik et al. 1990; Yakhontova 2003; Markovina et al. 2013). This is, of course, justified because writing in a second or foreign language poses additional difficulties as it requires student writers to operate in a non-native tongue. Also, ESL writers are naturally concerned about their language development and, as Leki (1997) observed, they "consistently ask for the linguistic tools they need to succeed in their work in English" (p. 243). On the other hand, this preoccupation with foreign language forms leads to increased attention paid to both what should be, as the term itself suggests, lower-order concerns and the prevalence of the product approach in L2 writing instruction. What adds to the problem is that foreign language instructors who share native language with their students may be less sensitive to the less tangible higher-order concerns.

At the same time, it has to be remembered that writing skills are typically transferred from one language to another. As has been reported by Skibniewski (1988) as well as by Skibniewski and Skibniewska (1986), writing experience has more influence on the efficiency of writing processes than whether the writers are writing in their native or a foreign language. This has at least two important implications for L2 writing instructors. On the one hand, writing skills may be transferred from one language to another, so writing practice reaches beyond language boundaries, and, consequently, student writers can rely on the skills they developed practicing writing in other languages. On the other hand, in contexts where native language writing is underdeveloped, the need to master writing skills adds to the challenge of learning a foreign language. Yet it could also be concluded that academic writing skills need to be developed regardless of the language, as it takes time and practice to develop expertise in writing in any language.

3 Discourse Community

A parallel can be drawn between acquiring or learning a language, seen as becoming a member of a speech community, and learning to write academically, which allows entering a specific discourse community (see also chapter "In at the Deep End: The Struggles of First-Year Hungarian University Students Adapting to the Requirements of Written Academic Discourse in an EFL Context"). However, while the former may be a spontaneous, subconscious process, the latter must involve carefully planned activity. It is, then, crucial to look at what a discourse community is and what becoming a member of a discourse community involves. Swales (1990) lists six conditions that a group must meet in order to become a discourse community:

- Members share a "set of common public goals."
- Members use specific agreed "mechanisms of intercommunication" within the community, even if individual members do not interact directly.
- Members use these mechanisms mainly to "provide information and feedback."
- Members use "one or more genres" to achieve their aims.
- Members communicate using a set of "specific vocabulary."
- Becoming a member requires achieving a certain level of "content and discourse expertise." (pp. 471–473)

The above conditions refer to proficiency in any specific language, although only to some extent. Clearly, *common public goals* can be achieved both in one's mother tongue and in a second or foreign language. *Mechanisms of intercommunication*, even in L1, have to be learned anew since they differ from those used by the more general speech community. Additionally, novice writers have to master the rules of the *genres* as well as *specific vocabulary* used both in L1 and L2 discourse communities. It should be concluded that participation in any discourse community typically involves knowledge and skills independent of or in addition to general competence in any specific language. What is more, members of any L1 speech community are likely to belong to a L2 discourse community, in which case it would be natural for them to communicate with each other in the second language.

Therefore, it may be concluded that academic writing, not only in L2 but also in L1, should be taught explicitly and practiced in meaningful realistic tasks that raise students' awareness of the expectations of their new audience and show the characteristic features and genre requirements of the discourse community they are aspiring to enter. Explicit and systematic instruction in this area is likely to enhance the process of internalizing knowledge and mastering skills that the students will need to become fully efficient members of the target academic discourse community.

It seems self-explanatory that in order to help their students enter their respective academic discourse communities, tertiary education institutions, apart from teaching *content*, should also take care to develop students' *discoursal competence*. This involves mainly, though not solely, teaching academic writing skills. Assuming that development of knowledge and skills necessary to achieve this aim can happen

naturalistically through immersion may not only prolong the process, but also expose students to the risk of failure in high-stakes situations such as taking essay examinations or submitting term papers. It is natural that even native speakers of a language, entering a specific discourse community, need to be acculturated into this community, as some of the norms respected in it are new to them or may be hard to accept. As part of their initiation into the discourse community, novice writers need to receive support from their more experienced colleagues, a process that resembles how children's language development is supported in their zone of proximal development by other, more experienced, language users.

4 Academic Literacy

Membership in an academic discourse community is marked, first of all, by academic literacy, which can be defined as "a composite of the generic, transferrable skills that are required of and developed by academic study and research" (University Skills Center 2014). Reaching far beyond the scope of the common understanding of the term *literacy*, academic literacy comprises a number of skills that are crucial to communicating efficiently in the academic context but are not required to the same extent in everyday communication. These are:

- knowledge of how academic discourse is structured and presented,
- knowledge of how academic discourse is produced,
- communication,
- creative and critical thinking,
- independent learning, and
- respect for the work and effort of others (University Skills Center 2014).

Universities need to realize that if high school graduates possess communication skills that only go as far as general language use, they have yet to develop skills of academic communication. Needless to say, educating novice academic writers entails socializing them for the role that is defined and imposed on them by the discourse community they are entering. They have to learn about academic discourse, how to comprehend it, and how to produce it. Likewise, it seems that many freshmen need to work on their learning and thinking skills, and these are closely related to respecting the intellectual property of other members of the discourse community.

It seems that the process of developing the six groups of skills mentioned above, postulated by the University Skills Center, University of Essex, rather than being seen just as spontaneous enculturation, should assume the form of informed and structured teaching that addresses the specific requirements of a given discourse community. Thus students can learn to avoid misunderstanding, misinterpretation, and errors of inappropriateness, and since effective communication involves mutual understanding, writing instruction needs to focus on making student writers aware of their prospective readers' expectations and teaching them how these expectations

can be fulfilled. Drawing on these assumptions, the present study attempts to extract and examine the components of what Hinds (1987) labeled as reader and writer responsibility in written communication.

5 Reader vs. Writer Responsibility

Hinds (1987) observed that written communication in various languages may require different amounts of effort from the reader and writer. As a consequence, second language writers, who are used to a certain balance of responsibility between the reader and the writer, typical of communication in their native language, may experience difficulties meeting the expectations of their new L2 audience. Ultimately, they may fail to communicate their message in a second language. According to Hinds, in English "it is the responsibility of the speaker to communicate the message"; on the other hand, Hinds gives the example of Japanese, where "it is the responsibility of the listener (or reader) to understand what it is that the speaker or author had intended to say" (p. 65).

Everyday L2 writing instruction experience shows that both Polish and Russian appear to be reader- rather than writer-responsible languages (cf. Salski 2007). At the stage of writing practice, these differences do not have to create communication problems; however, instructors sharing their students' native language have to be careful not to overlook them. This may happen if, not being distracted by unfamiliar rhetoric of the text, they overemphasize lower-order concerns of their students' texts.

Even though it cannot be denied that the reader versus writer responsibility dichotomy has a commonsense appeal, little has been reported with regard to any of the specific text features that account for a text being either reader or writer responsible. Therefore, before any investigation in this area is possible, it is crucial to establish criteria that may allow a text to be pronounced reader or writer responsible, or, more accurately, place a text along the reader/writer responsibility continuum. To this purpose, the present authors have analyzed a number of English-language writing manuals (Dollahite and Haun 2011; Leki 2002; Arnaduet and Barrett 1984), and, on this basis, have suggested a list of requirements that writers are instructed to meet in order to ease the reader's task, i.e., a list of text features that make a text writer-responsible:

- A text should contain a sentence summarizing its main idea.
- Ideas should be formulated in clear and precise language.
- The writer and the reader should share content and formal schemata.
- The writer should to take into account the reader's knowledge.
- The writer should guide the reader through the text with appropriate linking devices.
- Organization of ideas should be made transparent by dividing the text into paragraphs.

- The content, rhetoric, and form of the text should match the reader's expectations.

Therefore, it can be concluded that a number of beliefs underlie writer-responsible text composition:

- The writer is aware of the reader's expectations of content, rhetoric, and form of the text.
- The reader expects to be guided through the text by means of logical paragraphs, appropriate linking devices, and clear and precise expression.
- The writer's overriding aim is to communicate with the reader rather than to display his or her own knowledge or command of the language.
- The writer accepts his leading role in the success of communication.

The pilot study reported on later in this chapter is based on the assumption that bearing the previously mentioned points in mind, writers may find it easier to create texts that will be writer-responsible, i.e., easier to follow and less demanding for the reader. However, the authors do not claim that the list is exhaustive; on the contrary, it can be seen as one of the aims of the present project, or similar studies to be undertaken in the future, to elaborate upon it further.

6 Methodology

In order to investigate representation of the concept of reader versus writer responsibility in students' writing practice and beliefs, a questionnaire was designed on the basis of the items listed in the previous section. The questionnaire included two sections: one consisting of 18 items referring to writers' beliefs and the other one comprising 19 items dealing with writing practice. In each of the items in both sections, the responses were given on a 5-point Likert scale. The degrees of the scales were adjusted to the content of the questions: Part one used an intensity scale (*definitely yes*, *yes*, *not necessarily*, *rather not*, *definitely not*), and part two used a frequency scale ([*nearly*] *always*, *frequently*, *sometimes*, *rarely*, [*almost*] *never*). Table 1 below presents the results of the questionnaire for both groups. Since the respondents received the questionnaire in their respective native languages, an English translation has been used, and all the questionnaire items are arranged in two sections as they originally appeared in the questionnaire.

In spring 2014, the survey was administered to first-year students of the Institute of English at the University of Łódź, Poland, and at the Moscow State University of Mechanical Engineering (MAMI) in Moscow. Each group responded to the questionnaire in their native language: Polish and Russian, respectively. There were 32 students of English philology in the Polish group and 37 students of linguistics in the Russian one. Although it was not stated explicitly whether the Polish group should respond referring to their experience of writing in Polish or English, it has to be remembered that because of their learning experience, most, if not all, of the

Table 1 Results of the questionnaire

	Polish group ($N = 32$)		Russian group ($N = 37$)	
Do you believe that …	M	SD	M	SD
a sentence summarizing the main idea of the text helps the reader understand it?	4.24	0.91	4.22	0.82
how easy it is to understand a text depends on the clarity of the writer's expression?	4.24	0.54	4.59	0.55
success of written communication depends on how much writers' and readers' knowledge overlap?	3.6	0.74	3.57	0.99
communication is easier if writer and reader rely on the same principles of text organization?	3.2	0.7	3.73	0.99
the writer should take into account the reader's knowledge of the subject of the text?	3.9	0.89	4	0.97
linking words help the reader follow the writer's reasoning?	4	0.7	4.24	0.64
division of a text into paragraphs helps the reader understand it?	4.52	0.6	4.32	0.82
the reader should be left to reach his/her own conclusions?	3.86	0.91	3.78	0.98
effectiveness of communication depends on the reader's effort to understand it?	3.57	0.87	3.81	0.94
effectiveness of communication depends on the writer's effort in writing it?	4	0.63	4.14	0.63
the reader expects the writer to be able to organize the text logically?	4.6	0.59	4.59	0.69
the reader expects the writer to formulate ideas clearly and precisely?	4.1	1.04	4.56	0.69
the reader should extract from the text the most important information himself/herself?	3.62	0.92	3.51	1.1
reading consists of reconstructing the writer's intentions?	2.75	1.17	3.81	0.97
reading consists of decoding meanings conveyed by the writer?	3.2	1.03	4.05	0.88
reading involves cooperation in creating meaning?	3.81	0.98	3.54	0.96
writing consists of recording thoughts and information?	4.24	0.7	4.76	0.43
writing is communicating with the reader?	4.48	0.68	4.32	0.85
When writing academic texts, do you …	M	SD	M	SD
assume that the reader will easily understand what you had in mind?	2.71	1.35	4.62	0.59
think that you should make it easier for the reader to understand your intentions?	4.24	1.04	3.95	0.94
try to make your point as clear to your reader as possible?	4.57	0.68	4.76	0.49
expect your reader to make an effort to understand the text?	3.76	0.83	3.08	1.16
assume that you demonstrate to your reader your knowledge and intelligence?	4.14	0.85	4.4	0.9
assume that you demonstrate to your reader your views and beliefs?	3.76	1	4.24	1.09
take care not to surprise your reader?	2.38	1.02	2	1.2

(continued)

Table 1 (continued)

	Polish group ($N = 32$)		Russian group ($N = 37$)	
know who you write for?	3.81	0.87	4.03	1.09
consider your readers' knowledge?	3.9	0.94	3.08	1.23
consider your readers' expectations regarding text organization?	4.29	0.85	3.57	1.07
take care to make your text understandable to your reader?	4.71	0.56	4.59	0.64
take care to make your text free from language errors?	4.9	0.3	3.95	0.91
take care to adjust your text to the standards required for the given genre?	4.81	0.4	4.27	0.87
pay attention to maintaining the appropriate language register?	4.43	0.81	3.64	1.14
take into account that the reader may evaluate you personally on the basis of your text?	3.95	1.32	3.27	1.19
check that the text renders your intended meaning accurately?	4.38	0.97	4.14	0.79
ensure that the reader will find it easy to understand your text?	4.29	0.9	4.22	1
think about how the reader may receive it?	4.05	0.92	3.92	1.01
ask someone to read your text and comment on it before you submit its final version?	2.62	1.63	2.7	1.61

Polish respondents had written significantly more in English (as a foreign language) than in Polish (their native language).

7 Results and Discussion

The results of the questionnaire were obtained by assigning a numerical value from 5 (the most intensely/frequently) to 1 (the least intensely/frequently) to each individual response. Mean values as well as standard deviation of the responses were then calculated for each of the questions, and these are presented for both groups in Table 1.

As can be seen, generally speaking, there are few significant differences between the responses in both groups. This is not surprising, given the cultural background of both languages. This can be observed in the example of digressiveness, a text feature whose intensity seems directly proportional to reader responsibility: The more digressive a text, the more challenging it is for the reader to decode the writer's message. That Polish and Russian are similar in their use of digression can easily be seen by reading texts in both languages. This has also been confirmed by *thought pattern* diagrams proposed by Kaplan (1966) and Duszak (1997), who observed that digression characterizes both Russian and Polish texts, respectively. Also, Polish and Russian writers typically have a similar experience of learning to write, as in both educational systems, writing in the native language receives relatively little attention.

In both groups, as a rule, lower mean values of responses are accompanied by higher values of standard deviation, which indicates that a decrease in mean values results from more varied responses rather than from consistently lower responses throughout the group. Still, responses to a few questions differed between the groups. In the first part, referring to students' beliefs about writing, the average of the responses in the point on the reader's expectations of clear and precise expression on the part of the writer was over 0.5 higher in the Russian group than in the Polish one. Also, there were marked differences (of 0.85–1.06 points) in the answers to two questions about the nature of reading: The Russian respondents, to a larger extent than the Polish group, seemed to assume that reading entailed both reconstructing the writer's intentions and decoding meaning. By calculating the value of the point biserial coefficient, the level of correlation for these figures was established as mild. At the same time, it is worth noticing that the Russian group, more than the Polish one (4.76 vs. 4.24, respectively), saw writing as "recording thoughts and information" and less (4.32 vs. 4.48) as "communicating with the reader." All these figures, although they can be seen as a mere indication of tendencies, point to a slightly higher preference for reader responsibility in the Russian group.

The answers given in the second part of the questionnaire, focusing on writing practice, also confirm this tendency. First of all, the Russian students were more often ready to assume that their readers "will easily understand what they had in mind" than their Polish counterparts (4.62 vs. 2.71, respectively). In this point, the difference between the responses obtained from both groups was the biggest, and only here does the value of the point biserial coefficient (at the level of $rpbis = 0.678$) indicate a strong correlation between the native language of the respondents and their responses in the questionnaire. Furthermore, the Russian group, more than the Polish students, seemed to believe that in their writing they "demonstrate their views and beliefs" (4.24 vs. 3.76, respectively). Moreover, the Polish students claimed to take their reader's knowledge and expectations into account more often than the Russian group (3.9 vs. 3.08 and 4.29 vs. 3.57, respectively). It is interesting that the Polish students, more than their Russian peers, "expect their readers to make an effort to understand the text" (3.76 vs. 3.08, respectively). This figure, seemingly contrary to the general tendency observed in the findings, may be linked to answers given in the last question of the first section of the questionnaire, where the Polish group indicated that they believed writing to be an act of communication more than the Russian group.

The Polish group gave markedly higher-value responses in the three questions referring to writers' concern about formal aspects of the language. They more often "take care to make their texts free from language errors" (4.9 vs. 3.95 in the Russian group), they "take care to adjust their texts to the standards required for the given genre" (4.81 vs. 4.27, respectively), and they are also more concerned about "the appropriate language register" (4.43 vs. 3.64, respectively). Arguably, these figures, as well as the Polish students' increased awareness of the fact that they may be evaluated on the basis of their texts (3.95 vs. 3.27 in the Russian group), may be attributed to the fact that they write mainly in English as a foreign language. They

may also be used to being assessed on the basis of accuracy and formal aspects of the language they produce, rather than communicativeness or clarity of expression.

8 Implications and Limitations

The present action research project can only be seen as a pilot study. As such, it has served a number of purposes. First, it aimed to create and apply a set of criteria to operationalize the reader- versus writer-responsibility dichotomy in written communication. The study appears to confirm that the proposed criteria meet the expectations and create grounds for differentiating between aspects of the complex phenomenon of reader versus writer responsibility and analyzing them in detail. This may constitute a valuable supplement to contrastive rhetoric studies by focusing on the causes of how text is constructed rather than on just the final writing product (cf. Golebiowski 2005).

The established scheme may not only be used to compare or contrast writing habits and beliefs about rhetoric of texts used for intercultural communication: It can also be used in teaching writing in a second or foreign language, as well as to diagnose awareness of audience expectations in native language instruction. This can be especially true for novices entering specific discourse communities, for example, in the academic context. In this way instruction may be oriented more efficiently towards those areas of written communication that require more attention either in a particular cross-cultural context or in specific cases of individual student writers. Also, data obtained in this way may contribute to a clear culture-specific focus in training writing instructors and writing center tutors. Additionally, the questionnaire could be used to survey experienced writers in order to create a benchmark of reader versus writer responsibility in a speech community of a given language or in a specific discourse community. Consequently, novice writers' responses could be analyzed against such a "responsibility pattern," and their awareness of the expectations of their audience could be raised. Also, comparison of such patterns across languages or cultures could bring interesting observations and conclusions regarding intercultural communication.

Finally, the findings obtained in the study itself point to interesting observations. While Polish and Russian are not only related Slavic languages and have been proven to be similar by contrastive rhetoric research, they also appear similar in terms of the reader- versus writer-responsibility dichotomy. On the other hand, the findings of the study seem to indicate a tendency for Russian student writers to assume more responsibility on the part of their audience.

On the other hand, it has to be acknowledged that the study is burdened with several limitations. The most important reservation is the size and composition of the study groups. If the project is continued in the future, not only a bigger number of respondents is necessary, but also a more careful selection of the respondents. This would allow for the elimination of undesirable variables in the backgrounds of the groups, e.g., data obtained from language students need to be compared with

results from a compatible group of respondents majoring in the same language. This will allow reliable statistical analysis of the findings and generalization of conclusions. Another point is that this pilot study relied solely on declarative quantitative data. First of all, before any far-reaching general conclusions are drawn, the findings need validation. Also, in order to obtain more objective and reliable findings, in the future it will be necessary to include tasks in the survey that require performing actions such as identifying the topic sentence in a paragraph, inserting appropriate linking devices, and, possibly, reacting to or evaluating samples of text. On the other hand, collecting qualitative data, for example in interviews or retrospective protocols, would make it possible to obtain a more in-depth insight into the investigated phenomenon and into the beliefs and decisions behind text composition and written communication within speech and discourse communities.

9 Conclusion

Hinds's (1987) observation that in different languages writers and readers assume different roles in order to achieve their communicative goals offers a plausible explanation of a problem facing many novice writers, especially those learning to write in a second or foreign language in which distribution of responsibility differs from that in the learner's mother tongue. This is the case of both Polish and Russian learners of English as a foreign language, who often find it difficult to see their texts from the perspective of their prospective audience. For these students and their instructors, Hinds's dichotomy is a relatively straightforward means of rationalizing a fairly intangible problem, which otherwise remains in the sphere of "the feel of the language."

Similarly, teaching writing in the native language, particularly for academic purposes, can rely on Hinds's model because, like second language writing instruction, it initiates learners into a new community (the academic discourse community in this case), where communication follows different norms than those governing everyday discourse. In this way, novice writers can easily be equipped with the *mechanisms of intercommunication* necessary for efficient communication in the academe, which typically requires intercultural *discoursal competence*, even if one communicates in his or her native language.

The present study is an attempt to pin down a relatively elusive construct of the dichotomy between reader and writer responsibility. The proposed questionnaire may be seen as a possible heuristic for examining not just the bipolar dichotomic responsibility distribution in written communication in a given language, or rather culture, or in a particular discourse community. It seems that with a rigorous approach and careful analysis of the data, it may also be possible to establish a scale of reader versus writer responsibility that could be used to characterize, compare, and contrast different cultures. For teaching purposes, it may be even more beneficial to analyze the different aspects that contribute to the perception of a language being reader or writer responsible.

The authors hope that the study of reader and writer roles in written communication, initiated by Hinds and pursued in this pilot study, will continue to shed light on the multi-faceted phenomenon of written communication and contribute to the success of all those who learn and teach the complex skill of writing in the first or second language, for academic, professional, or private purposes.

References

Adams-Tukiendorf, M., & Rydzak, D. (2003). *Developing writing skills: A manual for EFL students*. Opole: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego.

Adams-Tukiendorf, M., & Rydzak, D. (2012). *Developing writing skills: A manual for EFL students* (2nd ed.). Opole: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Opolskiego.

Arnaduet, M. L., & Barrett, M. E. (1984). *Approaches to academic reading & writing*. Prentice-Hall Inc: Englewood Cliffs.

Bure, N. A., Bystryh, M. V., & Vishnjakova, S. A., et al. (2003). *Osnovy nauchnoj rechi: Uchebnoe posobie dlja studentov nefilologicheskih vysshyh uchebnyh zavedenij* (V. V. Himik & L. B. Volkova, Eds.). Moscow: Akademija.

Dollahite, N. E., & Haun, J. (2011). *Sourcework: Academic writing from sources* (2nd ed.). Boston: Heinle Cengage Learning.

Dubovik, M. E., Stulov, Y. V., & Dubovik, E. I. (1990). *A guide to written English*. Minsk: Vysheishaya Shkola.

Duszak, A. (1997). Cross-cultural academic communication: A discourse-community view. In A. Duszak (Ed.), *Culture and styles of academic discourse* (pp. 11–39). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Golebiowski, Z. (2005). Globalisation of academic communities and the style of research reporting: The case of a sociology research article. *Transcultural Studies, 1*(1), 57–73.

Hinds, J. (1987). Reader vs. writer responsibility: A new typology. In U. Connor & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 141–152). Reading: Addison-Wesley.

Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education. *Language Learning, 16*(1, 2), 1–20.

Kuziak, M., & Rzepczyński, S. (2000). *Jak Pisać?* Bielsko-Biała: Park.

Leki, I. (1992). *Understanding ESL writers: A guide for teachers*. Portsmouth, NH: Boynton/Cook, Heineman.

Leki, I. (1997). Cross-talk: ESL issues and contrastive rhetoric. In C. Severino, J. C. Guerra, & J. E. Butler (Eds.), *Writing in multicultural settings* (pp. 234–244). New York: The Modern Language Association of America.

Leki, I. (2002). *Academic writing: Exploring processes and strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Leont'ev, A. A. (2014). *Psiholingvisticheskie edinicy i porozhdenie rechevogo vyskazyvanija*. Moscow: KRASAND.

Markovina, I., Pisklakova, S., & Zhura, V. (2013). *Get ready for academic mobility! How to participate in an international conference: A tutorial on intercultural communication for the medical profession*. Moscow: Medical Information Agency.

Mitrofanova, O. D. (1976). *Nauchnyj stil' rechi: Problemy obuchenija*. Moscow: Russkij jazyk.

Pawelec, R., & Zdunkiewicz-Jedynak, D. (2003). *Poradnik Jak pisać?* Warszawa: Wilga.

Romanova N. N. (2006). *Specifika soderzhanija i metodov obuchenija monologicheskoj rechi studentov nefilologicheskih otdelenij vuzov* Post-doctoral defense presentation, Moscow State Pedagogical University, Moscow.

Salski, Ł. (2007). Reader and writer responsibility: Relevance for teaching English composition to Polish EFL students. In P. Stalmaszczyk & I. Witczak-Plisiecka (Eds.), *PASE studies in linguistics* (pp. 255–261). Łódź: Wydawnictwo Uniwersytetu Łódzkiego.

Skibniewski, L. (1988). The writing processes of advanced foreign language learners in their native and foreign languages: Evidence from think-aloud and behavior protocols. *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia, 21*, 177–186.

Skibniewski, L., & Skibniewska, M. (1986). Experimental study: The writing processes of itermediate/advanced foreign language learners in their foreign and native languages. *Studia Anglica Posnaniensia, 19*, 143–163.

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Boston: Cambridge University Press.

Vygotskij, L. S. (1999). *Myshlenie i rech'*. Moscow: Labirint.

University Skills Center. (2014). *What is academic literacy?* Retrieved from http://www.essex.ac.uk/skillscentre/academic_literacy/

Yakhontova, T. V. (2003). *English academic writing for students and researchers* (2nd ed.). Lviv: PAIS.

Zamurueva, N. A. (2008). *Sovershenstvovanie umenij i navykov pis'mennoj rechi studentov nefilologicheskih special'nostej*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Orlovskij Gosudarstvennyj Universitet, Orel.

Perceptions About "Good Writing" and "Writing Competences" in Romanian Academic Writing Practices: A Questionnaire Study

Cristina Băniceru and Dumitru Tucan

Abstract Recently, the status of academic writing and writing practices in Romanian academia has been the subject of ongoing debates. This increased attention to academic writing is largely due to attempts made to internationalize Romanian education and research. However, little has been done when it comes to empirically analyzing the specificity and dynamics of writing practices. In other words, a close examination of the main features of what defines good academic writing still needs to be carried out. Investigating common views about writing could offer not only an image of the cultural specificities of Romanian academic writing, but also a basis for re-thinking and re-organizing the teaching of academic writing. This presentation will report on the results of a questionnaire survey conducted in 2012 at the Faculty of Letters, History, and Theology of the West University of Timișoara as part of the LIDHUM project. The purpose of this analysis is twofold. First, we will analyze the responses to what "good writing" means to the students and teachers of the Faculty of Letters. Second, we will look into the teachers' responses regarding the required competences in academic writing and the students' self-evaluation of their own competences. Even though an examination of the general assumptions about what "good writing" means shows no significant differences between students and teachers, when it comes to the analysis of the students' self-evaluating answers and the required competences assumed by the teachers, some important discrepancies occur. In this chapter we will try to explain those differences, which are most likely the result of a lack of explicit instruction in the teaching of academic writing.

Keywords Questionnaire study · Academic writing in Romania · Good writing · Writing practices

C. Băniceru (✉)
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, West University of Timișoara, Timișoara, Timiș, Romania

D. Tucan
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Romanian Studies, West University of Timișoara, Timișoara, Timiș, Romania

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_8

1 Educational and Institutional Context

In the past few years, Romanian universities have become more concerned with the place occupied by writing in the overall Romanian academic culture. One major factor of recent interest in writing practices is decidedly the internationalization of Romanian education and research. This recent emphasis on the internationalization of Romanian education has positively affected the quality of both the research and the teaching of academic writing in our country. Students are now prepared to further their education or to pursue a career in an international context. The academic staff is also motivated and encouraged to access international networks of research and publish in quality research papers. Therefore, special emphasis has been given to academic writing, which has become an effective tool in assessing and analyzing the quality of Romanian higher education and research. However, little has been done when it comes to empirically analyzing the specificity of academic writing in Romania. Debates on two important aspects of writing, the quality of Romanian journals and plagiarism among students and researchers in our country, though important, have been rather marginal. To this we could add the lack of open discussions and few publications about the various writing traditions that have shaped Romanian academic writing today. Another neglected aspect is the teaching of academic writing in Romanian universities, which is rarely analyzed and, more importantly, seldom given the institutional support it requires.

Trying to detect and describe writing traditions in Romania is quite a difficult endeavor due to the scarcity of published material on the topic. However, what is obvious is that when it comes to writing, the models followed are implicit, namely practiced by imitation, as there has been little theoretical or methodological reflection on this issue. Additionally, academic writing in Romania has mainly been author oriented and not audience targeted, thus there has been a deep concern with style, sometimes to the detriment of clarity (Băniceru et al. 2012, p. 332). With the emergence of English as a lingua franca of international research (Firth 1996; House 2003; Mauranen and Ranta 2009) and the growing popularity of the Anglo-American model of academic writing among researchers worldwide, Romanian writing practices have undergone a subtle yet undeniable change. Moving away from the traditional model does not mean simply adopting a different style. The transition process is much more complex, as it implies internalizing several core principles, such as explicitness in both the teaching and practicing of academic writing and the practicing of writing by retracing logical structural and rhetorical moves. This should go hand in hand with a better understanding of writing practices in our country in order to outline an image of the specificities of Romanian academic writing. Understanding the peculiarities of Romanian academic writing and evaluating the impact of the Anglo-American model could function as a basis for rethinking and reorganizing the teaching of academic writing.

The present research is based on a questionnaire administered in 2012 and 2013 both online and on paper to the students and the academic staff of the Faculty of Letters, History, and Theology, West University of Timișoara. The distribution of the questionnaire was one of the main objectives of the international LIDHUM

project (Literacy Development in the Humanities: Creating Competence Centres for the Enhancement of Reading and Writing Skills as Part of University Teaching) a SCOPES institutional partnership between Switzerland, Macedonia, Romania, and Ukraine (see chapter "Studying and Developing Local Writing Cultures: An Institutional Partnership Project Supporting Transition in Eastern Europe's Higher Education"). The questionnaire covered five important aspects of the teaching of writing at university: main genres used for teaching, how writing is used for both teaching and writing, attitudes towards writing as a means of learning, and student writing competences and assumptions about "good writing." Initially part of a COST project, the questionnaire was designed by Otto Kruse and Mădălina Chitez (Chitez et al. 2015), and SPSS was used to process the data. Inside the LIDHUM project, it was administered to all participant countries in Eastern Europe (Romania, Macedonia, and Ukraine); thus, comparative studies were carried out in aspects such as genres and good writing. At our faculty, the Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, 114 of our students and 27 members of the academic staff answered these questionnaires.

The present chapter analyzes the responses given to two items covered by the questionnaire: what good writing is to both students and teachers and how they both address the importance of the required competences in academic writing. The examination of the general assumptions about what "good writing" means to both students and academic staff shows no important differences; however, there are significant dissimilarities when looking into how students evaluate their own writing competences and how teachers view the importance of the same skills. The results pinpoint students' lack of practice, lack of confidence when it comes to writing, and their rather intuitive understanding of terms. They also show the necessity of a better understanding of Romanian academic writing and its teaching at the university.

2 An Analysis of What "Good Writing" Means

Defining what good writing is has always been rather difficult due to the vagueness of the word *good* and the subjectivity attached to it. When it comes to academic writing, we have to bear in mind that most Romanian students are expected to know intuitively what a "good" paper should look like. What we witness, in most cases, is a lack of explicitness in instructions. When students are given a certain task, most teachers focus more on the scientific content of the paper and less on the way it is structured, organized, and worded. Thus, this lack of explicit guidelines has to be filled with the students' individual beliefs regarding good writing, which have been carried with them from secondary to higher education. To this we add cultural specificity, usually tied to specific national and language-related literary conceptions or biases. However, as stated above, academic writing in Romania is a confluence of influences, from the French model to the Soviet one to the more recent Anglo-American one, and is thus difficult to define.

Table 1 Estimation of "good writing"

"Good writing" items (high importance)	Faculty (%)	Students (%)
Terminological accuracy	88.9	91.2
Convincing arguments	92.6	87.7
Avoiding *I*	11.1	35.1
Figurative language	3.7	24.6
Critical thinking	88.9	64.9

In order to describe and quantify "good" writing, the latter was separated into three main item groups: language items (elegant language, figurative language, simple and comprehensive language, and avoidance of first person), organization and structure (clear thematic structure, supporting arguments with evidence, convincing arguments, and basing text on sources), and academic values (creative ideas, objectivity, critical thinking, and terminological accuracy). After having processed the answers of both students and teachers, we noticed no significant differences between the two groups. For example, both attach great importance to terminological accuracy (88.9% for faculty and 91.2% for students) and convincing arguments (92.6% for faculty and 87.7% for students). These results are not at all surprising since both terminological accuracy and convincing arguments are linked to a considerable degree to the disciplines students study and less to writing per se. When it comes to language items, the differences are more visible. The avoidance of the first person singular is of high importance for students (35.1%) while for faculty it is only (11.1%). Figurative language is seen as very important by only 3.7% of the teachers who took part in the survey as compared to 24.6% of the students. Critical thinking is another item where we can notice some differences: 88.9% of teachers attach great importance to it while 64.9% of students view critical thinking as significant (Table 1).

3 Preliminary Conclusions

The few differences between the students' and teachers' answers may indicate the fact that students have at least a theoretical understanding of what "good" writing should involve. They understand, at least theoretically, the importance of having convincing arguments, using accurate terminology, keeping an objective tone, and having a clear thematic structure. However, as opposed to their teachers, they still use the first person to a greater extent. One possible explanation could be their young personalities and their wish to make an assertive voice for themselves. Also, the different opinions concerning the use of first person are another result of the coexistence of more than one model of writing. Romanian academic writing, influenced by the French model, views the use of *I* with suspicion, preferring instead third person or even first person plural; however, the Anglo-American model

encourages the use of first person. Many of our students write both in Romanian and English, which could explain their confusion when they "move" from one cultural model to another.

Students' preference for figurative language stems from their preconceived ideas about writing and style. Academic writing is associated with elegant, even bombastic language, with elaborate sentences and sometimes even with high-flown style and excessive use of verbal ornamentation. One might speculate that these ready-made beliefs are secondary education remnants: the result of high school written compositions where pupils were encouraged to use commonplaces and ready-made metaphors.

4 An Analysis of Writing Competences

As stated, the second part of our chapter is dedicated to the comparative and contrasting analysis of the students' self-evaluation of competences in academic writing and the teachers' criteria in assessing these skills. There is a close connection between good writing and writing competences since the former constitutes the practical aspects of the latter. We separated writing practices into two main categories or items: the writing process (i.e., the research process and the reviewing process) and argumentation, structuring, and rhetorical skills. Each of these items is separated into subcategories as follows:

1. The writing process
    - Understanding and reflecting on research methods
    - Finding the relevant literature on a topic
    - Revising a text to make it linguistically correct
    - Using the right terminology
    - Summarizing research sources
    - Planning the writing process
2. Argumentation, structuring, and rhetorical skills
    - Structuring a paper
    - Supporting one's own point of view
    - Interpreting and integrating research findings
    - Referring to sources
    - Dealing critically with a subject
    - Expressing yourself precisely
    - Finding the right style for academic texts
    - Inserting and integrating tables and graphs into a text
    - Discussing theories
    - Writing a bibliography
    - Writing a stylistically elegant paper

Table 2 Writing practices

Writing practices	Faculty (very important) (%)	Students (very confident) (%)
Finding relevant source material	66.7	18.4
Expressing yourself precisely	66.7	25.4
Dealing critically with a subject	48.1	14.0
Understanding methods and reflecting on methodology	51.90	11.40

- Using writing to learn something new
- Keeping to schedule
- Assessing the impact of a text on the reader
- Handling writing problems and writing crises

The students were asked to say how confident they felt in mastering these competences, while teachers were required to evaluate how important these competences were when their students write a paper or a thesis in their disciplines. The comparison between the student satisfaction and the faculty's evaluation of the importance of writing practices could point towards areas that need more indepth study: skills either considered important by teachers but ignored by students or skills considered less important by teachers and evaluated positively by students. The results we gathered in the second part of our research show some important discrepancies between the students' self-evaluating answers and the required competences assumed by the teachers. When it comes to "finding relevant source material", 18.4% of the students felt very confident about that skill but 66.4% of the teachers considered it very important. Students (25.4%) positively evaluate their ability to "express themselves precisely" and teachers (66.7%) regard this competence as very necessary. "Dealing critically with a subject" was seen as significant by 48.1% of the teachers, and whereas only 14.0% of the students felt confident about it. Another considerable difference is seen when comparing the results for "understanding methods and reflecting on methodology": 51.9% of teachers consider it of utmost importance whereas only 11.4% of students feel confident about this particular writing competence (Table 2).

As can be seen, the answers for good writing are similar in most cases; however, when it comes to writing competences, answers vary considerably (Figs. 1, 2, 3, and 4).

One possible explanation could be students' lack of practice and, hence, lack of self-confidence when it comes to academic writing. During the 3 years of higher education they do not write enough, with most exams being question and answer based. Also, when they write, they are mostly evaluated for the content, that is for the discipline-specific knowledge. Therefore, the students have an intuitive rather than a practical understanding of the terms. To this we add a lack of explicit instruction that accompanies a given task. Students are expected to know how to write an essay, a research paper, or a laboratory report. The questionnaire was also translated from English, so the accurate meaning of certain terms may have been lost in translation (see also Bekar et al. 2015, p. 123). One example could be "critical thinking"

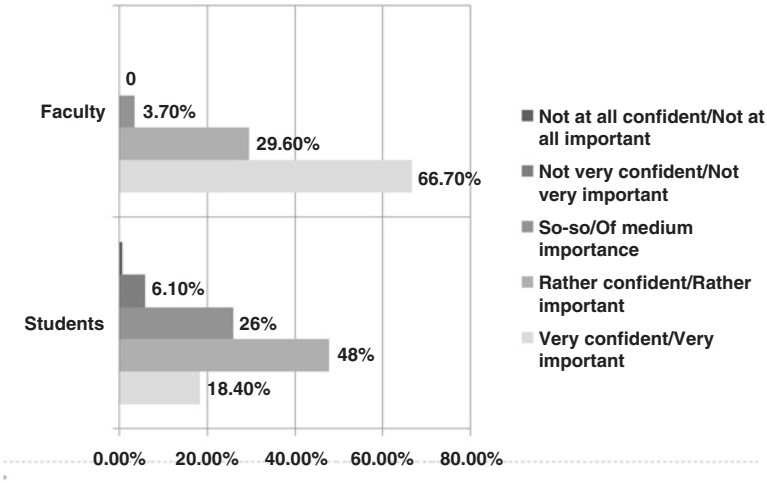

Fig. 1 Writing practices: differences between faculty and students in finding relevant bibliography

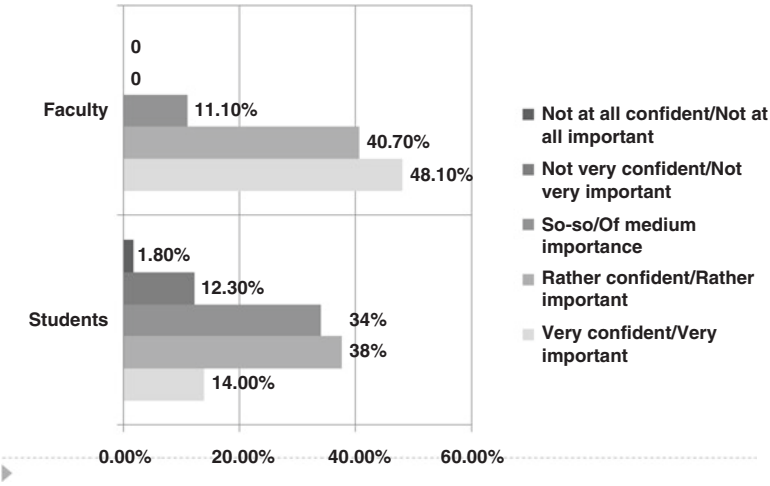

Fig. 2 Writing practices: differences between faculty and students in dealing critically with a subject

or "dealing critically with a subject." The word "critical" can have different connotations in Romanian, most of the time being associated with "to criticize," which has a negative meaning.

There is a close connection between "writing competences" and research practices, a connection that might not be evident for the majority of our students. Finding relevant source material, dealing critically with a subject, understanding methods and reflecting on methodology, and even expressing yourself precisely are all

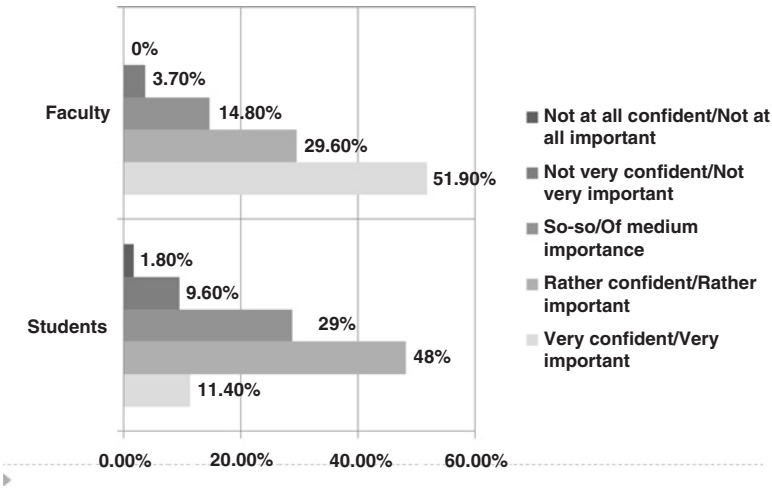

Fig. 3 Writing practices: differences between faculty and students in understanding methods and reflecting on methodology

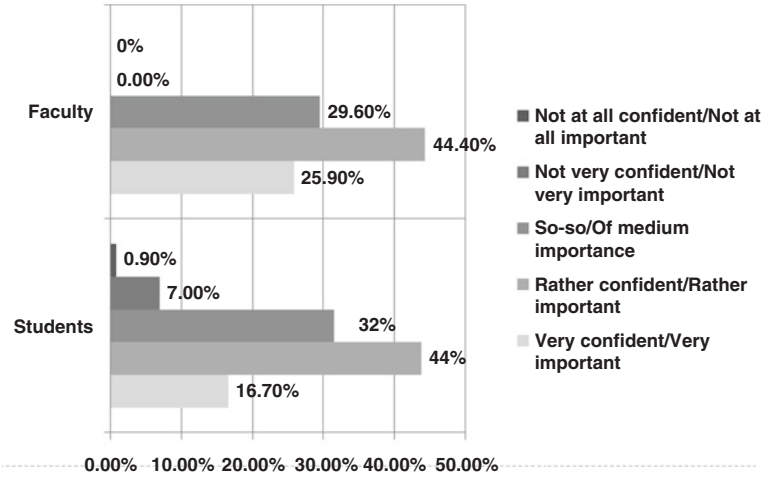

Fig. 4 Writing practices: differences between faculty and students in writing a stylistically elegant paper

necessary research skills. As stated, for most students, writing is a means of conveying the discipline-related knowledge accumulated during one semester. Only later, when they have to write their B.A. theses, do they start to familiarize themselves to writing as research. What is common practice for academic staff, which is therefore why they give importance to the above-mentioned competences, are at best theoretical notions for students since we do not teach them beforehand.

There is an evident lack of communication between the academic staff and students, a gap between what we teach and what we ask of them. All too often we assume they know intuitively how to write and how to do research. Apart from explicit guidelines, a greater importance should be awarded to writing as research practice. Finding methodology and reflecting on it, in the absence of actual practice, are abstract notions. Ideally, we should make our students aware of writing, firstly, as social interaction between writer and audience, as both construct meaning (Nystrand et al. 1993, p. 299) and, secondly, as social construction. Mainly because of their lack of actual research experience, students do not see academic writing as a means of belonging to discourse communities as these have been defined by Swales (1990, pp. 23–4) and more recently by Barton (2007, pp. 75–6). A more dynamic and research-oriented view on writing will help develop critical thinking and academic jargon. By giving them practice, we also build students' confidence and ensure that they will become independent researchers.

5 Conclusions

The analysis of this questionnaire allows us, first of all, an insight into what students understand by good writing and academic writing competences. Second of all, it offers an insight into what teachers expect from their students. It is a most valuable tool for the future teaching of academic writing that should include more explicit instructions to facilitate students understanding of what is required of them. We should also take into consideration the creation of textbooks focused on developing academic writing competences in Romanian. Together with textbooks, we should introduce more academic writing courses in both L1 and L2. The results of this questionnaire also highlight the need for introducing writing courses across disciplines. Even though our curriculum does not include such courses, teachers still expect a lot from their students. They expect them to be experienced researchers in their disciplines, a skill difficult to achieve without proper training. Introducing writing courses across disciplines is also one of the best ways to bridge the gap between how students evaluate themselves and what teachers expect from them. Also, importance should be given to writing as a tool for learning and as an integral part of research, as opposed to writing being seen as a means of demonstrating discipline-specific knowledge. For a better understanding of academic writing in Romania, it would be interesting to compare students' self-evaluation to how teachers assess students' writing competences.

References

Barton, D. (2007). *Literacy: An introduction to the ecology of written language* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.

Băniceru, C. A., Borchin, M. I., Doroholschi, C. I., & Tucan, D. (2012). Academic writing in Romania: A contrastive analysis of BA thesis introductions in Romanian and English. În

Qvaestiones Romanicae. Lucrările Colocviului Internaţional Comunicare şi cultură în Romania europeană. Szeged: JATE Press.

Bekar, M., Doroholschi, C., Kruse, O., & Yakhontova T. (2015). Educational genres in Eastern Europe: A comparison of the genres in the Humanities Departments of three countries. *Journal of Academic Writing, 5*(1), 119–132. Available from http://e-learning.coventry.ac.uk/ojs/index.php/joaw/article/view/164/168

Chitez, M., Kruse, O., & Castelló, M. (2015). *The European writing survey (EUWRIT): Background, structure, implementation, and some results* (Working papers in applied linguistics 9). Winterthur: ZHAW Zurich University of Applied Sciences. online at: https://digitalcollection.zhaw.ch/handle/11475/1016

Firth, A. (1996). The discursive accomplishment of normality. On "lingua franca" English and conversation analysis. *Journal of Pragmatics, 26*, 237–259.

House, J. (2003). English as a lingua franca: A threat to multilingualism? *Journal of SocioLinguistics, 7*(4), 556–578.

Mauranen, A., & Ranta, E. (Eds.). (2009). *English as a lingua franca: Studies and findings*. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Nystrand, M., Greene, S., & Wiemelt, J. (1993). Where did composition studies come from? An intellectual history. *Written Communication, 19*, 267–333.

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

Research Articles as a Means of Communicating Science: Polish and Global Conventions

Aleksandra Makowska

Abstract Results of scientific research are incomplete without communicating them to the public in a permanent written form (Fathalla, A Practical Guide for Health Researchers. World Health Organization Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean, Cairo, 2004, p. 119). New technological advances have enabled the exchange of information on a scale that has previously never been possible (Cabre 1998, pp. 4–5). In the era of globalization, it is advisable to share knowledge on an international scale as the institutions, such as the EU or the World Bank, encourage the exchange of knowledge and close collaboration between industry and research centers in order to remain competitiveness, strengthen the country's economic position, and improve the quality of people's lives (European Commission, Improving knowledge transfer between research institutions and industry across Europe: embracing open innovation. Implementing the Lisbon agenda. EUR 22836 EN, Office for Official Publications of the European Communities, Luxembourg, 2007; Simavi et al., Art of knowledge exchange. A primer for government officials and development practitioners. The World Bank Institute, Washington, DC, 2013). On the other hand, scientists, constituting a discourse community, need a high degree of appreciation and understanding of their work in society (a scientific or technological culture) to carry out successful research (Swales, Genre analysis. English in academic and research settings. CUP, Cambridge, 1990; Godin and Gingras, Public Underst Sci 9:43–44, 2000; Fathalla, A practical guide for health researchers. World Health Organization Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean, Cairo, 2004, p. 120; Wenger and Snyder, Harv Bus Rev 139–145, 2000).

Scientific articles are a form of communication because they transfer information to the readers, engaging cognitive processes on the way, involving both the sender and the receiver to a different degree and serving informational purposes (Losee, J Inf Commun Libr Sci 5:7, 1999). According to Losee (J Inf Commun Libr Sci 5:1–15, 1999), the author of the article encodes the message from their thoughts directly into the written form and the readers decode the message through the visual

A. Makowska (✉)
Department of Translation Studies, Institute of English Studies, University of Lodz, Łódź, Poland

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_9

processes back into their thoughts; however, not all of the author's intentions are fulfilled due to imperfections in the acquiring of the message, which are referred to as *noise* or *errors* (Losee, J Inf Commun Libr Sci 5:14, 1999). They can be caused by external or internal factors, such as the reader's experience, because the *reconceptualization* process filters what they read (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk in Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk and Thelen (eds.), Meaning in translation. Peter Lang, Frankfurt am Mein, p. 108, 2010).

In order to serve communicative purposes, research articles need to follow a well-established standard, i.e., IMRAD (introduction, methods, results, and discussion); however there are no strict rules, and according to Hyland (Taiwan Int ESP J 1:5–22, 2009), compliance with the pattern depends on the discipline: The harder the science, the more compliant to the official standard the article is. Moreover, Hyland's (Taiwan Int ESP J 1:5–22, 2009) study into scientific articles reveals that in humanities, authors present results in the form of case studies or narratives, whereas the sciences rely on "experimental proof" (Hyland, Taiwan Int ESP J 1:9, 2009), and the works are organized into the following sequence: "highlighting a gap in knowledge, presenting a hypothesis related to this gap, and then reporting experimental findings to support this" (Hyland, Taiwan Int ESP J 1:9, 2009).

Abstracts and article introductions are also subject to extensive studies. Swales (Genre analysis. English in academic and research settings. CUP, Cambridge, 1990) identifies patterns in these sections and produced the Create a Research Space (CARS) model of research introductions, which names three stages in academic writing that he called *moves*: establishing the territory, establishing a niche, and occupying a niche (Swales, Genre analysis. English in academic and research settings. CUP, Cambridge, 1990, pp. 150–161). However, as Maferat and Mohammadzadeh's (Appl Res Engl Lang 2:37–49, 2013) study into literature research article abstracts in English and Persian reveals, the decisive factor in whether to follow the CARS model and the IMRD standard "is not the native language but rather the norms of the community for which the scholars write" (Maferat and Mohammadzadeh, Appl Res Engl Lang 2:47, 2013).

The purpose of this study was to analyze a bilingual corpus of 401 research articles consisting of 1,600,000 words in Polish and English. One hundred and eighty-four articles (640,000 words) were in Polish and were gathered from three sources, and 217 articles (960,000 words) were in English and came from four sources. The articles, which concern the subject field of microelectronics and computer science, were gathered from 2007 to 2014 and were written to serve informational and referential purposes. This study investigated whether the articles both followed the formal text pattern IMRAD and the CARS model and shared the linguistic characteristics provided by other scholars. It remains to be seen whether Polish cultural specificity affects Polish scientists' writing in Polish and English or whether they succumb to the international conventions. Another query is whether the discipline of microelectronics shares the text characteristics of other hard sciences.

Keywords Research article · Communication · Scientific translation · Specialized communication · CARS model · IMRAD

1 Introduction

Results of scientific research need to be communicated to the public in a permanent written form (Fathalla 2004, p. 119). They are first presented at conferences and scientific meetings where scientists have the opportunity to exchange opinions on topics and share knowledge (Fathalla 2004, pp. 119–121). Papers are then published in peer-reviewed journals either in print or online (Fathalla 2004, pp. 120–122).

Nowadays, the transfer of knowledge has reached a level that has not previously been seen, which has been enabled by new technological advances in the area and speed of the information transfer (Cabre 1998, pp. 4–5). In the era of globalization, institutions such as the EU or the World Bank encourage the exchange of knowledge and close collaboration between industry and research centers to gain a competitive edge, strengthen the country's economic position, and improve the quality of life (European Commission 2007; Simavi, et al. 2013).

Moreover, scientists are a community with "a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise" who use "some specific lexis" and share specialized terminology, such as abbreviations and acronyms, to describe their research and "who can pass on knowledge of shared goals and communicative purposes to new members" (Swales 1990, pp. 26–27). Thus, they constitute *discourse communities* (Swales 1990), which, according to Swales (see also chapters "Reader Versus Writer Responsibility Revisited: A Polish-Russian Contrastive Approach" and "In at the Deep End: The Struggles of First-Year Hungarian University Students Adapting to the Requirements of Written Academic Discourse in an EFL Context"), is a "sociorhetorical networks" formed "in order to work towards sets of common goals" (p. 9). They are achieved when scientists have "mechanisms of intercommunication among its members" (pp. 24–25). Another characteristic feature of a discourse community is *recognizable and defined genres* that facilitate communication (p. 26).

Information transfer facilitates the creation of the *scientific* or *technological culture* in society. In order to function effectively and to carry out successful research, scientists need a high degree of appreciation and understanding of their work in society (Godin and Gingras 2000, pp. 43–44; Fathalla 2004, p. 120; Wenger and Snyder 2000).

2 Data and Methodology

This study was conducted on a comparable corpus of 401 research articles that constituted about 1,600,000 words. One hundred and eighty-four (640,000 words) articles were in Polish and were gathered from three sources, and 217 (960,000 words) articles were in English and were collected from four sources. The articles were published over the years 2007–2014 and pertain to the subject fields of microelectronics, telecommunication, and computer science (MTCS), i.e., new technologies. The number of research articles in Polish and English is unequal, which proves that

the scientists' lingua franca in these fields is English and Polish is a minority language. The purpose of this study is to analyze the construction of collected research papers in Polish and English to answer the following research questions: Are research articles a form of communication? How do they communicate science? How is the message organized in an article? Do the Polish and global writing conventions differ?

3 Communication and Its Characteristics

For the purpose of this study, the term *communication* needs to be defined as a starting point in the discussion. "Communication," according to Losee (1999), "occurs if, and only if, information moves from the input to one process to the output from a second process, the latter process being inverse of the first process" (p. 8). In other words, there are two parties needed to communicate, i.e., the sender and the receiver, as well as a message, i.e. information. The message is passed from the sender to the receiver and undergoes decoding and encoding on the way. This process is illustrated by the scheme of the written communication developed on the basis of Losee's model of human communication, which is discussed in the Communication Model of the Written Language section.

Communication is characterized by a set of factors identified by Motley (1990, in Losee 1999, p. 7):

- Information transfer
- Processing of communication systems
- The involvement of the sender and the receiver in the system
- Different quality of communications.

The first determinant in the process of communication is the transfer of information without which there is no communication. The message is then processed by both the sender and the receiver. The degree to which information is "absorbed" by the receiver depends on the involvement of both the sender and the receiver. However, the quality of their communications differs due to various factors. This model pertains both to oral and written communication; but in writing the process is slightly more complex.

4 The Communication Model of the Written Language

Communication of the written language is more complex and is more extended in time than oral messages. On the basis of Losee's model of human communication (1999), the communication model of the written language was developed (Fig. 1). The sender formulates a message from knowledge into thoughts, then encodes the thoughts into the written language (scientific articles). In turn, the receiver decodes

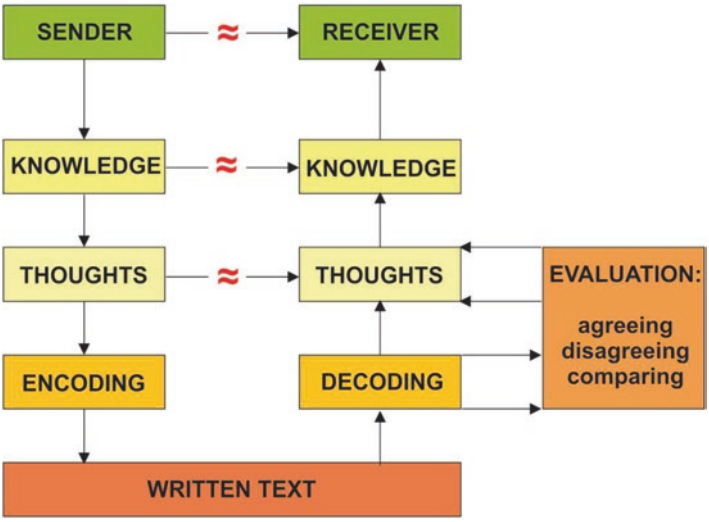

Fig. 1 The communication model of the written language based on Losee's model of human communication (Losee 1999, p. 9)

the message via visual processes (Losee 1999, p. 9) and transforms the written language into thoughts; however, at this stage the receiver evaluates the sender's message and either agrees, disagrees, or compares it with their experience or other contributions in the field. After this analysis, the receiver's knowledge is formulated. The process of the encoding and decoding of the message is reversed. However, it is not a perfect situation because in real-life situations, we deal with *noise-modified communication* or *imperfectly inverted communication*, i.e. information which is processed is then changed or modified by *noise* or *errors* (Losee 1999, p. 14). Noise or errors can be understood as a different understanding of the written language, a different experience, or a *conceptualization of reality* that affects the process of decoding the message in the receiver's mind (Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk in Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk and Thelen (eds.) 2010, p. 108). Thus, the receiver's thoughts do not equal the sender's thoughts: The receivers' knowledge is not the same as the senders', and the effect of the message on the receiver may not be the one intended by the sender.

This model can be applied to research articles that, as mentioned above, are created to inform the public about the progress in research to fulfill the requirements for conducting research. Thus, written texts can be narrowed to research articles.

5 Research Article as a Genre: Its Characteristics and Aims

Research papers originated from the need for documenting in a permanent written form the results of research or the current stage of developments in a given subject field. However, research articles as a genre, a "'message type' with a conventional

internal structure" (Biber 2006, p. 11), appeared because of people's drive for education. A *research article* has been recognized as one of the genres of scientific writing (Kozłowska 2007, p. 32) and "is the last step in the research process" as it "tells the story of the project from inception through the data collection process, statistical analysis, and discussion of the results" (Branson 2004, p. 1222). Research articles, being specialized texts, have developed their own characteristic features that facilitate the exchange of information, as they have their "own terminology and stereotypical syntax" as well as "almost always a denotative meaning" (Grucza 1981, p. 14, in Kozłowska 2007, p. 27).

Scientific articles are written to fulfil aims which are discussed by Ingarden (in Rusinek (ed.) 1955, p. 128):

- To express the authors' interests, intentions, and research activities
- To record the results, theories, and opinions
- To pass this knowledge to other people by sharing the research activities
- To participate in the research and create new knowledge.

Ingarden's (1955) findings are parallel to other scholars' observations (Fathalla 2004; Branson 2004; Montgomery 2000), yet they are written from the philosophical perspective and are the most detailed and explicit.

Research papers share some characteristic features discussed by language scholars:

- Research articles should go in line with the research "process and serve as a scientific report" (Branson 2004, p. 1222).
- Sense perception shades in research articles are diminished or nonexistent (Ingarden 1955, p. 128, in Rusinek 1955).
- Wording in scientific prose allows for a clear, unequivocal, and accurate determination of the subject matter and its characteristics (Ingarden 1955, p. 128, in Rusinek 1955).
- Syntactic sentence structures are clear and sentence order facilitates the perception of the article in order to achieve unambiguity and clarity (Ingarden 1955, p. 128; Klemensiewicz 1955, p. 91, in Rusinek 1955).
- The transparency of the article allows for a direct reference to the subject matter (Ingarden 1955, p. 128, in Rusinek 1955).
- Research papers as a means or tool for expanding boundaries serve as a medium to be used in the cognition of the subject matter (Ingarden 1955, p. 128, in Rusinek 1955).
- Scientific texts are written be relevant over a long period of time in contrast with other functional texts (Ingarden 1955, p. 128, in Rusinek 1955).
- Synonyms, emotional language, archaic words, and regional variants should be avoided. Neologisms should be kept to a minimum (Klemensiewicz 1955, p. 91, in Rusinek 1955).
- Vocabulary should be monosemous to facilitate understanding of the message (Klemensiewicz 1955, p. 91, in Rusinek 1955).
- Foreign, "scientific," or artificial words of Greek and Latin origins frequently appear in research papers (Klemensiewicz 1955, p. 91, in Rusinek 1955).

All features mentioned above emphasize the referential and informative function of the scientific prose as well as its objective and universal character. However, the most controversial are the last three points concerning terminology, because there is no agreement on its nature. For some scholars, terminology is standardized and universal to the level of almost one-to-one equivalence between languages (Halliday et al. 1965, p. 129, in Kozłowska 2007, p. 27). However, others claim that one cannot speak of universality due to different levels of standardization across disciplines, cultural differences, and the *cognitive content* (Montgomery 2000, pp. 259–262).

6 The Organization of the Research Article

In the process of article evolution, an international convention or a widely accepted pattern emerged that can be summarized by the abbreviation IMRAD, which stands for introduction, materials and methods, results, and discussion. Branson (2004) provides a more detailed list of the elements in an academic paper:

- The abstract
- The introduction section
- The methods section
- Subjects
- Equipment
- Interventions or study procedures
- Data analysis
- The results section
- The discussion section
- The conclusions section
- Acknowledgements
- Summary (p. 1222)

Branson's list is similar to Nair and Nair's (2014, p. 25), but they also provide the purpose of each section of the article (Table 1).

However, Nair and Nair (2014) find that the authors' compliance with the format is not compulsory and may depend on the journal's policy, whereas Hyland (2009) comes to the conclusion that it depends on the field of research. Moreover, Hyland's study (2009) reveals that research articles in the humanities are written in the form of case studies or narratives, whereas the organization of a research article in the hard sciences is based on the "experimental proof"; for this reason the order of data presentation is as follows: First, the scientists emphasize that there is a gap in knowledge; in other words, they present the purpose or reason for the studies. They then provide a hypothesis referring to this gap, and finally they describe the results of experiments that support their assumptions (Hyland 2009, p. 9).

According to Gross et al. (2002), there are two types of modern research articles. The identified elements of the two types of modern scientific papers from Tehan (2009) are summarized in Table 2.

Table 1 The IMRAD format: Main sections of a scientific paper (see Nair and Nair 2014, p. 25)

Section	Purpose
Title	What the paper is about
Authors	Names and affiliations of authors
Keywords	Words other than those in title that best describe the paper
Abstract	A stand-alone, short narrative of the paper
Introduction	Why this paper topic? The problem, what is not known, the objective of the study
Materials and methods	How was the study done?
Results	What did you find?
Discussion	What does it mean? What next? Interpretation of results and future directions
Conclusion	Possible implications
Acknowledgments	Who helped and how? What was the funding source?
References	Details of papers cited
Appendices	Supplementary materials

Table 2 Tehan's (2009) summary of Gross et al. (2002) division of modern research papers

Form 1: Experimental, methodological, or observational	Form 2: Theoretical
Abstract	Abstract
Introduction	Introduction
Materials and methods	Theorem
Results	Proof of theorem
Discussion	–
Conclusion (or summary)	Conclusion (or summary)
Acknowledgements	Acknowledgements
References	References

Regardless of the analysis, all authors agree on the formal division into IMRAD sections when articles pertain to hard sciences or when research is based on experiments.

7 The Analysis of the IMRAD Pattern

For the purpose of the IMRAD analysis, three categories were distinguished:

- *All elements:* All elements except for discussion
- *Some elements:* Introduction/methods and conclusions
- *Does not apply:* Descriptions of cross-section analyses, general discussions, or analyses of natural phenomena (Table 3)

Table 3 The analysis of the IMRAD pattern

	Research articles in Polish				Research articles in English				
IMRAD	*Gdynia Scientific Papers*	*Journal of Telecommunication*	*Ślesin Scientific Papers*	Total	*MIXDES Proceedings* 2013	*MIXDES Proceedings* 2014	*Journal of Telecommunication*	*Ślesin Scientific Papers*	Total
All elements	9	39	2	50	67	45	0	0	112
Some elements	11	52	20	83	38	54	2	2	96
Does not apply	5	38	8	51	4	4	1	0	9
TOTAL:	25	129	30	184	109	103	3	2	217

This study reveals that the majority of articles are written according to the IMRAD format: 133 articles in Polish and 208 in English contain all or some elements of the IMRAD pattern. However, the division into sections is not so formal because only introductions and conclusions are clearly indicated, and the methods and results sections are more implicit. Clearer divisions are noticeable in descriptions of specific experiments or applications. Instead of methods, in most cases, there are sections called *models/architecture*, and instead of results there is a section called *analysis*. The IMRAD pattern is not applied in 60 articles (51 in Polish and 9 in English) when describing or comparing phenomena or equipment or in descriptions of computer programming, other applications, or legal issues. Eight articles do not have any formal division into sections: there is one long flow of information in each.

7.1 Swales' CARS Model of Research Introductions

Introductions serve several functions, from attracting the reader's attention to informing about research. The introductory parts of articles written worldwide show distinguishable patterns. Swales (1990) conducted a thorough study into introductions of research articles and observed that they are subject to a certain order and produced a model called the Create a Research Space (CARS) model of research introductions (Swales 1990, pp. 140–141). Swales (1990) found that there are three stages in the introduction sections of the academic writing, which he calls moves:

- "Establishing the territory": Describing the background
- "Establishing a niche": Finding a gap in research
- "Occupying a niche": Doing research (Swales 1990, p. 141)

According to Maferat and Mohammadzadeh (2013), not all abstracts or introductions follow the CARS model, and their compliance depends on "the norms of the community" of addressees (p. 47).

7.2 The Analysis of the CARS Model

For the purpose of this study, a corpus of 401 abstracts of research articles was divided into three categories:

- Introductions containing all CARS moves (category "all elements")
- Abstracts including the moves "establishing a niche" and "occupying a niche" (category "some elements")
- Introductions not following the CARS model (category "does not apply") (Table 4)

Table 4 The analysis of the CARS model

	Research articles in Polish				Research articles in English				
CARS	*Gdynia Scientific Papers*	*Journal of Telecommunication*	*Ślesin Scientific Papers*	Total	*MIXDES Proceedings 2013*	*MIXDES Proceedings 2014*	*Journal of Telecommunication*	*Ślesin Scientific Papers*	Total
All elements	2	16	8	26	24	28	1	0	53
Some elements	2	11	4	17	9	9	0	2	20
Does not apply	21	102	18	141	76	66	2	0	144
TOTAL:	25	129	30	184	109	103	3	2	217

The analysis of the abstracts reveals that the majority of authors (285 abstracts) do not follow the format (141 in Polish and 144 in English). Seventy-nine abstracts contain all CARS elements (53 in English and 26 in Polish) and 37 (20 in English and 17 in Polish) have some elements. The scientists in the fields of new technologies introduce their research by either creating a summary of their research, providing the effects of the research, or describing the device or method. For this reason, the abstract should be called a summary or an outline in these subject fields.

8 Authors' Nationality and Its Impact on the Writing Style

The results can be attributed to the fact that the predominant majority of authors of papers in both analyzed languages are of Polish origin. It can be noted that Polish writers have the tendency to provide summaries in abstracts and to write articles with a smaller degree of formality in the organization of the article than authors of other nationalities and mother tongues.

In the case of articles in Polish, the nationality of the authors was nearly completely homogeneous (Fig. 2 and Appendix 1). As a result, 180 articles were written by native Poles, and there were only three other nationalities (Ukrainian, Italian, and Vietnamese); however, the foreign authors were proficient speakers of Polish and the articles were co-written by Poles. In English, the nationality of authors was more diverse; there are authors from 28 countries (Fig. 3 and Appendix 1). The graphs present the nationality of authors of articles written in Polish (Fig. 2) and English (Fig. 3), and the full list of nationalities and mother tongues is shown in Appendix 1.

9 The Interpretation of the Results

The research conducted allows us to examine some tendencies in research article writing by Polish and international authors in terms of how the nationality of an author affects the conventions of article writing.

The analysis of the CARS model shows that 285 (71%) abstracts written in both Polish (141) and in English (144) do not follow the model. Instead, they contain a

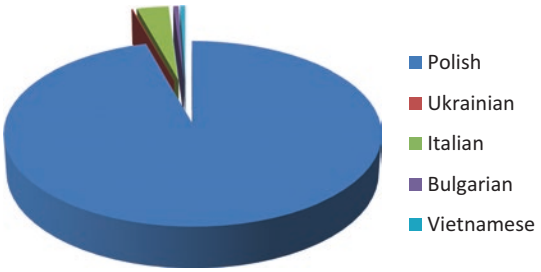

Fig. 2 The nationality of authors of research papers in Polish

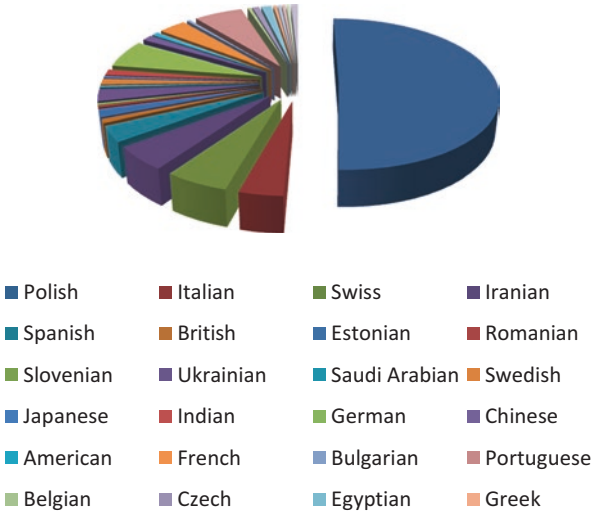

Fig. 3 The nationality of authors of research papers in English

summary of research or effects of the conducted study. Only 79 (19.7%) abstracts out of 401 articles contain all CARS elements, with the predominant majority of foreign scientists following Swales's model. There are 26 abstracts with all CARS elements in Polish and 53 in English. The number of abstracts containing some elements is almost equal, with 17 introductions in Polish and 20 in English. The overall conclusion is that Polish and international scientists decide in equal numbers to include summaries of their research in the abstracts in these domains. Therefore, nationality does not affect the style of writing in this section of the research paper.

The scrutiny of the IMRAD pattern, however, reveals a different tendency. Authors decide to follow the widely accepted format of the scientific article. One hundred and sixty-two (40%) articles contained all IMRAD elements (explicitly or implicitly stated); of these, 50 articles were in Polish and 112 in English, indicating that international authors were more compliant with the IMRAD article pattern. In 182 articles (45%), the authors included only some elements, such as an introduction, methods, or conclusion. However, the division into IMRAD sections was not as formal and was more implicit. Sixty (15%) articles followed the structure of the theoretical article, as they tackled other topics such as describing or comparing phenomena, equipment, computer programs, other applications, or legal issues. Moreover, eight articles had no clear division into sections. This analysis shows that the structures of the research article in the field of new technologies should follow this pattern:

1. Introduction (background information)
2. Design (equipment/program description, models, architecture)
3. Tests (experiments, tests, analyses)
4. Results/Implementation (results of tests and the application of the study)
5. Conclusion
6. Acknowledgments

Table 5 Hyland's criteria of articles in hard science (2009, p. 9)

Empirical and objective	+
Linear and cumulative growth of knowledge	+
Experimental methods	+
Quantitative methods	+
More concentrated readership	+
Highly structured genres	+

The proposed division into these sections reflects the stages of research and is also compliant with Branson's study (2004) into research articles: Idea, Design Stage, Tests, Results, Application (2004, p. 1222).

The collected and analyzed corpus also meets Hyland's (2009) criteria for the classification of the domains into hard and social sciences (Table 5).

The articles that are subject to analysis present research based on the "experimental proof": Knowledge of the subject grows with the progress of research, conclusions are drawn from experiments, and methods of studies are definitely quantitative. The addressees of the written messages are experts, and the genres (research articles) are structured to a point that was proven by the conducted study. Therefore, Maferat and Mohammadzadeh's (2013) claim that compliance with the IMRAD format and the CARS model depends on the "norms of the community" of addressees cannot be proven by the current analysis. Following the conventions, in this case, is more connected with the nationality of authors.

10 Conclusions

Research articles are a means of written communication, as it is possible to develop a model of written communication. Their function is to transfer knowledge on the progress of the conducted research. Moreover, the articles are a form of horizontal expert-to-expert communication. Research papers are explicitly divided into sections in order to guide the reader through the stages of research; however, compliance with the IMRAD pattern and the CARS model of article introductions depends on the nationality of the authors. Polish scientists rely less on a widely accepted format, and the division into sections is more implicit than in the case of articles written in English. However, introductions are written in the form of a summary of research regardless the nationality of the authors. Moreover, the articles are more likely to be IMRAD structured when they present results of conducted research; however, when they deal with other topics, their authors prefer a more theoretical form. Present analysis contradicts Maferat and Mohammadzadeh's (2013) claim that compliance with the IMRAD pattern and the CARS model is strictly connected

with the norms of the community of recipients. Moreover, the construction of research papers in the field of microelectronics, computer studies, and telecommunication reflects the stages of research. The pattern of the research article in these fields should therefore be modified accordingly. Finally, these articles meet Hyland's criteria of hard sciences; therefore, it can be assumed that the subject of new technologies belongs to hard sciences.

Appendix 1

The nationality and mother tongues of authors:

Nationality	Articles in Polish	Articles in English
Polish	180	121
Italian	1	9
Swiss		13
Iranian		12
Spanish		8
British		2
Estonian		4
Romanian		1
Slovenian		1
Ukrainian	6	6
Saudi Arabian		1
Swedish		3
Japanese		1
Indian		3
German		14
Chinese		3
American		2
French		8
Bulgarian	1	1
Portuguese		14
Belgian		1
Czech		2
Egyptian		3
Greek		1
Korean		1
Montenegrin		1
Armenian		1
Austrian		2
Vietnamese	1	

(continued)

Mother tongue	Articles in Polish	Articles in English
Polish	180	121
Italian	1	9
Portuguese		14
Persian		12
Spanish		8
English		4
Estonian		3
Romanian		1
Slovenian		1
Ukrainian	6	6
Arabic		4
Swedish		3
Japanese		1
Hindu		3
German		14
Chinese		3
Czech		2
French		23
Bulgarian		1
Montenegrin		1
Greek		1
Armenian		1
Korean		1
Vietnamese	1	

References

Biber, D. (2006). *University language. A corpus-based study of spoken and written register*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Branson, R. D. (2004). Anatomy of a research paper. *Respiratory Care, 49*(10), 1222–1228.

Cabré, T., & Sager, J.C. (Ed.) .(1998). *Terminology. Theory, methods and applications*. Amsterdam/ Philadelphia: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

European Commission. (2007). *Improving knowledge transfer between research institutions and industry across Europe: Embracing open innovation. Implementing the Lisbon agenda*, EUR 22836 EN. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

Fathalla, M. F. (2004). *A practical guide for health researchers*. Cairo: World Health Organization Regional Office for the Eastern Mediterranean.

Godin, B., & Gingras, Y. (2000). What is scientific and technological culture and how is it measured? A multidimensional model. *Public Understanding of Science, 9*, 43–58.

Hyland, K. (2009). Writing in the disciplines: Research evidence for specificity. *Taiwan International ESP Journal, 1*(1), 5–22.

Kozłowska, Z. (2007). *O przekładzie tekstu naukowego (na materiale tekstów językoznawczych)*. Warszawa: Wydawnictwa Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego.

Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk in Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk and Thelen (Eds.). (2010). *Meaning in translation* (p. 108). Frankfurt am Mein: Peter Lang.

Losee, R. M. (1999). Communication defined as complementary informative processes. *Journal of Information, Communication and Library Science, 5*, 1–15.

Maferat, H., & Mohammadzadeh, S. (2013). Genre analysis of literature research article abstracts: A cross-linguistic, cross-cultural study. *Applied Research on English Language, 2*, 37–49.

Montgomery, S. L. (2000). *Science in translation. Movements of knowledge through cultures and time*. Chicago/London: The University of Chicago Press.

Nair, P. K. R., & Nair, V. D. (2014). Organization of a research paper: The IMRAD format. In *Scientific writing and communication in agriculture and natural resource* (pp. 13–25). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Rusinek, M. (Ed.). (1955). *O sztuce tłumaczenia*. Wrocłam: Zakład Narodowy im. Ossolińskich—Wydawnictwo.

Simavi, S., Tangri, K., & Grigorov, M. (Eds.). (2013). *Art of knowledge exchange. A primer for government officials and development practitioners*. Washington, DC: The World Bank Institute.

Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis. English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: CUP.

Tehan, T. M. (2009). SIL electronic book reviews 2009-007. Communicating science: The scientific article from the 17th century to the present by Alan G. Gross, Joseph E. Harmon, and Michael Reidy, pp. 1–4.

Wenger, E. C., & Snyder, W. M. (2000). Communities of practice: The organizational frontier. *Harvard Business Review, 78*(1):139–145.

Part III
Approaches in EFL Writing Research

Corpus Linguistics Meets Academic Writing: Examples of Applications in the Romanian EFL Context

Mădălina Chitez

Abstract Corpus-based academic writing studies have been increasingly used to verify hypotheses regarding processes of university writing and learning. In the Romanian context, research in the areas of academic writing and corpus linguistics has been relatively scarce. Academic writing in Romanian is not explicitly taught, whereas academic writing in English is part of the curricula of a major or minor in English. The Romanian corpus linguistics field is mainly represented by the Romanian Academy Research Institute for Artificial Intelligence Institute (RACAI) whose activity consists of the creation of corpora to support natural language processing (NPL) investigations. There are only few learner and specialized corpora available for research. In the present chapter, the Romanian Corpus of Learner English (RoCLE) is used in order to exemplify the manner in which corpora can be used in academic writing classes. Three topics have been selected for exemplification: contrastive linguistics, academic phraseology, and move analysis. For each topic, a brief description of the theoretical background with relevance for the Romanian context is given, followed by examples of corpus-based analyses extracted from RoCLE. Based on the same examples, pedagogical recommendations indicate possible directions of corpus use in teaching academic writing.

Keywords Corpus linguistics · Academic writing · Academic writing teaching · Genre-based corpus research · Romanian corpora · EFL

M. Chitez (✉)
Faculty of Letters, History and Theology, Department of Modern Languages and Literatures, West University of Timișoara, Timișoara, Timiș, Romania
e-mail: madalina.chitez@e-uvt.ro

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_10

1 Introduction

Since almost all activities at the university are connected in some way to academic writing, the amount of information related to student writing is vast. New methodologies, from such areas as corpus linguistics, writing research, or academic literacy, can shed light on a range of areas relevant to university writing teaching and learning: Which are the typical genres of a certain discipline? How and what do students learn with the help of a certain genre? Which linguistic features shape the profile of a text, and to what extent are they identifiable? How do the rhetorical features that characterize academic writing differ from one discipline to another?

Academic writing teaching and corpus linguistics are increasingly joining forces in interdisciplinary approaches that analyze, evaluate, and optimize student writing (Aull 2015; Biber et al. 2007; Flowerdew 2005; Flowerdew and Forest 2015; Gotti and Giannoni 2014; Hyland 2009; Nesi and Gardner 2012; Römer and O'Donnell 2011; Swales 2004; Upton and Connor 2001). In the Romanian university context, such approaches have never been used extensively, let alone integrated.

2 The Context: Academic Writing in Romania

Since the Fall of Communism, Romania has gone through a long process of transition from the Stalinist norms in education to new developments in higher education that were developed in Western countries (see also chapters "Academic writing at Babeș-Bolyai University. A Case Study", "Institutional Writing Support in Romania: Setting Up a Writing Center at the West University of Timișoara", and "Perceptions About "Good Writing" and "Writing Competences" in Romanian Academic Writing Practices: A Questionnaire Study"). In 25 years of continuous reforms in higher education, connected with the rise in number of disciplines and specializations (Chitez 2014, pp. 21–23) and the growing importance of English, the necessity of adaptation to new writing requirements emerged:

> For cultures such as Italy and Romania, it is more a problem of introducing such new genres that interfere less with traditional ones but reach acceptance and provide a certain degree of comfort for all actors. Genre awareness and a deeper understanding of what genres accomplish in education are factors that supposedly play a crucial role for creating new teaching directives in the future. (Chitez and Kruse 2012, p. 175)

At Romanian universities, neither academic genres nor academic writing are taught explicitly. Faculty do not address, in general, issues of genre writing or writing process challenges due to a widely accepted view that learning to write is something specific to elementary and secondary education (ibid.). In fact, the majority of informative materials on written genres in the Romanian educational context refer to three primary categories: creative writing (e.g., *compunerea*, "composition"), argumentative writing (e.g., *comentariul literar,* "literary commentary"), and formal writing (e.g., *scrisoare,* "letter"; ibid., pp. 172–173). At the university level, it is the disciplinary setting that influences the academic writing performance: Students in

the humanities, especially those studying foreign languages, have a greater chance of being exposed to structured genre-use and production training than students in the engineering disciplines, for instance. Almost all foreign-language departments offer practical modules to students where they learn how to write common genres such as stories, journal articles, and formal letters. Typically, such courses take place in foreign languages but not in Romanian, so that it may be a greater challenge for the Romanian students to handle academic texts in their mother tongue than in a foreign language.

Only in the recent past have academic writing research and support initiatives in Romania been launched. The SNF-SCOPES project LIDHUM (see chapter "Studying and Developing Local Writing Cultures: An Institutional Partnership Project Supporting Transition in Eastern Europe's Higher Education"), coordinated by Otto Kruse and Mădălina Chitez, was one of the few initiatives in the field. The statistical analysis performed after the implementation of the EUWRIT survey (Chitez et al. 2015a) indicated that the repertoire of educational genres is similar in Eastern European countries but some genres are culture specific: for example, the seminar paper in Romania (Bekar et al. 2015, p. 130). Another project, OPEN RES,[1] was conducted at the Babeș-Bolyai University of Cluj and has resulted in several publications on academic writing training. Scattered publications on academic writing in Romania cannot easily be accessed (e.g., Andronescu 1997; Pavlenko and Bojan 2014) or need to be reinforced by extensive empirical evidence (e.g., Frăţila (Pungă) 2006).

3 Romanian Text Corpora

In Romania, corpus linguistics has been given very little attention compared to what it has received in other international research contexts, especially North America and Western Europe. It should be emphasized that by *corpus linguistics* we are referring to the research discipline that uses linguistic evidence extracted from electronic linguistic databases in order to conduct hypothesis-driven or explorative linguistic research. The alternative discipline, *computational linguistics*, shares with the field of corpus linguistics the key element of linguistic database construction, but its primary aim is to develop techniques of natural language processing, so its focus lies on information technology methods rather than on linguistic theory. Certainly, the two disciplines can overlap to a lesser or greater extent according to the underlying research questions in a project or a case study investigation.

Several research projects have resulted in compilations of corpora, which have also contributed to relevant linguistic analyses for the Romanian context.

[1] Open School for Academic Self-improvement. Research, Academic Writing and Career Management PN-II-PCCA-2011-3.1-0682 212/2.07.2012 grant funded by UEFISCDI—www.uefiscdi.gov.ro

One of the few larger collections of student texts is the Romanian Corpus of Learner English (RoCLE) databank (see Chitez 2014). This corpus complies with the general collection norms of the ICLE corpora (Granger et al. 2009), thus including specific genres (argumentative essays and/or literature essays) written by native speakers of Romanian in English. Informants are students having English as major or minor at their university and being enrolled in their third or fourth year of study. There are 352 texts in the corpus, which consist of 201,551 words. The corpus is used for the description of the salient features of student academic written discourse in English as a foreign language (more details below).

Lately, other small-scale corpora in the area of applied linguistics have been constructed that reflect the current use of language (either native or foreign language). For example, Herteg and Popescu (2013) proposed the use of comparable corpora consisting of English and Romanian newspaper business texts compiled by students (15,000 words compiled by each student in each language) for the extraction of business collocations in both languages.

On the other hand, Romanian corpus-based computational linguistic projects have been successfully conducted for several years now. The institution consistently active in corpus collection processes is the Romanian Academy Research Institute for Artificial Intelligence "Mihai Drăgănescu" (RACAI) led by Academician Dan Tufis, who has gained national and international recognition in the field (see Macoveiciuc and Kilgarriff 2010). Table 1 below almost exclusively includes (with the exception of RoWaC) RACAI corpora.

4 At the Confluence of Academic Writing and Corpus Linguistics: Three Examples

4.1 Linguistic Fields

Contrastive Linguistics

There is a consistent body of corpus-based contrastive research on academic discourse in numerous languages (d'Angelo 2012; Fløttum et al. 2006; Johansson 2007; Mauranen 1993, 1994; Siepmann 2005). Many such studies make use of parallel corpora to investigate translation challenges (e.g., Mikhailov and Cooper 2016). By aligning the source and target texts, translators (or language learners) can better understand the mechanism and options of linguistic equivalence. In fact, "corpora have perhaps strengthened the trend away from word-equivalence to phrasal equivalence" (Krishnamurthy 2006, p. 253), which makes them also interesting to the academic writing contrastive field, given the importance of rhetorical appropriateness in genre use. Often followed by "further research with monolingual corpora in both languages" (Mauranen 2002, p. 182), translation-related research can either take the form of a genuine contrastive study or turn into an in-depth analysis of salient linguistic phenomena (Ebeling et al. 2013). Other corpus-based

Table 1 Romanian corpora

Corpus	Type of collection	Details about the corpus	Corpus size
CoRoLa[a]	Original collection	Reference corpus written and spoken language; foreseen function styles: scientific, belletristic, journalistic, juridic, administrative, and memorialistic; Romanian	Ongoing
RoWaC[b]	Original collection	Web texts retrieved using web crawling; BootCaT, a newspaper archive (www.adevarul.ro); and a site for copyright-free books (www.biblioteca-online.ro); Romanian	50 million words
ROCO[c]	Original collection	Series of various registers of corpora: news, literature, and legislation; Romanian	35 million words
Ro-Wordnet (RoWN)[d]	Part of EuroWordNet via BalkaNet	Parallel corpora; Romanian and English	43,765 synsets
Romanian FrameNet[e]	Part of FrameNet 1.1 corpus	Parallel corpora; Romanian and English	1094 sentences
Romanian TimeBank[f] /Timex	Translated from TimeBank 1.1	Parallel corpora; Romanian and English	186 news articles, with 72,000 words
RoSemCor[g]	Part of SemCor	Parallel corpora; Romanian, English and Italian	12 articles from SemCor
Acquis Communautaire[h]	Part of multilingual Acquis Communautaire Corpus (AC)	Parallel corpora; Romanian and English	12,000 Romanian documents and 6256 parallel English-Romanian documents; 16 million words.
Romanian MULTEXT-East Corpus[i]	Part of EU Copernicus project MULTEXT-East (ME) Corpus	Parallel and comparable corpora for six Central and Eastern European languages; both text and speech corpora; the text corpus includes the translations of the Novel "1984" by George Orwell	100,000 words per corpus

[a]See Barbu-Mititelu et al. (2014)
[b]See Macoveiciuc and Kilgarriff (2010)
[c]See Tufis and Irimia (2006)
[d]See Tufis et al. (2006)
[e]See Ion and Barbu-Mititelu (2005) and Trandabat and Husarciuc (2008)
[f]See Macoveiciuc and Kilgarriff (2010)
[g]See Cristea and Forascu (2006)
[h]See ibid.
[i]See Dimitrova et al. (1998)

studies make use of independent comparable corpora to look at particular linguistic features, such as quantity approximation in De Cock and Goossens' study (2013). In general, areas that benefit the most from corpus-based contrastive analyses seem to be bilingual and monolingual lexicography (Granger and Lefer 2013, p. 158).

There has, however, been little theoretical contrastive research on academic writing in Romanian versus other languages (see Chitoran 2013, for English-Romanian contrastive analyses). A few contrastive remarks have been offered by Chitez's (2014) corpus-based study on several grammatical topics (articles, genitive, prepositions).

Academic Phraseology

Formulaic language, or phraseology (Granger and Meunier 2008; Stubbs 2001; Wray 2008), has long centered round the concept of lexicogrammar. As McEnery and Gabrielatos (2006, p. 41) point out, some linguists (Halliday 1991, 1992) prefer the term *lexicogrammar* because it is quite difficult to separate lexis from grammar, as they appear to be "the same thing seen by different observers" (Halliday 1992, p. 62). However, researchers tend to position their theories closer to one of the two ends of the lexico-grammatical continuum: lexical (Stubbs 2001; Halliday 1992) or grammatical (Sinclair 1966, 2004). In time, linguists have generally agreed that the notions of collocation (Biber et al. 1999, 2009; Ellis 1996; Firth 1957; Goldberg 2006; Römer 2009; Stefanowitsch and Gries 2003), lexical bundle (Biber et al. 1999, 2004; Biber 2006; Biber and Barbieri 2007), chunks (Wray 2008), and n-gram (Jarvis et al. 2012; Jarvis and Paquot 2012) are the key elements in lexicogrammatical approaches. In corpus linguistics, collocations and phrases are often interchangeable. Moreover, multiple studies have also indicated a certain degree of correlation between the users' language competence and the phraseology profile of their discourse (Granger and Bestgen 2014; Laufer and Waldman 2011; Levitzky-Aviad and Laufer 2013; Nattinger and Decarrico 1992; Nesselhauf 2003). Academic writing research has taken on this awareness (see Bondi 2014; Charles et al. 2009) and integrated it into applied linguistics studies focusing on the compilation of the Academic Word List (Coxhead 2000; Nation 2001), the Academic Collocation List (Ackermann and Chen 2013; Durrant 2009; Laufer and Waldman 2011; Simpson-Vlach and Ellis 2010), and the Academic Phrasebank (Chitez et al. 2015b; Morley 2005).

Move Analysis

In genre research, certain structural patterns can be found repeatedly. These structures may be called conventional and are present as such in many instructional manuals and guides, but they also have functional meaning in organizing the discourse. Many studies (see also chapter "Research Articles as a Means of Communicating Science: Polish and Global Conventions") have followed the research line of Swales (2004), who defined a sequence of moves and steps in which authors of research

articles position themselves within a research field by first "establishing a territory" then defining a "niche" that they then, in a third step, "occupy." Variations of this Creating a Research Space (CARS) model have been detected in research articles from many different cultures. The highly formalized evaluation model for move structures within the whole research article (not only the introduction) from Kanoksilapatham (2005), which follows the introduction, methods, results, and discussion (IMRAD) structure of the research article, can serve as a model for the coding of complex move text structures.

Bondi (2009), for example, followed a rather open comparison of Italian and English historical and economic discourse searching for differences in genre characteristics. She found large variations not only between disciplines and languages, but also between different approaches within the disciplines of the same language. She also analyzed statements of purpose in historical and business discourse. Such statements are often in fixed phraseological patterns ("in this paper," "this paper is," "of this paper," "purpose of this," "this paper examines," etc.) and are therefore easily accessible in searches.

In Romanian academic genres, the open approach seems more appropriate since we cannot assume that Romanian students follow the standard IMRAD sequence in their research-related academic genres, given the fact that the typical Romanian university genres are much more variable and less conventionalized than research articles. However, we should be aware that the basic linguistic features of academic genres are identifiable.

4.2 How Can Corpora Be Used? Exemplifications from the Romanian Corpus of Learner English

Data

The examples in the present study are extracted from the RoCLE (see Chitez 2014) (Table 2).

The proportion of argumentative essays is around 75% of the total number of texts while literature essays make up 25% of the databank. In this way, some research questions can be addressed concerning the rhetorical patterns in either register settings (formality level in argumentation) or disciplinary settings (literature studies).

Example 1: Romanian-English Collocation Pattern Transfer

In her study, Chitez (ibid.) has identified several grammatical areas with potential for language and academic writing teaching: articles, genitives, and prepositions. For example, the use of the prepositions *in*, *on*, and *to* in collocation patterns are some of the cases with a great Romanian-English interference risk (Table 3):

Table 2 Topic distribution in RoCLE

Main topics (argumentative)	Number of texts	Other topics (argumentative)	Number of texts	Topics (literature)	Number of texts
Pollution	52	Animals	3	Moby Dick, Oscar Wilde's The Picture of Dorian Gray, Prometheus Unbound, Wuthering Heights, My favourite book, My favourite novel, The Romantic Spirit in British Literature, N. Hawthorne, generalities relying on short fiction with examples of your own, etc.	85
Crime	33	Child abuse	3		
Feminism	25	Europe	3		
Press	23	School	3		
Equality	17	Television	3		
Abortion	11	Advertising	2		
Teenagers	9	Future	2		
Orphanages	8	Society	2		
Miracles	8	Nature	2		
Technology	8	Universities	2		
Euthanasia	7	Other (1x)	27		
Homosexuality	7				
Money	7				
Total texts	215		52		85

Table 3 Romanian versus English prepositional collocation patterns in RoCLE

	Interference	RoCLE example	Interference	RoCLE example
In	Grammatical transfer from Romanian into English: *la*↔ *in*	*[continue in] all level [join in] the suffering [put in] (danger)*	Phraseology transfer from Romanian intro English	*in generally in special in consideration*
On	Grammatical transfer from Romanian into English: *pe / de* ↔ *on*	*pay [attention on] the [concerned on]*	Phraseology transfer from Romanian intro English	*on the same time think on (sit) on contrary sides*
To	Grammatical transfer from Romanian into English: *la / de* ↔ *to*	*[are going to] shopping aims [to a vision]*	Phraseology transfer from Romanian intro English	*point to show to think to accorded to conducive to*

What academic writing experts can learn from the analysis of preposition collocation lists is the fact that Romanian students might use academic writing phraseology incorrectly (e.g., "in special") mainly because they translate phraseology from Romanian (e.g., Ro: *în special*).

Another example is the use of the collocation pattern created by the demonstrative pronoun *this* together with a singular common noun. It has been shown (Chitez 2014, p. 116) that Romanian students excessively use expressions such as *this situation*, *this way*, *this kind*, and *this movement*. Considering that demonstrative ana-

phors are relevant markers of scientific writing (Lundquist 2007), this phenomenon can be also further investigated and exploited for the benefit of the Romanian students writing in English.

Example 2: Genre-Related Academic Phraseology

Two types of texts are included in RoCLE: argumentative and literature essays. It is interesting to look at the types of phrases that appear frequently in such genres (Fig. 1).

Surprisingly, students use the first person pronoun almost as frequently in argumentative essays (0.439% of the total number of words in RoCLE-ARG) as in literature essays (0.272% of the total number of words in RoCLE-LIT). The patterns most frequently encountered in argumentation are: *I think*, *I know*, *I believe*, *I want*, *I consider*, and *I agree*. In literature essays, students use past tense constructions such as *I read*, *I found*, *I used,* or *I loved,* which convey a rather narrative style to the literature text.

Example 3: Move-Analysis Indicators in RoCLE Essays

In order to be able to assess rhetorical moves in academic writing, a standard genre rhetoric move patterning has to be defined. In the case of argumentative essays, we will consider one of the structural units proposed by literature: situation, problem,

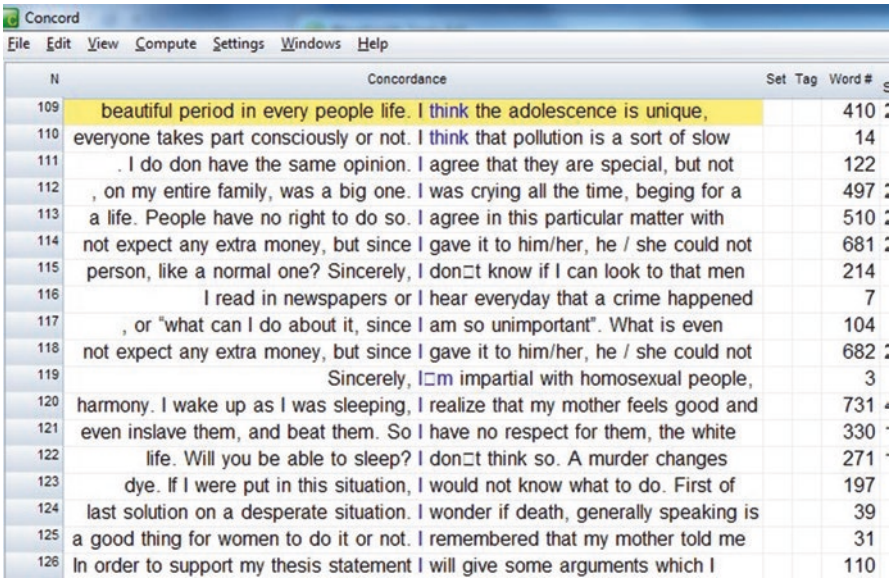

Fig. 1 The use of the first person pronoun *I* in collocation patterns in argumentative essays

solution, and evaluation (see Tirkkonen-Condit 1985). The multiword phrases associated with each of the moves can be searched for and extracted from the texts. In the case of the evaluation procedures, we checked the use of *conclusion/conclude* or similar expressions and noticed the following patterns:

(a) In most argumentative essays, students use a concluding phrase to mark the evaluation move in their text, with frequent expressions being built around markers such as [*to conclude*]/[*in conclusion*]/[*concluding*], [*thus,*], [*so,*], [*all* (*in all*)], and [*these facts*], or in rare constructions such as [*to cap it all*] and [*taking everything into account*].

(E1) Prove your independence to yourself and face today or tomorrow without cell phone and you will feel differently. <ICLE-RO-AIC-0002.2>
(E2) If we remain silent and passive it will become one. But our immediate reaction and vivid interest will struggle against it and it will set forth an example and model for the others to follow. <ICLE-RO-AIC-0003.1>
(E3) We should meditate on this problem, we should understand that if there are people who would give anything to spend yet another moment with their loved ones, why, and how could you decide to put an end to what God gave us: Life! <ICLE-RO-AIC-0008.1>

(b) If the markers are not present, the alternative rhetorical phenomenon is the "recommendation," either in the form of second person addressing or as a collective "we" formula (see E1–E3).

5 Pedagogical Recommendations

There are multiple ways by which the data extracted from corpora can be introduced into teaching scenarios. For the specific task of supporting student academic writing, a corpus can be implemented as follows:

Corpora Can Facilitate Induced-Learning Writing-Related Tasks students can be given the task of analyzing databanks in either one language (Romanian) or in contrast (e.g., Romanian versus English L2; English L1 versus English L2) in order to identify salient features of academic writing use (see example of an exercise in contrastive phraseology in English and Romanian below)

> Please use the corpus databank of Romanian Learner English (RoCLE corpus) in order to extract academic phraseology containing the following keywords: *author*, *paper, intend, follow*, *important*. Do the same with the corpus databank of Native Speaker English (LOCNESS corpus). Compare lists of phrases and identify interferences and/or transfer from native language Romanian into English.

Corpora as control for reference instruments students can be given the task of analyzing databanks in English L1 and English L2 in order to check vocabulary/phraseology listed in dictionary entries or academic phrase banks.[2]

[2] Possible sources for analyzing academic phraseology: http://www.phrasebank.manchester.ac.uk/

Corpora as Support for Academic Writing Tools students can have access to a specialized corpus within an electronic academic writing tool (see Chitez et al. 2015b) that can give them immediate support with linguistics problems encountered during the actual writing process.

6 Conclusions

We have used the RoCLE to exemplify the conception of corpus-based exercises to be completed in an academic writing class. A corpus of EFL texts containing specific types of genres (e.g., argumentative and literature essays) can be valuable to language tutors dealing with these text types.

As has been shown in this viewpoint paper, if we look at several highly used prepositions, there are numerous cases of collocation-pattern transfers from native Romanian into English. The analysis can be replicated for other grammatical elements or units. The RoCLE can also be employed for genre-specific analyses, such as the typology and use of phraseology in argumentative versus literature essays. In our case analysis, we showed that authorship (use of personal pronoun *I*) is rendered through genre-specific expressions. In the third example, we looked at the evaluation move in the sub-corpus of argumentative essays (RoCLE-ARG). Results showed frequent constructions (e.g., *in conclusion*) or multi-word Romanian borrowings (e.g., *taking everything into account*) and the tendency to replace overt concluding with recommending strategies.

The final recommendations on how to use corpora to improve students' academic writing include free corpus consultation to increase awareness of target-language phraseology and vocabulary and comparison between corpora and dictionaries for lexical accuracy. A further application of corpora for academic writing, even if it is beyond the scope of the present article, would be to integrate corpora into academic writing tools.

It is essential to highlight that students can benefit from the use of corpora simply by learning to access, use, or create them. It is the teachers' task to guide the learning process towards areas that are relevant for the academic writing field, such as the ones exemplified in this paper (contrastive collocation patterns, genre-specific phraseology, and rhetoric move constructions). Thus, the applicability of corpora is linked to the teacher's creativity and openness to new methodologies in the classroom. In the Romanian EFL context, such approaches would be quite innovative, triggering or resulting in meaningful research in both corpus linguistics and academic writing or leading to unexplored but effective teaching strategies.

References

Ackermann, K., & Chen, Y. (2013). Developing the academic collocation list (ACL)—A corpus-driven and expert-judged approach. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 12*, 235–247.

Andronescu, S. C. (1997). *Tehnica scrierii academice*. Bucuresti: Editura Fundatiei "Romania de Maine".

Aull, L. (2015). *First-year university writing: A Corpus-based study with implications for pedagogy*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Barbu-Mititelu, V., Irimia, E., & Tufiș, D. (2014) CoRoLa the reference corpus of contemporary Romanian language. In *Proceedings of the ninth international conference on language resources and evaluation (LREC'14)*. Reykjavik, Iceland, 2014, 1235–1239.

Bekar, M., Doroholschi, C. I., Kruse, O., & Yakhontova, T. (2015). Educational genres in Eastern Europe: A comparison of the genres in the humanities departments of three countries of three different universities in three different countries. *Journal of Academic Writing, 5*(1), 119–132.

Biber, D. (2006). *University language: A corpus-based study of spoken and written registers*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Biber, D., & Barbieri, F. (2007). Lexical bundles in university spoken and written registers. *English for Specific Purposes, 26*, 263–286.

Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Conrad, S., & Finegan, E. (1999). *Longman grammar of spoken and written English*. New York: Longman.

Biber, D., Conrad, S., & Cortes, V. (2004). If you look at…: Lexical bundles in university teaching and textbooks. *Applied Linguistics, 25*, 371–405.

Biber, D., Connor, U., & Upton, T. A. (2007). *Discourse on the move: Using corpus analysis to describe discourse structure*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Biber, D., Kim, Y.-J., & Tracy-Ventura, N. (2009). A Corpus-driven approach to comparative phraseology: Lexical bundles in English, Spanish, and Korean. *Japanese/Korean Linguistics, 17*, 75–94.

Bondi, M. (2009). *Polyphony in academic discourse. Cross-linguistic and cross-cultural perspectives on academic discourse*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Bondi, M. (2014). Integrating corpus and genre approaches: Phraseology and voice across EAP genres. In M. Gotti & D. S. Giannoni (Eds.), *Corpus analysis for descriptive and pedagogical purposes* (pp. 43–62). Bern: Peter Lang.

Charles, M., Pecori, D., & Hunston, S. (Eds.). (2009). *Academic writing: At the Interface of Corpus and discourse*. London: Continuum.

Chitez, M. (2014). *Learner corpus profiles: The case of Romanian learner English*. In M. Gotti (Series Ed.), *Linguistic insights series* (Vol. 173). Bern/Berlin/Bruxelles/Frankfurt am Main/New York/Oxford/Wien: Peter Lang.

Chitez, M., & Kruse, O. (2012). Writing cultures and genres across Europe. In M. Castelló & C. Donahue (Eds.), *University writing: Selves and texts in academic societies* (pp. 33–51). Bingley: Emerald Group.

Chitez, M., Kruse, O., & Castelló, M. (2015a). *The European writing survey (EUWRIT): Background, structure, implementation, and some results* (Working papers in applied linguistics 9). Winterthur: ZHAW Zurich University of Applied Sciences. online at: https://digitalcollection.zhaw.ch/handle/11475/1016

Chitez, M., Rapp, C., & Kruse, O. (2015b). Corpus-supported academic writing: how can technology help? In F. Helm, L. Bradley, & S. Thouësny (Eds.), *Critical CALL proceedings of the 2015 EUROCALL conference, Padova, Italy*. Dublin, Ireland: Research-publishing.net.

Chitoran, D. (Ed.). (2013). *Contrastive studies in English and Romanian*. Bucharest: Bucharest University Press.

Coxhead, A. (2000). A new academic word list. *TESOL Quarterly, 34*(2), 213–238.

Cristea, C., & Forascu, D. (2006). Linguistics resources and technologies for Romanian language. *Journal of Computer Science of Moldova, 14*(40), 33–73.

D'Angelo, L. (2012). Identity conflicts in book reviews: A cross-disciplinary comparison. In G. Maurizio (Ed.), *Academic identity traits. A corpus-based investigation* (pp. 79–94). Bern: Peter Lang.

De Cock, S., & Goossens. (2013). Quantity approximation in English and French business news reporting: More or less the same? In K. Aijmer & B. Altenberg (Eds.), *Advances in corpus-based contrastive linguistics: Studies in honour of Stig Johansson* (pp. 139–156). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Dimitrova, L., Ide, N., Petkevic, V., Erjavec, T., Kaalep, H. J., & Tufiș, D. (1998). Multext-east: Parallel and comparable corpora and lexicons for six central and eastern European languages. In C. Boitet & P. Whitelock (Eds.), *Proceedings of the joint 17th international conference on computational linguistics 36th annual meeting of the association for computational linguistics (COLING-ACL 1998)* (pp. 315–319). Montreal: Morgan Kaufmann Publishers.

Durrant, P. (2009). Investigating the viability of a collocation list for students of English for academic purposes. *English for Specific Purposes, 28*, 157–169.

Ebeling, J., Ebeling, S. O., & Hasselgård, H. (2013). Using recurrent word combinations to explore crosslinguistic differences. In K. Aijmer & B. Altenberg (Eds.), *Advances in corpusbased contrastive linguistics: Studies in honour of Stig Johansson* (pp. 177–200). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Ellis, N. C. (1996). Sequencing in SLA: Phonological memory, chunking, and points of order. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*, 91–126.

Firth, J. (1957). *Papers in linguistics, 1934–1951*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Fløttum, K., Dahl, T., & Torodd, K. (2006). *Academic voices*. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Flowerdew, L. (2005). An integration of corpus-based and genre-based approaches to text analysis in EAP/ESP: Countering criticisms against corpus-based methodologies. *English for Specific Purposes, 24*(3), 321–332.

Flowerdew, J., & Forest, R. W. (2015). *Signalling nouns in academic English*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Frăţila (Pungă), L. (2006). Collocations in ecological discourse. *B.A.S. British and American Studies, 12*, 211–227 Available at: https://www.academia.edu/14049718/Collocations_in_Ecological_Discourse.

Goldberg, A. E. (2006). *Constructions at work. The nature of generalization in language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gotti, M., & Giannoni, D. S. (Eds.). (2014). *Corpus analysis for descriptive and pedagogical purposes: ESP perspectives* (Linguistic insights series, Vol. 200) (Series editor: Maurizio Gotti). Bern/Berlin/Bruxelles/Frankfurt am Main/New York/Oxford/Wien: Peter Lang.

Granger, S., & Bestgen, Y. (2014). The use of collocations by intermediate vs. advanced non-native writers: A bigram-based study. *IRAL, 52*(3), 229–252.

Granger, S., & Lefer, M.-A. (2013). Enriching the phraseological coverage of high-frequency adverbs in English–French bilingual dictionaries. In K. Aijmer & B. Altenberg (Eds.), *Advances in corpusbased contrastive linguistics: Studies in honour of Stig Johansson* (pp. 157–176). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Granger, S., & Meunier, F. (Eds.). (2008). *Phraseology: An interdisciplinary perspective*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Granger, S., Dagneaux, E., Meunier, F., & Paquot, M. (2009). *International Corpus of Learner English (Version 2). Handbook and CD-Rom*. Louvain-la-Neuve: Presses Universitaires de Louvain.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1991). Corpus studies and probabilistic grammar. In K. Aijmer & B. Altenberg (Eds.), *English Corpus linguistics: Studies in honour of Jan Svartvik* (pp. 30–43). London: Longman.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1992). Language a system and language as instance: The corpus as a theoretical construct. In J. Svartvik (Ed.), *Directions in corpus linguistics* (pp. 61–77). Berlin: Mouton.

Herteg, C., & Popescu, T. (2013). Developing students' intercultural and collocational competence through analysing the business press. A corpus-based pedagogic experiment among Romanian MA students. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 83*, 378–382.

Hyland, K. (2009). Corpus informed discourse analysis: The case of academic engagement. In M. Charles, D. Pecorari, & S. Hunston (Eds.), *Academic writing: At the interface of corpus and discourse* (pp. 110–128). London: Continuum International Publishing Group.

Ion, R., & Barbu-Mititelu, V. (2005). Towards ROMANCE FrameNet. The translation task. In *Proceedings of international workshop ROMANCE FrameNet, EUROLAN 2005*, Cluj-Napoca, România.

Jarvis, S., & Paquot, M. (2012). Exploring the role of n-grams in L1 identification. In S. Jarvis & S. A. Crossley (Eds.), *Approaching transfer through text classification: Explorations in the detection-based approach* (pp. 71–105). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Jarvis, S., Bestgen, Y., Crossley, S. A., Granger, S., Paquot, M., Thewissen, J., & McNamara, D. (2012). The comparative and combined contributions of n-grams, Coh-Metrix indices, and error types in the L1 classification of learner texts. In S. Jarvis & S. A. Crossley (Eds.), *Approaching transfer through text classification: Explorations in the detection-based approach* (p. 154177). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Johansson, S. (2007). *Seeing through multilingual corpora. On the use of corpora in contrastive studies*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Kanoksilapatham, B. (2005). Rhetorical structure of biochemistry research articles. *English for Specific Purposes, 24*(3), 269–292.

Krishnamurthy, R. (2006). Corpus Lexicography. In K. Brown (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language and linguistics* (2nd ed., pp. 250–254). Oxford: Elsevier.

Laufer, B., & Waldman, T. (2011). Verb-noun collocations in second language writing: A corpus analysis of learners' English. *Language Learning, 61*(2), 647–672.

Levitzky-Aviad, T., & Laufer, B. (2013). Lexical properties in the writing of foreign language learners over eight years of study: Single words and collocations. In C. Bardel, C. Lindqvist, & B. Laufer (Eds.), *L2 vocabulary acquisition, knowledge and use. New perspectives on assessment and corpus analysis* (EUROSLA Monographs 2, pp. 127–148). Eurosla Monographs Series 2. European Second Language Association.

Lundquist, L. (2007). Academic discourse as social control and system(s), seen through the use of demonstrative noun phrases in French scientific texts. In K. Fløttum (Ed.), *Language and discipline perspectives on academic discourse* (pp. 219–242). Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Press.

Macoveiciuc, M., & Kilgarriff, A. (2010). The RoWaC corpus and Romanian word sketches. In D. Tufis & C. Forascu (Eds.), *Multilinguality and interoperability in language processing with emphasis on Romanian*. Bucharest: Romanian Academy Publishing House.

Mauranen, A. (1993). *Cultural differences in academic rhetoric: A text-linguistic study*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

Mauranen, A. (1994). Two discourse worlds: Study genres in Britain and Finland. *Finlance, 13*, 1–40.

Mauranen, A. (2002). Will "translationese" ruin a contrastive study? *Languages in Contrast, 2*(2), 161–186.

McEnery, T., & Gabrielatos, C. (2006). English corpus linguistics. In B. Aarts & A. McMahon (Eds.), *The handbook of English linguistics* (pp. 33–71). Oxford: Blackwell.

Mikhailov, M., & Cooper, R. (2016). *Corpus linguistics for translation and contrastive studies. A guide for research*. Oxford/New York: Routledge.

Morley. J. (2005). *Academic Phrasebank: An online writing resource,* The University of Manchester. Available from http://www.phrasebank.man.ac.uk

Nation, P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nattinger, J. R., & DeCarrico, J. S. (1992). *Lexical phrases and language teaching*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Nesi, H., & Gardner, S. (2012). *Genres across the disciplines: Student writing in higher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Nesselhauf, N. (2003). The use of collocations by advanced learners of English and some implications for teaching. *Applied Linguistics, 24*(2), 223–242.

Pavlenko, S., & Bojan, C. (2014). Eight reasons to attend an academic writing course. The impact of academic writing courses on partic-ipants. *Studia Universitatis Babeş-Bolyai, Philologia, 59*(3), 209–223.

Römer, U. (2009). Corpus research and practice: What help do teachers need and what can we offer? In K. Aijmer (Ed.), *Corpora and language teaching* (pp. 83–98). Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Römer, U., & O'Donnell, M. B. (2011). From student hard drive to web corpus (part 1): The design, compilation and genre classification of the Michigan Corpus of upper-level student papers (MICUSP). *Corpora, 6*(2), 159–177.

Siepmann, D. (2005). *Discourse markers across languages: A contrastive study of second level discourse markers in native and non-native text with implications for general and pedagogic lexicography* (Routledge advances in corpus linguistics). London/New York: Routledge.

Simpson-Vlach, R., & Ellis, N. C. (2010). An academic formulas list: New methods in phraseology research. *Applied Linguistics, 31*(4), 487–512.

Sinclair, J. (1966). Beginning the study of lexis. In C. E. Bazell, J. C. Catford, M. A. K. Halliday, & R. H. Robins (Eds.), *In memory of J. R. Firth* (pp. 410–430). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Sinclair, J. (2004). *Trust the text: Language, corpus and discourse*. London: Routledge.

Stefanowitsch, A., & Gries, S. T. (2003). Collostructions: Investigating the interaction between words and constructions. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics, 8*(2), 209–243.

Stubbs, M. (2001). *Words and phrases: Corpus studies of lexical semantics*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Swales, J. M. (2004). *Research genres. Explorations and applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tirkkonen-Condit, S. (1985). *Argumentative text structure and translation*. Jyvaskyla: University of Jyvaskyla.

Trandabat, D., & Husarciuc, M. (2008). Romanian semantic role resource. In *Proceedings of the sixth international language resources and evaluation (LREC'08)*, Marrakech, Morocco, May, 28 30, 2008, 2806 2810.

Tufis D., & Irimia, E. (2006). RoCo-news: A hand validated journalistic corpus of Romanian. In *proceedings of the fifth international conference on language resources and evaluation (LREC-2006)*, Genoa, Italy, 2006 (pp. 869–872).

Tufis, D., Barbu-Mititelu, V., Bozianu, L., & Mihaila, C. (2006). Romanian WordNet: New developments and applications. In P. Sojka, K.-S. Choi, C. Fellbaum, & P. Vossen (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 3rd conference of the Global WordNet Association* (pp. 337–344). Jeju: Masaryk University in Brno.

Upton, T. A., & Connor, U. (2001). Using computerized corpus analysis to investigate the textlinguistic discourse moves of a genre. *English for Specific Purposes, 20*(4), 313–329.

Wray, A. (2008). *Formulaic language: Pushing the boundaries* (Oxford applied linguistics). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Individual Differences and Micro-argumentative Writing Skills in EFL: An Exploratory Study at a Hungarian University

Gyula Tankó and Kata Csizér

Abstract An extensive body of literature has been generated on the written argumentation produced by EFL students; however, research studies have not merged analytical perspectives from rhetorical, informal reasoning, and pragma-dialectic perspectives to analyze students' argumentative writing. Furthermore, the relationship between individual differences (ID) variables and argumentation has received limited attention. In this study, we aimed to investigate high-achieving students' ID variables profile (Dörnyei, The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition. Lawrence Erlbaum, Mahwah, 2005; Dörnyei, The psychology of second language acquisition. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 2009; Schmitt, An introduction to applied linguistics. Arnold Publishers, London, 2002) and written argumentation skills. The study involved the top 30% of 140 first-year English language majors from Budapest. A standardized questionnaire was constructed to collect data on university students' motivated learning behavior, language-learning selves, anxiety, and self-efficacy as well as on their learning styles and self-regulation. Timed argumentative essays written by students were used to analyze written argumentation skills. The analytical tools employed in the analysis of argumentation skills were the taxonomy of argumentative theses (Tankó and Tamási, A comprehensive taxonomy of argumentative thesis statements: A preliminary pilot study. Working papers in language pedagogy, 2, 1–17. Available online at: http://langped.elte.hu/WoPaLParticles/W2TankoTamasi.pdf, 2008), the justificatory argument model (Toulmin, The uses of argument. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 2003; Toulmin et al., An introduction to reasoning, 2nd ed. Collier Macmillan, New York, 1984), and the typology of complex argumentation (Van Eemeren et al., Argumentation analysis, evaluation, presentation. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah, 2002). The ID profile of high achievers revealed that they are highly motivated learners with a strong ideal L2 self. Although this marked ID profile is reflected in their written argumentation skills, they also have weaknesses

G. Tankó (✉) · K. Csizér
Department of English Applied Linguistics, Eötvös Loránd University, Budapest, Hungary
e-mail: tanko.gyula@btk.elte.hu

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_11

that need to be addressed in academic skills courses in order to further improve the quality of their argumentation. (This research was supported by the Hungarian Scientific Research Fund (OTKA K83243).)

Keywords Academic writing · Written argumentation · Writing skills · EFL · Individual differences survey

1 Introduction

Argumentation is a skill that any critical thinker, speaker, or writer needs in order to function effectively in society in general and in an academic context in particular. It is therefore a skill that is widely taught at universities for students in all fields of science. Whereas argumentation challenges even native speaker students, it is a skill that non-native speakers regularly struggle with in the course of their studies.

Researchers have made extensive efforts to address the needs of these students. As a result, a substantial body of literature has been generated on the written argumentation produced by EFL students; however, research studies have not merged rhetorical, informal reasoning, and pragma-dialectic analytical perspectives to analyze students' argumentative writing. Furthermore, the relationship between individual differences (ID) variables and argumentation has received limited attention in the field. Describing the ID profile of high achieving students' together with the characteristic features of their argumentation skills can help us understand what makes these students successful and can shed light on the nature of their success in composing argumentative essays. Understanding high achieving students' ID profiles as well as their strengths and weaknesses in written argumentation should allow teachers to assist less successful academic writers to become high achievers and to further improve the argumentation skills of high achievers when deficiencies are found.

In this study, we therefore aimed to investigate high-achieving students' ID variables profile (Dörnyei 2005, 2009; Schmitt 2002) and written argumentation skills. The study involved the top 30% of 140 first-year English language majors attending a large university in Budapest. A standardized questionnaire was constructed to collect data on university students' motivated learning behavior, language-learning selves, anxiety, and self-efficacy as well as on their learning styles and self-regulation. Timed argumentative essays written by students were used to analyze written argumentation skills. The analytical tools employed in the analysis of arguments were the taxonomy of argumentative theses (Tankó and Tamási 2008), the justificatory argument model (Toulmin 2003; Toulmin et al. 1984), and the typology of complex argumentation (Van Eemeren et al. 2002).

Following a review of the relevant ID and argumentation literature, in this paper we present the research questions and methods of the study, describe and discuss the ID profiles together with the strengths and weaknesses identified in the argumentation writing skills of high achieving students, and conclude with some suggestions for academic writing classes.

2 Review of the Literature

ID and written argumentation research have generated a considerable body of literature; however, in the following two subsections we present an overview of only those contributions that directly informed this research study.

2.1 ID Variables

The influence of individual difference variables on learning achievement is a traditionally well-researched field of applied linguistics. In order to explain differences among learners concerning their success or the lack of it in L2 learning, a host of concepts and constructs have been investigated, such as age, gender, language-learning aptitude, motivation, learning style and strategies, anxiety, self-efficacy, and self-regulation. Concerning achievement in academic writing, we felt that the effect of the following variables might be of importance: L2 motivation, self-regulation, anxiety, and self-efficacy beliefs. What follows is a short description of each.

Success in language learning is often shaped by how much energy students are willing to invest into learning; in other words, how motivated the students are (Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011; Gardner 2010). Research efforts concentrate on first drawing up conceptual theories explaining important influences on students' motivation as well as the role of these influences on achievement. One of the first concepts to be investigated was how students' disposition towards the speakers of L2 and L2 itself has an impact on their intended effort put into learning (Gardner 2010). Next, classroom-centered issues were explored to see how language learning motivation works in foreign language contexts (Dörnyei 1994). Most recently, researchers have been interested in how self-related concepts influence L2 motivation and L2 learning (Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011). In our study, we employed the latter perspective and conceptualized Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self-System to measure students' motivation (Dörnyei 2005, 2009). According to this theory, students' motivated learning behavior is affected by three variables: their ideal L2 self, that is, to what extent students can imagine themselves as highly proficient users of the given foreign language; their ought-to L2 self, which describes what outside pressures students acknowledge throughout the learning process that make them invest an increased amount of energy into language learning; and their language-learning experience, which indicates positive attitudes towards the classroom processes (Dörnyei and Ushioda 2011). As a result of a number of empirical studies (Dörnyei and Ushioda 2009), this theory received wide support in different contexts; therefore, we hypothesized that the L2 Motivational Self-System would also provide an adequate measure for the present study.

Apart from L2 motivation, taking responsibility for the learning process is another characteristic feature of successful learners. Studies related to self-regulation investigate to what extent students are able to regulate their learning process, and in

what ways they are capable of taking responsibility for their own learning (Forgas et al. 2009; Pintrich and De Groot 1990; Schunk and Zimmerman 2008). Self-regulation is a highly complex issue that does not lend itself easily to research; therefore, most often self-regulatory strategy use is measured, that is, what practical techniques students report that they employ in order to regulate their thinking and behavior. Kuhl's (1985) seminal work suggested that three main groups of strategies exert influence on learning: cognitive controls (attention, coding, and information processing), affective techniques (controlling emotions and motivation), and environment-related strategies.

Kuhl's theory concerned general learning, but his theory was also tailor-made to L2 learning. Tseng et al. (2006) conducted a questionnaire study to measure how vocabulary learning might be regulated through control variables. As a result of their quantitative data collection and subsequent factor analysis, five main self-regulatory strategies that contribute to vocabulary learning were defined: commitment control, that is, to what extent students establish short- and long-term goals and how they achieve these goals; metacognitive control, describing how students are able to focus and concentrate on learning; satiation control, explaining how boredom might be overcome during long and tedious tasks; emotional control, measuring how students cope with anxiety and other possibly disruptive emotions throughout the learning process; and environmental control, explaining how students might be able to create environmental support for learning. In the present investigation, we adapted these categories to writing in general and to academic writing in particular.

Another important construct to be explored is language-learning anxiety (MacIntyre and Gardner 1994). Studies in this field have explored the effects of negative emotions on L2 learning; for example, how language-use anxiety and foreign language-classroom anxiety have detrimental effects on L2 learning (Horwitz et al. 1986). Different classifications exist in the literature depending on whether anxiety either facilitates or debilitates or is seen as state or trait anxiety. Recently, learning skill-related classification has also been gaining impact, which shows that anxious feelings might be linked to different learning skills, and students might experience different levels of anxiety when speaking, listening, reading, or writing (Cheng et al. 1999; Brózik-Piniel unpublished). In our study, we employed one skill-related anxiety measure that collects data on to what extent students are anxious before, during, and after writing in English (Brózik-Piniel unpublished).

Finally, although anxiety is often seen as the ultimate negative measure of L2 learning, it is also important to include constructs that measure positive feelings towards L2 learning. Self-efficacy beliefs refer to what students think they are able to do well in the learning process (Brózik-Piniel and Csizér 2013). Hence, self-efficacy beliefs include individuals' own dispositions towards what they think they can do well and what tasks they can accomplish easily in the process of learning (Bandura 1993; Valentine et al. 2004, p. 111). In addition, self-efficacy beliefs are seen to affect students' goals, motivation, and anxiety; therefore, it seems important to investigate the ways in which students' own attitudes towards their capabilities might influence their actual achievement (Bandura 1993). The following section discusses the literature relevant for the analysis of argumentation.

2.2 Argumentation

Given that our study focused on arguments embedded in integral instances of written discourse, namely one-paragraph essays, the rhetorical structure of the argumentative essays was analyzed. The features of the argumentative essays we investigated were the presence of a functionally appropriate topic sentence, which is the functional equivalent of a thesis statement in that it expresses the main claim of the essay, the presence of the elements of the model of argument, and the type of argumentation structure.

Taxonomy of Claim Types

Based on a comprehensive review of the taxonomies of argumentative theses, Tankó and Tamási (2008) proposed a taxonomy of claim types that divides claims into two subtypes: non-relational and relational (Fig. 1). Non-relational claims focus on one core element about which they formulate an evaluation or in connection with which they articulate a recommendation. For example, the thesis statement, "The UK should not discourage immigrants from Eastern European countries," contains a simple policy claim that names a particular course of action (core element: UK's action) and states that it is undesirable (recommendation). In contrast, relational

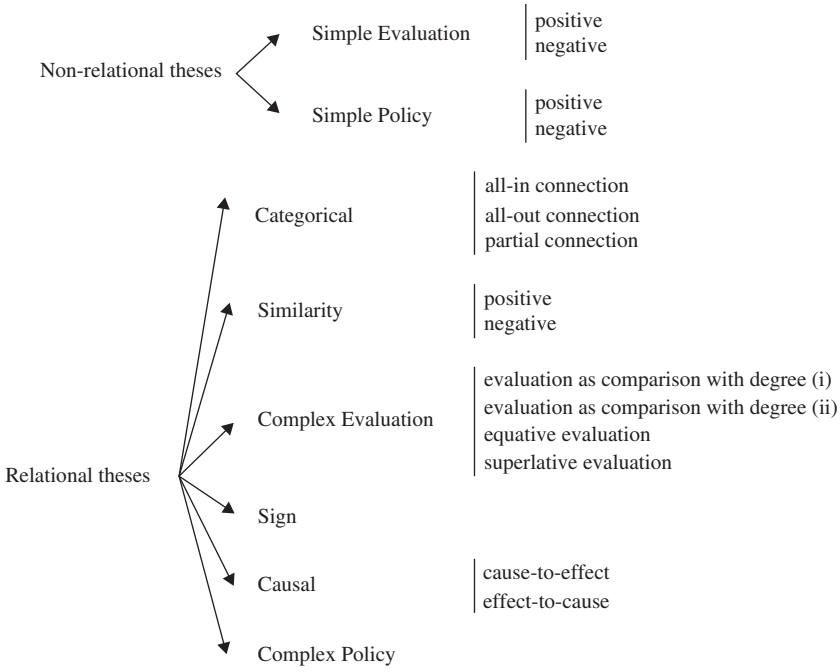

Fig. 1 The taxonomy of claim types

claims establish a connection between two core elements (e.g., by comparing or contrasting, as in the following thesis statement: "Blake's *Songs of Experience* are more dramatic than his *Songs of Innocence*.").

Tankó and Tamási (2008) found that in multi-paragraph argumentative essays students used mostly thesis statements expressing non-relational claims (75.67%), primarily of the simple policy (positive) and simple evaluation (positive) subtypes. The preferred relational claim types were causal (cause-to-effect) and categorical (all-in connection; p. 13) claims.

Toulmin Model of Argument

Toulmin (2003) stated that the function of an argument is the justification of a claim. He claimed that a "sound argument, a well-grounded or firmly-backed claim, is one which will stand up to criticism, one for which a case can be presented coming up to the standard required if it is to deserve a favorable verdict" (p. 8). Consequently, his concern was the development of such a layout for an argument that would capture the "sources of its validity" (p. 88). He therefore developed a model of the argument suitable for the analysis of real-life arguments in which, contrary to arguments in formal logic, the conclusion only follows from the premises with some degree of probability. Hence, the importance of the component of the model called modal qualifier, which is defined below.

The model further described in Toulmin et al. (1984) is suitable for the analysis of the structure of arguments. It consists of six components that can be grouped into two categories: the basic components in an argument are the claim, grounds, and warrant, which are conditioned by the backing, modal qualifier, and rebuttal (Fig. 2).

The first component, the claim, which serves as the conclusion of the argument, is the assertion that is to be justified. The claim is supported by explicit grounds, namely data on which the assertion is based. The third component, the warrant, is a proposition which attests that, taking into account the grounds, the claim is appropriate and legitimate. A warrant is an inference step from the grounds to the claim usually appealed to implicitly and can be, for example, a rule, a principle, or an inference license. If the warrant is challenged, assurance is given in the form of

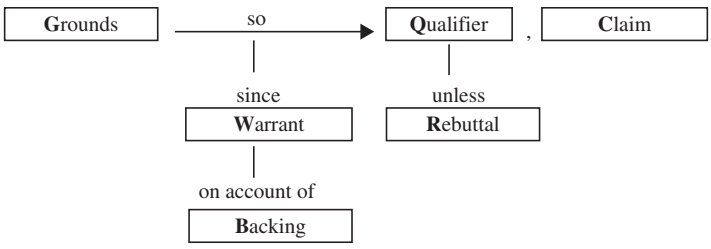

Fig. 2 The structure of Toulmin's model of argument (2003)

categorical statements of fact, e.g., laws or statistics, in order to confirm its authority and currency. This kind of support for the warrant is the backing, which may remain implicit unless the warrant is challenged. The fifth component is the modal qualifier. Modal qualifiers, such as the adverbs *necessarily*, *probably*, or *presumably*, indicate the strength of the step taken from the grounds to the claim. The final component, rebuttal, refers to circumstances in which the warrant lacks general authority. The use of the rebuttal can be perceived as an act of hedging in which the arguer intentionally weakens the claim.

The Toulmin model of argument has been widely used for a variety of purposes in research studies on argumentative texts. One of the most prominent uses of the model was for the construction of rating schemes for the evaluation of argumentative essays written by students. Connor and her fellow researchers produced a body of research (Carrell and Connor 1991; Connor 1987, 1993; Connor and Lauer 1988; Connor and Takala 1987; Crammond 1997, 1998; Ferris 1994; Lunsford 2002; Varghese and Abraham 1998; Yeh 1998) in which they used the same scale based on the Toulmin model in combination with various other methods in order to identify those variables that can best predict the quality of student writing and to describe differences in the argumentative texts of writers from different cultures. In several of these studies (e.g., Carrell and Connor 1991; Connor 1993; Connor and Lauer 1988), the Toulmin model of argument was used for the examination of the argument structure of full discourses. These studies investigated argumentative essays written by native English speaker students and non-native English speaker students in their L1.

Typology of Argumentation

Van Eemeren et al. (2002) proposed an argument structure taxonomy that categorizes arguments as instances of simple or complex argumentation. Simple argumentation is realized with the construction of a single argument consisting of a claim and one explicit premise (or grounds, according to Toulmin's terminology) serving as its support. Single arguments can combine to form complex argumentation. Several single arguments, each of which can independently support a claim, realize the type of argument structure called multiple argumentation. On the other hand, single arguments that need to be taken together to effectively support a claim form coordinative argumentation. Finally, the type of argumentation that consists of a chain of hierarchically organized single arguments constitutes subordinate argumentation. As described by Toulmin et al. (1984), Fulkerson (1996), and Lunsford (2002), an essay can be constructed as a single argument that contains one main claim and a minimum of one ground element presented as support for the claim, or it can be constructed as a complex argument consisting of a combination of several forms of argumentation. Fulkerson (1996), for example, proposed that an argumentative essay should be analyzed as consisting of a "nested group of sub-arguments" (p. 26), each of which can be paraphrased with the elements of the Toulmin model of argument. Short argumentative essays can feature either type of argument structure.

3 Research Questions

In this research study, we aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. How can high-achieving students' L2 motivation, self-regulation, anxiety, and self-efficacy beliefs be described?
2. What are the main and subclaim types used by high-achieving students?
3. Can high-achieving students establish an argumentative focus?
4. What characterizes the high-achieving students' use of the core components of the Toulmin model?
5. Which types of argumentation structures do high-achieving students use?

4 Methods

The study used mixed methods, combining research methods from quantitative and qualitative research. In what follows, we present a brief description of the participants, questionnaire, writing task, and data collection and analysis.

4.1 Participants

The participants of the study were 41 Hungarian L1 high-achieving English majors selected from 140 university students at a Hungarian university. Thirty-two of the participants were female (78%) and nine (22%) male. The average age of our participants was 20.5 (the youngest respondent was 18 years old, and the oldest was 32 years old), and 9.75% of our participants were older than 23. The participants typically started learning English between the ages of six and ten, and their level of English ranged from B2 to C1. In addition to English, the majority (68.29%) also reported that they were learning another foreign language. The most popular third languages included German, Spanish, Italian, and French. At the time of the data collection, all the participants were first-year BA students who attended a compulsory course on writing English for academic purposes.

4.2 The Questionnaire

The questionnaire included 73 items, among which five were open-ended items at the end of the instrument, inquiring about students' age, gender, and foreign language learning background. All the other items used 5-point rating scales. The items of the questionnaire came from several sources (Bandura 2006; Kormos and Csizér 2008; Brózik-Piniel unpublished; Ryan 2005; Tseng et al. 2006), but all the items

asking about language learning in general were adapted to writing in English. The final instrument was piloted with 79 students in the autumn term of 2011 (Csizér 2012). The constructs of the questionnaire are as follows (for further details, also see Tankó and Csizér 2014):

(a) Motivated learning behavior (five items) describes how much effort students are willing to invest in language learning. Sample item: *I do my best to learn English as well as possible*.
(b) Ideal L2 self (four items) measures students' vision about their future language use. Sample item: *When I think of my future career, I imagine being able to use English on a near-native level*.
(c) Ought-to L2 self (seven items) asks about external pressures concerning learning English. Sample item: *I feel that I am expected to speak English like a native*.
(d) Language-learning experience (four items) inquires about participants' past experiences in learning English. Sample item: *I always liked the tasks we did in English classes at my secondary school*.
(e) International orientation (four items) describes students' attitudes towards the global status of English. Sample item: *It is necessary to learn English because it is an international language*.
(f) Writing anxiety (eight items) includes statements about students' anxiety concerning writing tasks at the university. Sample item: *When I hand in a written assignment, I am anxious about my tutor's opinion*.
(g) Self-efficacy (nine items) measures to what extent students think that they are able to complete their writing assignments self-confidently and with ease. Sample item: *I am sure that I can complete any writing tasks in English*.
(h) Self-regulated behavior (twenty items) included five subscales on how much responsibility students can take for their own learning. All scales related to various control measures and they were as follows: environmental control (sample item: *I can concentrate on writing in less than ideal environments as well*.); satiation control (sample item: *If I get bored during a writing task, I can easily overcome this boredom*.); metacognitive control (sample item: *I can control my attention during long writing tasks*.); emotional control (sample item: *I can overcome my anxiety concerning writing in English*.); and commitment control (sample item: *I have my own strategies to complete my writing-related goals*.).

The reliability analysis of the scales can be found in Csizér and Tankó (2017).

4.3 The Short Essay

The writing task the students were administered was a short argumentative essay. In the course of the writing English for academic purposes training, students practiced constructing written arguments and embedding them into essays. In order to optimize the conditions for multiple drafting and to accelerate peer- and tutor-written

feedback provision, as well as to give students the opportunity to create whole pieces of academic written discourse that have texture (Halliday and Hasan 1976) and feature all the core rhetorical components of longer formal texts, the essay type selected for the study was the one-paragraph argumentative essay. This essay subgenre is typically used for pedagogical purposes (Henry and Roseberry 1999) and consists of a title, an introduction, a body, and a conclusion. Each of these rhetorical components allows students to practice the realization of the various rhetorical goals they need for writing longer academic assignments, which can range from multi-paragraph essays, through seminar papers, to bachelor's or master's theses.

The essays were written as part of a centrally administered timed examination. Students were given a topic related to university education, namely the attendance of university lectures, with which they were familiar and on which they could take an argumentative stance, formulate a claim based on their stance, and build support for it relying solely on their background knowledge. Topic familiarity was an important factor in task design because language testers claim that it affects the quality of written production (Weigle 2002, pp. 44–45) and has a potential impact on revision (Porte 1996, p. 111). In order to reduce the amount of anxiety induced by the time constraint, which can also have a negative effect on the efficiency of revision (Porte 1996, p. 113), the length for the essay was specified as ranging from 130 to 150 words, which is almost identical to the average length of a paragraph in an English language expository academic text written by an adult English native-speaker academic (Simpson 2000, pp. 298–299). Research has also shown (Bridwell 1980, pp. 216–217) that the shorter and less laborious it is to revise a script, the more substantial revision student writers perform. Therefore, with the decisions on topic choice, length requirement, and time allotted for the completion of the task, we aimed to optimize the conditions for composing the argumentative essay.

4.4 Data Collection and Analysis

The questionnaire data collection took place in March 2012. During regular classes, students were asked by their tutors to fill in the standardized questionnaire, the completion of which took approximately 20 minutes. Participation was voluntary, but the questionnaire asked for the students' identification codes in order to be able to match the questionnaire data with the data generated through the analyses of the essays.

Questionnaire data was computer coded using SPSS 16.0 for Windows. The essays were analyzed, and the numerical results were also added to the file. The data analysis presented here includes descriptive statistics on high-achieving students.

The argumentative essays were written in March 2012 as part of an academic skills test. The test was administered for all first-year students, and every student took it at the same time. The time allotted for the completion of the essay-writing task was 45 minutes, but students who completed the essay earlier were allowed to start working on the remaining test tasks.

The essays were rated independently by two raters, following a rater-training session. The analytic scale consisting of four subscales used for rating was developed specifically for this test based on Tankó (2005). The two raters independently awarded four subscores and each calculated a total score for the essays. Following this, they compared their scores and agreed on the final subscores and total score according to the rules specified in a guidelines for raters. The final scores were used to select the top 30% of the essays for this study. The top score that could be awarded for the essay was 15 points. Of the 41 high-achieving students, 26 (63.4%) scored 13 points, 14 (34.1%) scored 14 points, and 1 scored 15 points.

The essays were scanned before the rating stage and typed up. The analytical tools used for the analysis of the essays were the taxonomy of argumentative theses (Tankó and Tamási 2008), the justificatory argument model (Toulmin 2003; Toulmin et al. 1984), and the typology of complex argumentation (Van Eemeren et al. 2002). Two analysts independently analyzed each essay (Percentage agreement = 0.923).

5 Results and Discussion

5.1 The ID Variables Profile of High-Achieving Students

As can be seen from Table 1, high-achieving students show exceptionally high values concerning their motivated learning behavior; that is, they are willing to invest as much energy into the writing process as necessary to produce good academic texts. Interestingly enough, the mean value of their ideal L2 self-scale is even higher. It seems that they consider it even more important to have clear future-related guides to show them what they need to achieve in the future. In other words, their invested effort is directed towards very clear future aims. This draws our attention to the fact that in regard to academic writing, it is very important to explain to students why the

Table 1 Descriptive statistics of ID variables

	Scales	M ($n = 41$)	SD
1.	Motivated learning behavior	4.55	0.47
2.	Ideal L2 self	4.72	0.29
3.	Ought-to L2 self	3.71	0.53
4.	Language-learning experience	3.90	1.05
5.	International orientation	4.29	0.43
6.	Writing anxiety	2.72	2.72
7.	Self-efficacy	3.66	0.61
8.	Environmental control	3.77	0.60
9.	Satiation control	3.84	0.66
10.	Metacognitive control	3.98	0.84
11.	Emotional control	3.94	0.76
12.	Commitment control	3.46	0.73

various skills and sub-skills might be important for them in the future and to help them develop future visions to guide them. Based on the result related to high achieving students' ought-to L2 self, it seems that the role of outside pressure is markedly lower than the role of their ideal L2 self (M = 3.71 and M = 4.72, respectively). The fact that the mean value of their language-learning experience does not reach 4 (M = 3.90) indicates that these high-achieving students are not completely satisfied with their learning experience, and yet they can still find sources to motivate themselves. How they do that is a question that we cannot answer based on the anxiety, self-efficacy, and control-related results, as all of these seem to be close to the average. Further research is certainly needed to investigate the source of these students' motivation and resulting high achievement.

5.2 The Argumentation Skills of High-Achieving Students

The following section presents the findings related to the use of main claims and the success with which students managed to establish an argumentative focus for their essays. This is followed by an analysis of subclaims. The findings related to the use of the problematic key components of the Toulmin model of argument in both the main and subclaims are then presented. The section concludes with a description of the argumentation structures used in the essays.

Main Claims Used and the Establishment of an Argumentative Focus

High achieving students used only two types of main claim in 37 out of the 41 essays: simple policy ($n = 21$) and simple evaluation ($n = 16$). In connection with the topic of university attendance, this means that they chose to formulate a desirable course of action to be taken (8 students argued that attendance should be obligatory whereas 13 argued that it should not be obligatory) or an evaluation (6 students claimed that making lecture attendance obligatory is advisable, and 10 claimed that it is not). Therefore, just over half of the high achieving students (56.09%) argued with two non-relational main claim types for the attendance of university lectures not to be obligatory.

Because it requires more complex argumentation to substantiate relational claims, it could be argued that the students chose non-relational claim types as a result of the brevity of the essay they were instructed to write. However, as an earlier study (Tankó and Tamási 2008) showed, the majority of test takers, who were overall more proficient speakers of English and more skilled academic writers than the students in this study, also opted for non-relational theses when writing multi-paragraph essays that were almost four times longer than the essays investigated in this study. The results of these two studies seem to show a preference for non-relational claims that is independent of the essay length specification.

In the essays investigated in this study, high achieving students rarely lost their argumentative focus. This is in contrast with the findings reported by Tankó (2013) following the analysis of a large body of argumentative essays written by not only high achieving but by all first-year students as part of an academic skills test. Students in that study tended to write bifurcated or trifurcated main claims in which, instead of one claim to be supported in the essays, they formulated two or three separate main claims and thus lost their argumentative focus and weakened the rhetorical effectiveness of their essays. In contrast, high achieving students seemed to have mastered the skills for establishing a clear argumentative focus because only two cases were found among the 41 essays where a main claim contained two distinct claims/foci:

1. *In my opinion obligatory attendance of university lectures is necessary* (Focus 1) *and useful* (Focus 2). [Essay F-02]
2. *The idea of making attendance of university lectures obligatory is just simply irrational* (Focus 1) *and bad* (Focus 1). [Essay G-08]

However, the two foci in both these cases are closely related because the students focused ultimately on one aspect (make attendance obligatory [Essay F-02], and do not make it obligatory [Essay G-08]); therefore, the support built for the claim could disambiguate the argumentative focus of the writer and consequently diminish any potential negative effect on the coherence of the argument.

Refutations can strengthen arguments and also establish a strong argumentative focus. In two essays out of the 41, the students took a powerful and straightforward rhetorical stance by embedding the main claim into a refutation.

3. *The obligatory attendance of university lectures is theoretically a good idea, but in practice, it is hardly possible to establish it.* [Essay A-05]
4. *The obligatory attendance of university lectures, even though the idea is opposed by some, is beneficial for students*. [Essay A-03]

The first example illustrates the use of a quasi-concession: a statement that only seemingly grants the validity of the opponent's claim. The second example shows that the opponent's claim is countered by the writer's claim.

Subclaims

High achieving students could potentially use any of the non-relational and relational claims from the taxonomy of claims (Tankó and Tamási 2008) to formulate subclaims. In contrast to the use of main claims, subclaim use shows more variation: Students used, in addition to the two non-relational claim types, three relational claim types (causal, complex evaluation, and categorical claims). Only the claim options similarity, sign, and complex policy claims were not used (Table 2).

These results show that students are also familiar with specific non-relational claim types, but they are unwilling to use them as main claims in their essays. The relational claims they avoided do indeed require complex support that necessitates the construction of complex rhetorical structures, which may not be feasible in short essays.

Table 2 The subclaim types used

Subclaim	Frequency	%
Simple evaluation	69	50.7
Causal	37	27.2
Simple policy	11	8.1
Complex evaluation	10	7.4
Categorical	9	6.6
Total	136	100.0

The Use of Modal Qualifiers

This section focuses on the third core element of the Toulmin model, the modal qualifier, which serves to indicate the strength of an argument. The strength of the argument is determined by several factors: One of them is the rebuttal condition, as a result of which the claim of an argument often only stands with some degree of probability. This has to be indicated with a qualifier. However, high-achieving students used few qualifiers and very rarely in their main claims; they resorted solely to modals such as *would* or *should* as illustrated in the following examples:

5. *Making the attendance of university lectures obligatory would be a bad idea for several reasons.* [Essay I-05]
6. *There are several reasons why university lecturers should not be obligatory.* [Essay K-14]

The use of modal qualifiers is a little more varied in the subclaims. In addition to *would* and *should*, students used other modals (*may*, *might*, *can*, and *could*), a few adverbs (*often*, *sometimes*, *probably*, and *likely*) and occasionally adjectives (*possible*) as shown in the following examples:

7. *… they might disturb both the students and the lecturer by eating or talking*. [Essay A-09]
8. *Secondly, the presence of a whole year in a classroom may cause problems.* [Essay F-09]
9. *Secondly, studying from just books can be more difficult.* [Essay M-01]
10. *This could provide some free seats for those who are really motivated and ambitious.* [Essay L-03]
11. *They are likely to catch these hints and make use of them, ...* [Essay D-01]
12. *Therefore, they will probably pass the exam.* [Essay D-01]

It is to be noted that as shown in the last two examples, the more varied use of qualifiers was characteristic of the same few students. The small number of modal qualifiers used indicates that high achieving students have not fully mastered cogent argumentation and that this is an area where they need further support.

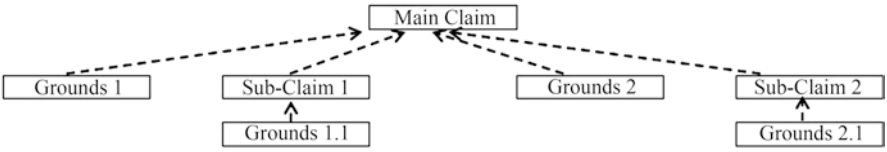

Fig. 3 Complex argumentation structure

Argument Structure Types

High achieving students used primarily single argumentation (66.4%) and some instances of coordinative (21.9%) and subordinative argumentation (10.2%). The least frequent argument structure type was multiple argumentation, of which only two instances were found. This shows that students most often produced support that consisted of arguments containing a subclaim and one supporting idea (or grounds, using Toulmin's terminology). The second most frequent support consisted of one subclaim typically based on two or, rarely, three supporting ideas. Therefore, all the claims were substantiated, but the strongest argumentation structure, multiple argumentation, was used the least frequently.

Occasionally, the students mixed different argumentation structures. Subclaims and their grounds, which together served each as a supporting argument, were used together with ideas that served as direct support for the main claim. This resulted in the complex argumentation structure shown in Fig. 3.

In only one case did a student construct an argument that consisted of one main claim supported entirely by individual direct pieces of support: four premises that served as individual grounds (as in the Toulmin model of argument). However, the varied argumentation structures and the uses of refutation as an argumentation structure show that complex arguments can be built even in such a short argumentative essay as the one-paragraph essay investigated and that high-achieving students are not only willing to experiment with argument construction but are also successful at it.

6 Conclusions

The analysis of ID variables has shown that high achieving students are highly motivated writers of academic texts. They have a clear understanding of the ways in which written academic argumentation is likely to be of use to them in the future, and they do not seem to need excessive outside pressure to invest an increased amount of energy into the development of academic writing skills. These findings underline the importance of helping students understand the purpose of academic writing and of assisting them to build an image of themselves as highly proficient writers of academic English.

Based on the analysis of the written argumentation skills of high achieving students, a number of recommendations can be formulated: Teachers of academic writing skills should familiarize students with relational claim types and practice building support for such claims with them. Familiarity with various claim types is likely to result in a larger variety of essays with varied rhetorical structures determined by the type of support built to substantiate the claim type (c.f., Fahnestock and Secor 2000, 2004). Even some of the high-achieving students need to practice writing theses that contain only one well-formulated claim. Furthermore, teachers should make students familiar with refutation (e.g., Tankó 2012 discusses the schematic structure of refutation together with concession) and practice it. Familiarity with refutation allows students to engage in a more interactive and focused academic discussion with other writers whose claims they need to (partially) concede to or refute. More attention must be devoted to the use of modal qualifiers, and this should be taught with a thorough understanding of the structure of arguments and the relationship between the individual components of an argument. A thorough understanding of the rebuttal element is imperative for the appropriate use of qualifiers. Finally, starting out from the Toulmin model of argument and then moving on to the complex argument structures, even high achieving students need to practice the various argumentation structure types. From the types of complex argumentation, they need to focus especially on multiple argumentation.

It has also been established in the course of our analysis that further research is needed to investigate the source of high-achieving students' motivation as well as their use of non-relational claim types in the body of their essays and not as main claims.

References

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist, 28*(1), 117–148.

Bandura, A. (2006). Guide to the construction of self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares & T. Urdan (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (Vol. 5, pp. 307–337). Greenwich: Information Age Publishing.

Bridwell, L. S. (1980). Revising strategies in twelfth grade students' transactional writing. *Research in the Teaching of English, 14*(3), 197–222.

Brózik-Piniel, K. (unpublished). Kérdőív a négy alapkészséggel kapcsolatos szorongás mérésére.

Brózik-Piniel, K., & Csizér, K. (2013). L2 motivation, anxiety and self-efficacy: The interrelationship of individual variables in the secondary school context. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 3*(4), 523–546.

Carrell, P. L., & Connor, U. (1991). Reading and writing descriptive and persuasive texts. *Modern Language Journal, 75*(3), 314–324.

Cheng, Y.-S., Horwitz, E. K., & Schallert, D. L. (1999). Language anxiety: Differentiating writing and speaking components. *Language Learning, 49*(3), 417–446.

Connor, U. (1987). Argumentative patterns in student essays: Cross-cultural differences. In U. Connor & R. B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing across languages: Analysis of L2 text* (pp. 57–72). Reading: Addison-Wesley.

Connor, U. (1993). Linguistic/rhetorical measure for evaluating ESL writing. In L. Hamp-Lyons (Ed.), *Assessing second language writing in academic contexts* (pp. 215–225). Norwood: Ablex.

Connor, U., & Lauer, J. (1988). Cross-cultural variation in persuasive student writing. In A. Purves (Ed.), *Writing across languages and cultures: Issues in contrastive rhetoric* (pp. 109–137). Newbury Park: Sage.

Connor, U., & Takala, S. (1987). Predictors of persuasive essay writing: Some pilot test results in the United States and England. In R. E. Degenhart (Ed.), *Assessment of student writing in an international context* (pp. 187–205). Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä Press.

Crammond, J. G. (1997). *An analysis of argument structure in expert and student persuasive writing*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, McGill University, Montreal.

Crammond, J. G. (1998). The uses and complexity of argument structures in expert and student persuasive writing. *Written Communication, 15*(2), 230–269.

Csizér, K. (2012). A második nyelvi motivációs énrendszer, az önszabályozó tanulás és az énhatékonysági képzetek szerepe a nyelvtanulási motivációban: Egy kérdőíves vizsgálat angol szakos egyetemisták körében [The role of the L2 motivational self system, self-regulatory learning and self-efficacy beliefs in L2 learning motivation: The results of a questionnaire study among English majors]. *Iskolakultúra, 22*(11), 42–51.

Csizér, K., & Tankó, Gy. (2017). English majors' self-regulatory control strategy use in academic writing and its relation to L2 motivation, *Applied Linguistics, 38*(3), 386–404.

Dörnyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom. *Modern Language Journal, 78*(3), 273–284.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). *The psychology of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2009). *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Longman.

Fahnestock, J., & Secor, M. (2000). Teaching argument: A theory of types. In E. P. J. Corbett, N. Myers, & G. Tate (Eds.), *The writing teacher's sourcebook* (4th ed., pp. 222–230). New York: Oxford University Press.

Fahnestock, J., & Secor, M. (2004). *A rhetoric of argument* (3rd ed.). New York: McGaw.

Ferris, D. (1994). Rhetorical strategies in student persuasive writing: Differences between native and non-native English speakers. *Research in the Teaching of English, 28*(1), 45–65.

Forgas, J. P., Baumeister, R. F., & Dianne, M. T. (2009). *Psychology of self-regulation*. New York: Psychology Press.

Fulkerson, R. (1996). *Teaching the argument in writing*. Urbana: NCTE.

Gardner, R. C. (2010). *Motivation and second language acquisition: The socio-educational model*. New York: Peter Lang.

Halliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). *Cohesion in English*. London: Longman.

Henry, A., & Roseberry, R. L. (1999). Raising awareness of the generic structure and linguistic features of essay introductions. *Language Awareness, 8*(3&4), 190–200.

Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *Modern Language Journal, 70*(1), 125–132.

Kormos, J., & Csizér, K. (2008). Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: Attitudes, selves and motivated learning behaviour. *Language Learning, 58*(2), 327–355.

Kuhl, J. (1985). Volitional mediators of cognition-behavior consistency: Self-regulatory processes and action versus state orientation. In J. Kuhl & J. Beckmann (Eds.), *Motivation, intention and volition* (pp. 279–291). Berlin: Springer.

Lunsford, K. J. (2002). Contextualising Toulmin's model in the writing classroom: A case study. *Written Communication, 19*(1), 109–174.
MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning, 44*(2), 283–305.
Pintrich, P. R., & De Groot, E. V. (1990). Motivation and self-regulated learning components of academic performance. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 82*(1), 33–40.
Porte, G. (1996). When writing fails: How academic context and past learning experiences shape revision. *System, 24*(1), 107–116.
Ryan, S. (2005). *Motivational factors questionnaire*. Nottingham: School of English Studies, University of Nottingham.
Schmitt, N. (2002). *An introduction to applied linguistics*. London: Arnold Publishers.
Schunk, D. H., & Zimmerman, B. J. (2008). *Self-regulated learning: From teaching to self-reflective practice*. New York: Guilford Press.
Simpson, J. M. (2000). Topical structure analysis of academic paragraphs in English and Spanish. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 9*(3), 293–309.
Tankó, Gy. (2005). *Into Europe: The writing handbook*. Budapest: Teleki László Foundation/ British Council.
Tankó, Gy. (2012). *Professional writing: The academic context* (Rev. 2nd ed.). Budapest: Eötvös University Press.
Tankó, Gy. (2013, March). *The quality of argumentation in EFL student writing*. Paper presented at the AAAL 2013 conference, Dallas, United States of America.
Tankó, Gy., & Csizér, K. (2014). Investigating English majors' individual differences through their argumentative essays. In V. Ruttkay & B. Gárdos (Eds.), *HUSSE 11 proceedings of the 11th conference of the Hungarian society for the study of English* (pp. 701–718). Budapest: L'Harmattan.
Tankó, Gy., & Tamási, G. J. (2008). A comprehensive taxonomy of argumentative thesis statements: A preliminary pilot study. *Working Papers in Language Pedagogy*, *2*, 1−17. Available online at: http://langped.elte.hu/WoPaLParticles/W2TankoTamasi.pdf
Toulmin, S. E. (2003). *The uses of argument*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Toulmin, S. E., Rieke, R. D., & Janik, A. (1984). *An introduction to reasoning* (2nd ed.). New York: Collier Macmillan.
Tseng, W.-T., Dörnyei, Z., & Schmitt, N. (2006). A new approach to assessing strategic learning: The case of self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition. *Applied Linguistics, 27*(1), 78–102.
Valentine, J. C., DuBois, D. L., & Cooper, H. (2004). The relation between self-beliefs and academic achievement: A meta-analytic review. *Educational Psychologist, 39*(1), 111–133.
Van Eemeren, F. H., Grootendorst, R., & Snoeck-Henkemans, A. F. (2002). *Argumentation analysis, evaluation, presentation*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
Varghese, S., & Abraham, S. A. (1998). Undergraduates arguing a case. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 7*(3), 287–306.
Weigle, S. (2002). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
Yeh, S. S. (1998). Validation of a scheme for assessing argumentative writing of middle school students. *Assessing Writing, 5*(1), 123–150.

In at the Deep End: The Struggles of First-Year Hungarian University Students Adapting to the Requirements of Written Academic Discourse in an EFL Context

Francis J. Prescott

Abstract This paper describes the principal findings of an ethnographic study of 20 first-year bachelor's students of English at a large Hungarian state university. The research was done over three semesters, and the main aim was to construct a grounded theory explaining how new students become enculturated into written academic discourse in an EFL context. Another point of interest was to investigate the role played in this process by a compulsory academic skills course. The research framework drew on contrasting theoretical constructs of learning: the first was Swales' (Other floors, other voices: A textography of a small university building. Lawrence Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ, 1998) description of the academic discourse community (ADC) and the other was Lave and Wenger's (Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation. Cambridge University Press, New York, NY, 1991) model of learning through peripheral participation in communities of practice. The theoretical model that was the outcome of the research describes the students' experience in their first year in three phases. The main features of each phase will be described, and the usefulness of the model for understanding the broad differences between students will be discussed.

Keywords Academic writing · Academic discourse community · Writing course · EFL

1 Introduction

As an experienced teacher of academic writing to undergraduates, the differences in how students tackle their writing assignments and in the quality of the writing they produce have long been of interest to me. Alongside this interest, I have noticed that many of my colleagues in the School of English and American Studies (SEAS) in the large Hungarian university where I teach have shown an increasing pessimism

F. J. Prescott (✉)
Faculty of Humanities, Department of English Linguistics, Károli Gáspár University of the Reformed Church in Hungary, Budapest, Hungary

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_12

about the standard of students' writing, believing that it is dropping noticeably and that student writing has become a problem that is difficult to deal with.

Such a discourse of student writing being seen as a problem at university is by no means restricted to Hungary or other countries where English is taught as a foreign language. Recent official government-sponsored reports in the US and the UK have described student writing in almost exactly the same way as some of the teachers in the research that forms the subject of this paper. For example, the following comments are from a focus group of teachers reported on in the Nuffield Review Preliminary Report, which was an independent study done in 2006 in 21 higher education institutions across England and Wales:

> Basic writing skills are lacking. (admissions office)
> They can't even write in sentences. Their spelling is appalling. They can't be understood. (physics)
> They don't know how to write essays—they just assemble bits from the Internet.
> Elementary maths is missing. They can't put decent sentences together. There is no provision in university for people who can't write essays. (biology)
> They can't structure a set of ideas in a logical sequence. (physics)
> They can't write in sentences—they produce meaningless work. (mathematics)
> They graduate with a 2:1 but they still can't spell or write English! (physics). (Wilde et al. 2006, p. 14)

For comparison, here are some extracts from interviews done with teachers of English literature and English linguistics in my own PhD research in 2006, which is the subject of this article (the code indicates the type of teacher—LIT is literature and LING is linguistics—their identifying number, and the page of the transcript):

> … very often they don't write a thesis, there is no thesis, so I'm reading but I've no idea toward what thought I'm reaching or, where I'm going, or what is the point. (LIT2, p. 9)

> The other problem, however, is that they have no real understanding of the basics of writing a proper essay—structure, style, register. (LIT3, p. 1)

> But you having to check on Google whether it's original or plagiarised every time is a very distressing thing. (LIT5, p. 3)

> Well somehow the level is worse and worse, it is deteriorating. (LING3, p. 3)

Clearly there is a widespread crisis in confidence concerning student writing skills in higher education. These kinds of crises in literacy are nothing new—perhaps the earliest documented one can be found in the works of Cicero lamenting the standard of Latin usage of his day—and there have been several in the era of mass education. Perhaps the greater numbers of students gaining access to higher education in developed countries can be part of the explanation (Grabe and Kaplan 1996; Lillis 2001; Hyland 2011), but whatever the cause or exact nature of the phenomenon, classroom teachers are faced with the very real problem of how to help students who have weak literacy skills.

Moreover, this problem cannot be divorced from the problem of the difficulty students often experience in making the transition from high school to university, which has been pointed out in both first-language contexts (e.g., Kruse 2003) and

especially in situations where students with a different mother tongue are faced with English as the medium of instruction (Hyland 2002a, 2011; Paltridge 2004; Zhu 2004). It was specifically to deal with this difficult transition to higher education that freshman composition courses were created in the US education system during the onset of mass education at the end of the nineteenth century, and these courses were to evolve into the teaching of English for academic purposes (EAP) courses that are now widespread in institutions around the world catering to both English as a second language (ESL) students in English-speaking countries and English as a foreign language (EFL) students in their own countries.

As a teacher in one such EAP course in an EFL context, I had a strong pedagogical interest in finding out more about my own students' difficulties when they first came to university and were faced with challenging writing tasks in their specialist subjects. This interest became the focus for my PhD research. The main aims were to find out how new students adapt to the requirements of academic writing and how effective the compulsory Academic Skills Course (ASC) that they took in the first two semesters was in helping them adapt. Since this involved a long-term, in-depth study, I chose to use a qualitative ethnographic approach. The details of this approach and the main findings of the research will be described in the paper, but first the theoretical framework of the research will be described.

2 Theoretical Background: Taking a Social View of Learning

The view of high-level writing as an activity that is situated in different communities, which is the basis for this research, emerged in the years around the end of the 1970s in the US as a reaction to the existing view of writing as a purely cognitive process. In particular, the Flower and Hayes model (1977, 1980, 1981), which attempted to show how the rhetorical choices of good writers differed from bad ones during the writing process, was highly influential. Their cognitive process model was an attempt to show what writers were actually doing during the writing process, but, although it was based on research in cognitive psychology, by seeing writing purely in terms of interacting sets of cognitive processes, the individual writer actually became nothing more than the site of these processes. In effect writers became ciphers, and the influence of the social worlds in which they were situated was restricted to the limits of the writing task itself: "all of those things outside the writer's skin, starting with the rhetorical problem or assignment and eventually including the growing text itself" (Flower and Hayes 1981, p. 369). There is no sense here of the writer as a social agent engaged in an activity taking place in a particular social context.

Dissatisfaction with the view of writing as a purely internal cognitive process was answered by an interest in understanding the social context of writing. Several US researchers began to examine the social contexts of literacy and look at writing in relation to various communities. Brice-Heath (1982, 1983) studied small-town literacy practices at home and in school, Graves (1983) studied writing in elementary

schools using a participatory ethnographic approach, Bazerman (1981) examined three scholarly texts from traditional academic fields to see how the expectations of the different communities in which they were written affected the knowledge presentation techniques in the papers, and Bartholomae (1983) analyzed the writing assignments of university undergraduates in several different subjects.

But it was Patricia Bizzell who first used the term *discourse community* in an article published in 1982 describing how the theoretical views of writing composition teachers affect the classroom teaching of students. Bizzell stated that academic writing also needed to be seen as an outer-directed activity influenced by the social context rather than the exclusively inner-directed view of Flower and Hayes. According to Bizzell, teachers therefore have the responsibility to explain to their students "that their writing takes place in a community, and to explain what the community's conventions are" (p. 230). She also asserted that teachers could only gain a full understanding of their students' problems by taking account of the way the social context influences their writing. That way we can hope to discover why writers make the decisions they do, rather than merely describing how the writing process works.

It is this outer-directed view of writing occurring within a discourse community that defines how problems and solutions are understood that was the initial basis for the present research study. Using this approach, language use is seen as being conditioned by its social context, and "educational problems associated with language use should be understood as difficulties with joining an unfamiliar discourse community" (p. 227). However, although Bizzell identified some of the key features of a discourse community (DC) in her article—it has shared discourse conventions, such as habits of language use, expectations, ways of understanding experience, and patterns of interaction, and we move from our native DC in which we were born into other DCs in the wider society—she did not offer an explicit definition of exactly what constitutes a DC.

It was only when the linguist and teacher John Swales wanted to employ the concept in his research on the use and teaching of English in academic settings at the tertiary level that a clearer definition of a DC was attempted. In particular, Swales was interested in the way each DC produced distinctive written genres. Explaining that he "wish[ed] to explore and in turn appropriate" the term (Swales 1990, p. 21), Swales offered a definition which focused on six defining characteristics:

> 1. *A discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals.* […]
> 2. *A discourse community has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members.* […]
> 3. *A discourse community uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback*. […]
> 4. *A discourse community utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims*. […]
> 5. *In addition to owning genres, a discourse community has acquired some specific lexis*. […]
> 6. *A discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise*. (Swales 1990, pp. 24–27, author's italics)

It is important to understand that while Swales' definition is extremely useful as a means of more clearly identifying the nature of different DCs and in particular the academic discourse community (ADC), it does not give much insight into the notions of privilege and access (privilege in terms of the power given to members and access in terms of the relative ease or difficulty with which non-members can enter a DC) since this was not what he was interested in. Indeed in a very short time other researchers were calling for a more nuanced view of ADCs. Cooper (1989) pointed out that Swales' definition was only satisfactory from an institutional viewpoint (which, of course, is exactly where it came from) and called it an abstraction used as "a way of labelling individuals as insiders or outsiders, as people who either have the requisite values, knowledge, and skills to belong, or lack these necessary qualifications" (Cooper 1989, p. 204).

Cooper (1989), along with Bartholomae (1985) and Bizzell (1986), was also concerned with how individuals become initiated into DCs and eventually become accepted members. Subsequent situated research on the enculturation of undergraduate and graduate students in a wide range of subjects and contexts has shown that ADCs are indeed highly heterogeneous spaces with conflicting and competing requirements, and each individual ADC is itself the subject of change and contest over meaning. Students need to cope with these multiple discourses and practices in order to negotiate their own identity and manage the difficulties of competing requirements (Herrington 1985, 1988, 1992; Chiseri-Strater 1991; Prior 1991, 1995, 1998; Chin 1994; Ivanic 1998; Hyland 2000; Dysthe 2002). Such a realization, of course, has profound implications for the way writing is taught at university.

Swales himself later acknowledged the complexity of ADCs by offering a revised view of how DCs can be defined in a closely observed qualitative study of three ADCs on three floors of his own building in the university where he worked (Swales 1998). He distinguishes locally situated place DCs from focus DCs in an attempt to more accurately reflect a complex reality. One of the most important aspects of Swales' study, apart from demonstrating that ADCs are not stable, easily defined entities but are constantly shifting sites of socially constructed and disputed meaning, is that it shows the need to closely examine the interplay of ADCs in a particular institution over time in order to understand what is happening. This applies equally well when the research aim is to understand what happens to new students when they are required to adopt the academic writing conventions of one or several ADCs, as in the present study.

Swales' (1998) study is interesting for another reason: His rethinking of the notion of the DC was clearly influenced by another social constructivist view of learning, namely, Lave and Wenger's (1991) model of learning taking place through participation in communities of practice. This view of learning placed heavy emphasis on its quintessentially social character: "We mean to draw attention to the point that learners inevitably participate in communities of practitioners and that the mastery of knowledge and skill requires newcomers to move toward full participation in the sociocultural practises of a community" (p. 29). Lave and Wenger were chiefly concerned with ideas of apprenticeship and how novice learners become masters through "legitimate peripheral participation" (p. 29) in the practices of the

community and with the existing members of it, peripheral participation meaning the stage when the apprentice is just beginning to learn through small tasks that constitute only a small part of the skill set of a full member of the community.

Similarly to Bizzell (1982), Lave and Wenger (1991) have been criticized for not giving a precise definition of what a community of practice is. Their original definition is somewhat amorphous but clearly has a lot in common with Bizzell's view of learning in communities, and both show a concern with access to knowledge and the power it provides:

> A community of practice is a set of relations among persons, activity, and world, over time and in relation with other tangential and overlapping communities of practice. A community of practice is an intrinsic condition for the existence of knowledge, not least because it provides the interpretive support necessary for making sense of its heritage. Thus, participation in the cultural practice in which any knowledge exists is an epistemological principle of learning. The social structure of this practice, its power relations, and its conditions for legitimacy define possibilities for learning (i.e., for legitimate peripheral participation). (p. 98)

There are clear differences between the two views, however. Whereas Bizzell's and Swales's concept of the DC is largely descriptive, Lave and Wenger attempt to explain how learning actually takes place and how an apprentice becomes a full member. By including the ideas of legitimacy and peripherality in their model, they are also able to examine the power roles involved in the process of learning and "the problem of access" for newcomers (Lave and Wenger 1991, p. 100). They also put great emphasis on the importance of identity and how it develops through participation: "identity, knowing, and social membership entail one another" (p. 53). This focus on the role of identity in learning corresponds with much subsequent research on the importance of identity and power relations in academic writing in higher education (Clark and Ivanic 1997; Ivanic 1998; Tang and John 1999; Hyland 2000, 2002a, b; Lea 2004; Fairclough 2010) and underlines the potential use of Lave and Wenger's framework as an analytical tool for understanding learning in these contexts.

In my PhD study, these twin theoretical constructs of DCs and situated learning in communities of practice were employed to approach and interpret the research problem. The idea of new students at the university entering a series of overlapping ADCs was the conceptual starting point that framed the research at the beginning. Once the cyclical process of data gathering and analysis had begun, Lave and Wenger's model of learning was used as a conceptual lens with which to examine the emerging categories in order to assist the understanding of the learning process taking place within this particular setting.

This use of Lave and Wenger's ideas to explore learning at university level is not original to this study. In their original monograph, Lave and Wenger (1991) deliberately chose not to discuss any form of organized schooling in order to avoid conflict with existing claims about formal education: "We wanted to develop a view of learning that would stand on its own, reserving the analysis of schooling and other specific educational forms for the future" (p. 40). Neither of them have so far done this, but others have applied their ideas to various formal learning situations. At the

level of higher education, Flowerdew (2000) incorporated elements of both Swales' DC and the notion of legitimate peripheral participation to interpret the difficulties of a non-native-English-speaking doctoral graduate struggling to have an article published in an international journal. Knights (2005) studied the formation of learner identity through the practices of a particular university subject (English) at two key points in its historical development, using a social constructivist viewpoint that included communities of practice to frame his analysis. O'Donnell and Tobbell (2007) used communities of practice theory to explore how adult students made the transition to higher education through a program designed for that purpose.

Perhaps the closest piece of research to the present study that incorporates Wave and Lenger's ideas is Carter et al.'s (2007) interview study of US undergraduates writing in a particular discipline. By interviewing 10 students at the end of a one-semester biology course about their experiences and attitudes related to the writing of lab reports for the course, the researchers were able to show how learning to write according to discipline-specific genre requirements can facilitate socialization into the discipline. Though the aim and context was different from this study, the view of writing according to genre requirements as a means of socialization into academic disciplines and the theoretical framing of the research bear strong similarities.

Having discussed the theoretical background of the study, I will now briefly describe how the research was designed before giving an account of the main findings.

3 Research Design: Building a Grounded Theory

Because the aim of the research was to examine a complex process taking place over the course of a whole academic year (beginning in September 2005), I designed a research plan involving a longitudinal ethnographic study using standard qualitative data-collection techniques. The principal research questions were to find out how new students become enculturated into academic writing requirements at the university in the SEAS and what part the compulsory ASC plays in the process. To understand the process of enculturation and be able to answer these questions, the specific qualitative approach chosen was the construction of a grounded theory based on the data. Grounded theory research was developed in 1965 by Glaser and Strauss as a way of using a qualitative approach for theory construction based on rigorous data analysis techniques. The approach aims to construct a theoretical model that describes the phenomenon based on the actual data collected (what Glaser and Strauss [1967] referred to as a substantive theory), principally through the means of in-depth interviews.

The actual research design involved a series of semi-structured qualitative interviews done with 20 volunteer students from four different ASC classes over the course of their first three semesters. The interviews took place in six rounds and they become progressively longer as trust and rapport was developed with the interviewer

and as categories began to develop. The first round of interviews took around 15 min, but in the final round some of the interviews lasted well over an hour. Each round focused on different points, but there were some general points that were common to all the interviews, such as how they were coping at the moment with their studies. The interview schedules were developed using the method described by McCracken (1988) in his famous monograph on the long qualitative interview. Three of the four ASC teachers were also interviewed, as were 10 teachers of the students' main subjects, literature and linguistics (five teachers from each). All the interviews were transcribed from digital recordings and sent to the interviewees for checking.

In addition to interviews, participant classroom observations using a simple observation protocol based on Creswell (1994) were done in the four ASC classes over the entire first semester, and course materials were gathered from the ASC and from the students' courses in literature and linguistics. With the agreement of the students, samples of their main written assignments were also gathered and used as a basis for more focused discussion in the interviews. Whenever possible the marked essays of the students were gathered or the original essay was given by the student. The kind of feedback given on these essays was of particular interest.

The data analysis of the transcribed interviews, which formed the principal body of data on which the study was based, was based on the constant comparative method first described by Glaser and Strauss (1967). The basic principle involves initially breaking up the data into separate pieces, each coded for the idea they contain, and then progressively reassembling the pieces to build an abstract representation of the phenomenon under investigation. At the same time that the initial open coding takes place, the researcher engages in memo writing to facilitate her or his thinking about the emerging concepts in the data. As these concepts emerge and connections are made with previously coded data, larger categories are constructed and their properties are filled out in the form of related sub-categories that emerge from the continuing analysis of more and more data. Further memo writing then aids the researcher's thinking on how the categories relate to each other. Through cyclical rounds of coding and memo writing followed by further data collection to provide further information about major categories, a point is reached where the categories are fully understood and no new information can be added. This point is known as saturation. In the final stages, advanced memos can be integrated to provide the basis for the theoretical model which describes the phenomenon.

In the present study a particular approach to grounded study known as constructivist grounded theory was followed, as outlined in the work of Kathy Charmaz (1995, 2000, 2006), herself a doctoral student of both Glaser and Strauss. The reason for this is that the present study takes the postulates of constructivism, essentially that knowledge is constructed rather than separate from the knower, as the underlying research paradigm since this allows a more nuanced approach to understanding the research setting and its members while at the same time adhering to rigorous and systematic research techniques. For a detailed account of the more flexible constructivist version of grounded theory and how it relates to the components of classic grounded theory, Charmaz (2006) should be consulted.

In the following section, the main elements of the theoretical model that was the outcome of the research will be described. However, owing to space limitations, only a general overview will be possible, and the less important categories will not be dealt with. In addition, only a few representative data extracts will be presented to illustrate some of the key findings, and these will mostly be taken from the student interviews, which formed the main data source.

4 Results and Discussion: A Three-Phase View of Student Enculturation into Written Academic Discourse

The aim of constructivist grounded theory is to develop a theoretical model that enables a deeper understanding of the phenomenon, in this case, student enculturation into the requirements of written academic discourse, based on an analysis of the data co-constructed by the participants and the researcher. The resultant theory is an interpretation raised to the level of abstract concepts that attempts to understand how the participants' experiences are embedded in a broader social context. This interpretation is itself a reflection of the conditions under which it was produced, and therefore it is very much context dependent. Its value lies, however, in offering a conceptual understanding of a substantive social process that can lead to new insights and knowledge transformation. It has the potential to stimulate new thinking about the situation it describes, and there is a possibility of transferring the theory's concepts to similar situations in other settings and perhaps giving new directions for further research.

The model that was the outcome of this study has three distinct phases, but it should not be understood as a straightforward chronological representation of the new students' experience since in each individual case the phases may have greater or lesser duration and they are likely to overlap. The first phase covers the first entry of the students into the university and the beginning of their studies, the second phase describes how they deal with their first writing assignments, and the final stage looks at the process of identity formation and the point the students have reached by the end of their first year.

5 Phase One: Experiencing a Culture Shock

When students first start their university careers, they are faced with a series of challenges, both inside and outside the classroom. In effect, students undergo a culture shock when beginning their studies due to the major differences between the school system and studying at a university. The following quote clearly illustrates this sudden difference (the coding of the quotes indicates the pseudonym given to the student, the number of the interview, and the page of the transcript):

> The beginning was a bit chaotic I think. We just had to find our place. It's really completely different from secondary school. First of all we just go into the class, they tell us everything—what to do, where to go, but here we have to organise everything for ourselves and there is really nobody who can tell us what to do. (Sarah, Int.1, p. 2)

Students need to become acculturated to a new way of doing things and take much more responsibility for their own studies. For some students this process can take much longer than for others, and if they are still struggling to get organized when they are faced with major writing assignments this can put them at a significant disadvantage. Leaving work to the last minute and failing to meet deadlines seems to be a kind of avoidance strategy in the case of challenging assignments and tends to result in lower quality work. Personality traits seem to be an important factor here, but students from more academic backgrounds seem to be better equipped to take control of their own learning. Raising awareness of this problem and giving students organizational strategies to deal with it may be helpful, as suggested in the literature on strategy training for language learners (e.g., Oxford 1990; Wenden 1991).

A key characteristic of classical culture shock situations is the experiencing of anxiety and stress. In the case of beginning students, anxiety is most often felt when comparing their language ability to the ability of those around them in their new classes, having come from an environment where they were used to be being one of the best students: "But it's new for me that although I was the best in my class in grammar school, I'm among the worst in the new class, and it's hard to manage with this thought" (Natalie, Int. 1, p. 2). This feeling of not being good enough is manifested in spoken ability first when compared with the more proficient students, but it also includes the student's ability in writing when they have to write their first tasks. Though weak students are aware at the beginning of their weaknesses, it can come as a shock when they are presented with clear evidence of them on their first marked pieces of writing:

> It's hard for me because I love English very much and I thought that I'm good in it. But when we got the homeworks [sic] and essays I saw that I have a lot of problems, a lot of mistakes /?/ and I think that it's not good. And if we learn something but we realise that it's not our cup of tea we have to change. And I'm hesitating. (Estella, Int. 1, p. 2)

How quickly students are able to overcome this language anxiety largely depends on how confident they feel in their language ability. Indeed, the most critical factor determining how well students adapt to the new academic requirements of university when they first begin their studies in SEAS is their previous English-learning experience. For the majority of students, this means their school experience; unfortunately, for many of them this was not positive (out of 17 students who attended regular secondary grammar schools or secondary vocational schools, only three gave their English classes or English teachers a positive evaluation). As a result, there is wide variation between students in terms of both their language accuracy and their writing experience. Many of them have a poor grasp of grammar and little writing experience. The experience of Richard was typical:

> So at my English classes at secondary school we had only these basic things. So I know what's a verb and what's a noun but I don't really know, they didn't really teach us the rules. Or maybe they tried to teach us but, well it depends on the teacher too. So if he can keep up the interest and the attention, in that case he's good, but this teacher couldn't really handle this problem so… (Richard, Int. 6, p. 10)

However, for those students who attended bilingual schools with immersion programs (there were four, one of whom attended both regular and bilingual schools at different times), the story was very different. The students regarded their school experience generally very positively and had received much more writing experience. In one case the student had received intensive training in argumentative essay writing at her school:

> We always had a topic and then for two or three months we had argumentative essays for one of the topics. And then we read a lot of argumentative essays, so written by other persons, and then just look through them and try to find out if it's good or not good. And then just correct them and then we had to write our own ones. Also every week one. (Sarah, Int. 1, p. 2)

Unfortunately, only a small percentage of students have the chance to study foreign languages in immersion programs in Hungary, and there is a long history of problems in attracting and retaining skilled English teachers in schools (Elekes et al. 1998; Nikolov 1999; Vágó 2000; Lukács 2002; Ministry of Education and Culture, Hungary 2008). Of course, the highly variable experience and language proficiency of the students has important implications for the ASC, the purpose of which is to prepare the students to meet the academic requirements of university, particularly in writing.

6 Phase Two: Learning to Write about Subject Content

The second phase describes what happened when the students were faced with their first major writing assignments in their main subject courses in literature and linguistics. In their first year they had a mixture of obligatory and elective seminar courses and lectures that they took in these subjects. In the seminar courses it was often the case, though by no means always so, that they had to write a home essay as one of the major outcomes of the course, and it was when students were faced with a long home paper task (typically five to six double-spaced pages, or around 1500 words) that they first had to learn and observe formal academic writing requirements and the particular conventions for writing about content in that subject. For this reason, learning to write about subject content is at the center of the theoretical model.

For the majority of the students, writing their first home paper was a stressful experience, especially for those who had little or no previous essay-writing experience. Csenge, who had only written short free compositions at school, found the prospect of writing her linguistics home paper daunting:

> I know that I have to read a lot of books and look at the Internet and so on, but I think it will be a very hard work for me. I would like to do it during the autumn break but I have no idea how to start it, and, I don't know. I think it will be a very hard task. (Csenge, Int.1, pp. 4–5)

The linguistics home papers in particular were challenging due to their strict and detailed formatting requirements and the problem-solving nature of their content requiring the students to use several sources.

However, it was the challenge given by home papers that also made them effective "drivers" of learning. The students needed several sets of skills, such as research skills, note-taking skills, and the ability to organize ideas logically in writing, as well as basic language accuracy, awareness of formal style, and the ability to understand and follow a set of formal requirements for academic papers. It seemed that the main benefit of writing these papers for novice students was the acquisition of these sets of skills rather than providing sophisticated analysis of content ideas. Several of the subject teachers were aware of this:

> I think that they shouldn't write because linguistics teachers like to read linguistics essays, or essays on linguistics written by first-year students, because I don't think they could tell us new things. […] I think the main target of having them write these essays is that they can learn how to write an essay on linguistics, and it's not about content. (LING3, p. 1)

As a result of the difficulties posed by these papers, students developed a number of coping strategies. These included planning ahead, discussing assignments with other students, working in a team during library research, reading other students' essays, and asking a teacher for help. The cooperative nature of several of these strategies, such as forming a research team or reading other students' essays, could lessen the burden of the task and help students who were unsure how to proceed. Other studies have shown that collaborative social activity in communities of practice can promote learning. Hall (2003), for example, describes a web-based learning project used to create a learning network in a group of higher education institutions in the UK. In this study, these learning networks seemed to be formed informally by students engaged in challenging assignments.

It was noticeable that subject teachers tended to be suspicious of such student cooperation, fearing that students would hand in essays written by others. In several cases this was given as one of the reasons for not setting written assignments, as in the following quote:

> Another reason, and this is true of the second term and the third term as well, is the sadly developing practice amongst students to take essays from the Internet, have students write essays for them for money, or for other kind of compensation, to hand in essays once handed in to another teacher by someone else, or definitely sort of taping together an essay from the various secondary sources. (LIT1, p. 2)

However, the present research indicates that cooperative learning seems to promote discourse socialization through discussion and shared understandings. It also helped reassure anxious students that they could handle difficult tasks and gave them increased confidence when doing subsequent tasks.

The avoidance of giving students serious writing tasks—the alternatives mentioned and experienced by the students were in-class tests involving short answers

and occasionally timed short-essay questions—represented perhaps the biggest factor that could interfere with students' development in mastering discourse conventions. For those students who completed both their first semesters (one student failed to write any home papers and dropped out after her first semester, and another student did not complete the second semester), the number of home papers written varied from two to six, but only one student wrote less than three papers. However, with the beginning of the new three-year BA in 2006, the Linguistics Department decided not to set any home papers for undergraduates anymore. Since the majority of seminar papers were linguistics papers, this means that there has been a marked decrease in the number of home papers written by first-year students since the research was done. The alternative of in-class writing is not a substitute for a home essay, as both teachers and students seemed to be aware of: "when I spoke to my teacher, _____, she said that she believes that kind of writing has nothing to do with academic writing. The literature, whatever, this literature in-class test. That was her opinion of it" (Emily, Int. 4, p. 1).

The most common reason given by teachers for avoiding the setting of home papers in seminars was fear of plagiarism, as indicated in the words of Literature Teacher 1 on the previous page. There is wide coverage of this topic, not to mention frequent high-profile cases of academic plagiarism involving politicians and academics (there is even a website set up by activists devoted to finding cases of high-level academic plagiarism in Germany, the GuttenPlag Wiki). Obviously, plagiarism has become a major concern with the widespread use of the Internet. However, rather than just regarding student plagiarism as academic cheating, a more nuanced approach seeks to understand the reasons for plagiarism and thus to find ways of more effectively educating students about it. For instance, Abasi et al. (2006) did interview studies exploring plagiarism in the work of five graduates and seeing it as an issue of awareness of available identity options in academic writing. Woods (2004) suggests that having a better understanding of students' attitudes to the use of the Internet could lead to a more effective discussion of plagiarism and academic honesty and mentions a number of practical steps that can be taken.

In the current study, while nearly all the subject teachers mentioned being worried about plagiarism, only one of them, a linguistics teacher, actually took practical measures to prevent students handing in old essays and several of the teachers seemed unaware of techniques to avoid plagiarism, such as the setting of clearly specified tasks and not repeating tasks. The Linguistics Department did set a very specific home paper task for their first paper, but it was the same task for all the first-year students, so several of the teachers were worried that the students would copy each other's work. Many of the teachers mentioned fear of plagiarism as the main reason for not setting home papers and they sometimes communicated that to the students as well:

> In literature we'll have to write an in-class essay because our teacher told us that there are many students who download the essay on the Internet. And she's just fed up with it. And that's why we have to write an in-class essay. (Jane, Int.1, 3)

Other teachers, while still giving home papers, attached reduced significance to them by merely using them as an extra factor that could raise or reduce the students' final grade. In such cases there tended to be very little feedback given on the paper and sometimes no mark was given, just a positive or a negative sign. In almost all cases only one draft was required.

It is perhaps worth noting that the only clear-cut case of Internet plagiarism in this study happened in the first semester for a literature paper that had very few guidelines and the writing of which was not monitored closely by the teacher. Working closely with students on their writing is one way recommended in the research literature to help students understand and avoid plagiarism (e.g., Li and Casanave 2012), but several of the subject teachers stated that they did not think it was their job to teach students to write. A couple of the teachers pointed towards another consideration, increased workload, that might play an unspoken role in the reluctance to have students write long essays: "teachers are very reluctant to make them write essays because it just adds to the immense amount of workload" (LING2, p. 1). "Some of them will not ask them to write papers because they are tired of correcting all these awful papers, but that's not the way, cos who will teach them? They will never learn that" (LIT2, p. 10). It is undoubtedly true that having students write proper essays, using sources to support a line of argument, cannot be done effectively without considerable work from the teacher. Both these teachers, interestingly, had decided that such work was worthwhile and did give their students home essays.

The other major influence on the students' writing development in their first year was what they learned in the ASC over their first two semesters. In terms of developing the general skills necessary for academic writing, the students were very positive about the usefulness of the course. In some cases where students felt they had particular weaknesses in writing, they felt that they had made substantial improvements because of the help they had received in the course, as in the case of Julie, who found writing in an appropriate style difficult:

> … both Tamás and I had a problem that we wrote almost personal stuff, instead of impersonal stuff, and Teacher D told us not to get rid of this, but we could write a formal essay and informal essay as well. And that was very fine because we could use our imagination in one side, and, and we could take away easier because we had that option too. So we didn't have to get rid of it. And I think it's a very good method and it helped a lot, so. (Julie, Int. 3, p. 2)

In particular, the ASC put an emphasis on developing writing skills through formative feedback and doing multiple drafts of assignments. In their main subject courses it was rare for students to write more than one draft of a paper and the summative feedback they got on the paper was often minimal or even non-existent (sometimes they were just told the grade at the end of the course and never got their paper back). It was also the case that only the best students tended to receive more detailed oral feedback on their work, focusing mainly on content. It was only in the ASC that all students had the opportunity to get regular practice and receive detailed feedback on their writing, and this helped them to identify their weak points and begin to address them. The rich feedback especially was something that many of the

students felt had helped them improve their writing. Speaking at the end of her first year, Fiona was one such student:

> It's definitely got better, definitely. Because I have to write so much that I just get used to it. For Academic Skills I had to write tons to hand in and things like that. But, I mean if, if, I would say that what my problem is with writing, it's, I would say, is still spelling probably, and punctuation. But it's not, it's, so it's gotten much better. (Fiona, Int. 5, p. 8)

However, while the students felt the ASC was effective in helping them with general writing skills, there were mixed views of how useful it was in helping them write their home papers. Students with little or no previous essay writing experience did feel that the ASC had enabled them to understand what an academic essay actually was:

> So I learned how to write an argumentative essay, because I didn't even know what an argumentative essay is. And for me it was strange because essay sounds so serious. So I never written an essay before. An essay's such a big thing, so I was kind of confused at the beginning but, but now I think it, it is easier for me. So I've practised it. (Steven, Int. 3, p. 1)

But beyond general writing skills, such as paragraph organization and basic argumentative development, many of the students felt that the ASC could not help with difficult papers, particularly those they had to write for linguistics, because the type of task and the content were so different. Perhaps Sarah expressed this most clearly:

> The hard thing with it was that we couldn't really use what we learned in the Academic Skills because it's an absolutely different thing. So maybe just, we just think about it how to structure it, that we include an introduction and at the end some kind of conclusion or summary. But it was an absolutely different type of task. So we just could take these questions we got and try to figure out the answers and search in the library and then, somehow make an order and [pause] to organize the paragraphs but it was absolutely different. (Sarah, Int.3, pp. 1–2)

The students also found the formal requirements for using academic sources in their writing very challenging to master, and, since library research and the APA system of referencing were only taught in the second semester of the ASC, by which time all the students had been required to write at least one home paper, it was of little help to them in this respect as well. It may even have resulted in confusion for some students, who had already had to use other referencing styles in the first semester. However, they were given much more help with this aspect of academic writing in the ASC than in their subject seminars and those students who asked their ASC teacher for help with citing and referencing in the first semester did receive assistance.

The question of exactly what the role of an EAP course intended to help students master academic discourse requirements should be has long been the subject of debate. Johns (1995), for instance, recommends the teaching of authentic disciplinary genres in EAP courses as a way to familiarize undergraduates with disciplinary conventions. Leki and Carson (1997), in a research context quite similar to the present one, claim that students need to be taught "text-responsible writing" (p. 41), by which they mean the ability to show understanding of a source text. What seems

clear from this study is that without close cooperation with teachers from other disciplines, an EAP course will only be of limited use to students when learning the text-responsible and genre-specific aspects of their disciplinary writing in other subjects. In the ASC, the genre-specific conventions that were taught were those of applied linguistics, because the course was taught by teachers in that department. No serious attempt was made to look at the writing conventions and genres of any other discipline.

7 Phase Three: Building a New Identity

By the end of their first year, most of the students had achieved a kind of new equilibrium within the university. This equilibrium was the identity that they had begun to construct within their new academic discourse communities (ADCs) through the peripheral participation described by Lave and Wenger (1991). Each student had to a greater or lesser degree become socialized into the disciplinary discourse conventions of several ADCs through the writing they had done, and for the more able and successful students this had enabled them to move further into one or more ADCs. The less successful students, on the other hand, remained on the periphery of discourse communities, having made only very limited progress in adapting to their discourse requirements. There were three students who decided they did not belong in any ADC in the faculty. Two of them opted to study for a different degree at the same university (History and Free Arts), and the other left after one semester to do a vocational course at another institution. This was because they could not understand or were not interested in the disciplinary ways of constructing knowledge they were required to engage in, or because their level of language proficiency simply made it too difficult for them to legitimately participate in knowledge construction within the chosen ADCs, or a combination of both reasons.

The situation of the remaining students at the end of their first year can be represented by a series of concentric circles (see Fig. 1 below), with the innermost circle representing the full members of an ADC, that is, the students' teachers. The students can be put into three categories depending on the extent of their socialization into the ADC. Those who are struggling and remain on the periphery, I term survivors. They have managed to get through the year but have experienced considerable difficulties. Their struggles are related to their writing but not exclusively so—they have also had serious problems understanding the content of some of their courses. Three of the students clearly belonged to this category, and they were probably the kind of student some of the subject teachers were referring to when they bemoaned the poor standard of first-year writing:

> I feel devastated more often than not by the level of standards and the level of the essays, because, especially, not just literature wise, but the language is very difficult. Right now I gave back an essay with the note 'Language, or grammar, renders it almost impossible to read, or to follow', because I spend much more time on correcting mistakes than following the train of thought that I am supposed to assess in the paper, so it's very bad. (LIT2, p. 1)

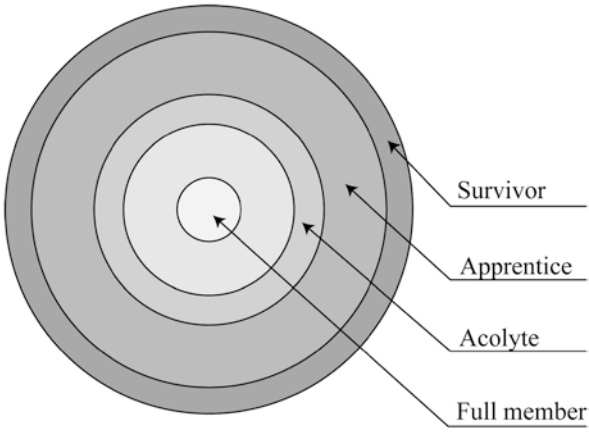

Fig. 1 Membership categories of university ADCs

It is likely that such students will remain on the periphery throughout their university career, sometimes failing courses and at other times just scraping through, unless they can improve their language abilities. Because there is no ASC after the first year, they have to take much more responsibility for their own learning in order to address their weaknesses. In his third semester, one of these students, Richard, was trying to teach himself the grammar that he felt he had not been taught at school, working alongside his flatmate after his regular courses: "So basically after university we go home, after classes and we learn hugely. So that's our afternoon program!" (Richard, Int. 6, p. 6). Such efforts, if continued, are likely to result in improvements in writing and perhaps also in understanding disciplinary content but require sustained motivation and independent learning skills. Another student took a different strategy by looking for courses that were easier to pass: "I made a little search on the Internet about them, on the school home page, and then I tried to catch the better teachers" (Natalie, Int. 6, p. 2). It seems she was satisfied if she could do well enough to pass: She was content to be a survivor.

Most of the students, although experiencing some difficulties in their courses, had experienced more success in adapting to the discourse requirements of the ADC and understanding the ways of organizing disciplinary knowledge in writing. These students I term apprentices, and the majority of the 20 students in the study belonged here, although the boundaries were not always clear cut, with several of the weaker students being quite close to the survivors. Apprentices are still near the periphery of the ADC but they have made discernible progress, and some of them may have done very well indeed, like Fiona. She had learned how to organize her studies effectively: "I definitely feel like I've got a routine now. I know how to do things so that they work out" (Fiona, Int. 6, p. 4). As a writer she felt she had developed through reading and writing a lot:

> Well last term I really felt that, because I had to write like three home essays because one for Poetry, one for Novel and one for Syntax, and then actually, well for Syntax it's not that difficult actually but it's gotten better because I had to write two already and I know where to look for stuff and I know how to put them in. So that's gotten, because I've written two already in Linguistics, it's gotten better. (Fiona, Int. 6, p. 4)

Fiona is a good example of a student who had become an accomplished writer through practice, becoming much more confident in all aspects of academic writing, including the formal requirements of the disciplines she wrote in.

The main difference between the most able apprentices and the third category of student, the acolytes, was that apprentices had no intention of becoming full members of a discourse community, whereas acolytes had a conscious desire to move much deeper into their chosen ADCs. This is of course a very small group, and in this study there were only two such students. Both of these students came from academic families and were highly motivated. One of them knew as soon as she began her studies that she wanted to do a PhD and the other was clearly so interested in her studies that it appeared inevitable that she would continue them (in fact, both of them went on to complete their PhDs and become academics themselves). While these two students were still a long way from being full members of an ADC at the end of their first year,[1] they had produced some excellent written work and as a result had formed much closer relationships with some of their teachers than most of the other students. It is inevitable that such gifted students will be noticed and will be given special status by the full members of an ADC. It could be said that for acolytes progress is centripetal, whereas as the position of survivors is more centrifugal. Paradoxically, although acolytes need little extra help to make progress, they tend to receive more attention than the students who are actually struggling the most to get a foothold in an ADC.

8 Conclusions and Implications

Although it has only been possible to give an overview of the findings of the study in this paper, the main components of the theoretical model that was its outcome have been described. Since the model is grounded in data from a particular place and time, there are of course limitations on its application to other, possibly very different, contexts. However, it has been a powerful tool in helping me to understand more clearly what the successful enculturation of novice students into academic written discourse in my own context involved. It also provides a way of seeing the struggles of weaker students to master academic writing not simply as a problem, but more in terms of what needs to be done to make it easier for them to grasp disciplinary conventions and ways of writing about specialist knowledge while at the same time trying to improve their language proficiency. Unfortunately, in the real world there are time and resource constraints that make this difficult to achieve, but one outcome of the research has been to make me a more effective EAP teacher.

It has also enabled me to see the limitations of a short ASC in helping students learn to write in specialist disciplines, especially in situations where there is little

[1] This is indicated by the fourth circle in Fig. 1, which is unlabelled. This represents the experience and further study necessary to become a full member of the ADC.

dialogue between different ADCs and virtually no cooperation between EAP teachers and disciplinary teachers. This points to the way such a model, or at least aspects of it, may be transferrable to other contexts where conditions are similar, particularly in institutions in other post-communist European countries where education is under pressure both financially and from the point of view of prestige. Although it may appear that the research the model is grounded in is now out of date, and certainly many changes have occurred in the institution where the research was done, some of the insights given by the research into the nature of student writing development and the difficult transition from school to university may also be of relevance in many other contexts.

Perhaps the most important insight given by the research is the major role of challenging writing tasks in promoting student enculturation into disciplinary writing practices. For those students with sufficient language proficiency, it was through engaging with long researched essay tasks that they grew in competence and confidence. As a corollary of this, one of the most important pedagogical implications of the research concerns the status of writing in higher education. In this particular institution it is the case that since the study was done, significantly less high level writing has been required of the students in the three-year BA system that has replaced the longer MA system. The obvious result of this is that new students have considerably less opportunity to learn disciplinary requirements and develop general writing skills.

There is evidence that this downgrading of expectations and reluctance to give students meaningful writing tasks may be part of a wider trend that has seen the devaluation and marketization of undergraduate education, what Hayes and Wynward (2002) refer to as "the McDonaldization of higher education." Such devaluation and loss of prestige has wide-ranging effects not just for students but for all members of the academic community. As far as writing in higher education goes, the status of the essay has been in question for some time (see, for example, Womack 1993), but as long as we continue to require students to write theses and dissertations as the main means of achieving their degree, members of the academy are obliged to assist students in mastering the conventions of disciplinary writing.

Another practical implication of the research related to this obligation is the need for better awareness of the nature and reasons for Internet plagiarism and the practical techniques that can be taken to avoid it. Rather than merely issuing institutional sanctions, a wider dialogue needs to take place so that all parties are well informed and there is a discourse of understanding rather than one of fear. Avoiding writing because of the danger of plagiarism is not a solution and will not be of any use for those students who most need help and practice for their writing development.

Finally, I hope that one other outcome of this research is that other EAP practitioners may be encouraged to do similar outer-directed studies of their own students' writing development and so add to the existing knowledge of how students can most easily adapt to the requirements of their new disciplines when they enter the academy.

References

Abasi, A. R., Akbari, N., & Graves, B. (2006). Discourse appropriation, construction of identities, and the complex issue of plagiarism: ESL students writing in graduate school. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 15*, 102–117.

Bartholomae, D. (1983). Writing assignments: Where writing begins. In P. Stock (Ed.), *Forum: Essays on theory and practice in writing* (pp. 300–311). Upper Montclair: Boynton/Cook.

Bartholomae, D. (1985). Inventing the university. In M. Rose (Ed.), *When a writer can't write: Studies in writer's block and other composing process problems* (pp. 273–285). New York: Guilford.

Bazerman, C. (1981). What written knowledge does: Three examples of academic discourse. *Philosophy of the Social Sciences, 11*, 361–388.

Bizzell, P. (1982). Cognition, convention, and certainty: What we need to know about writing. *Pre/Text, 3*, 213–243.

Bizzell, P. (1986). What happens when basic writers come to college? *College Composition and Communication, 37*, 294–301.

Brice-Heath, S. (1982). What no bedtime story means: Narrative skills at home and school. *Language in Society, 11*, 49–76.

Brice-Heath, S. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Carter, M., Ferzli, M., & Wiebe, E. N. (2007). Writing to learn by learning to write in the disciplines. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication, 21*, 278–302.

Charmaz, K. (1995). Grounded theory. In J. A. Smith, R. Harré, & L. Van Langenhove (Eds.), *Rethinking methods in psychology* (pp. 27–49). London: SAGE.

Charmaz, K. (2000). Grounded theory: Objectivist and constructivist methods. In N. Denzin & Y. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 509–535). Thousand Oaks: SAGE.

Charmaz, K. (2006). *Constructing grounded theory: A practical guide through qualitative analysis*. London: SAGE.

Chin, E. (1994). Redefining "context" in research on writing. *Written Communication, 11*, 445–482.

Chiseri-Strater, E. (1991). *Academic literacies: The public and private discourse of university students*. Portsmouth: Boynton/Cook.

Clark, R., & Ivanic, R. (1997). *The politics of writing*. London: Routledge.

Cooper, M. (1989). Why are we talking about discourse communities? Or, foundationalism rears its ugly head once more. In M. Cooper & M. Holzman (Eds.), *Writing as social action* (pp. 202–220). Portsmouth: Boynton/Cook.

Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design—Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE.

Dysthe, O. (2002). Professors as mediators of academic text cultures: An interview study with advisors and master's degree students in three disciplines in a Norwegian university. *Written Communication, 19*, 493–544.

Elekes, K., Magnuczné, G. A., Szabó, P., & Tóth, I. (1998). A view of teaching careers in Hungary in the late 1990s. *novELTy, 5*(4), 6–22.

Fairclough, N. (2010). *Critical discourse analysis: The critical study of language* (2nd ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education.

Flower, L., & Hayes, J. (1977). Problem-solving strategies and the writing process. *College English, 39*, 449–461.

Flower, L., & Hayes, J. (1980). The cognition of discovery: Defining a rhetorical problem. *College Composition and Communication, 31*, 21–32.

Flower, L., & Hayes, J. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *College Composition and Communication, 32*, 365–387.

Flowerdew, J. (2000). Discourse community, legitimate peripheral participation, and the nonnative-English-speaking scholar. *TESOL Quarterly, 34*(1), 127.
Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1965). *Awareness of dying*. Chicago: Aldine.
Glaser, B. G., & Strauss, A. L. (1967). *The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. Chicago: Aldine.
Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. B. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing*. London: Longman.
Graves, D. H. (1983). *Writing: Teachers and children at work*. Exeter: Heinemann Educational Books.
GuttenPlag Wiki. (n.d.). Retrieved June 29, 2014 from http://de.guttenplag.wikia.com/wiki/GuttenPlag_Wiki
Hall, R. (2003). Forging a learning community: A pragmatic approach to co-operative learning. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education, 2*, 155–172.
Hayes, D., & Wynward, R. (Eds.). (2002). *The McDonaldization of higher education*. Westport: Greenwood Press.
Herrington, A. (1985). Writing in academic settings: A study of the contexts for writing in two college chemical engineering courses. *Research in the Teaching of English, 19*, 331–361.
Herrington, A. (1988). Teaching, writing, learning: A naturalistic study of writing in an undergraduate literature course. In D. Jolliffe (Ed.), *Advances in writing research, volume 2: Writing in academic disciplines* (pp. 133–166). Norwood: Ablex.
Herrington, A. (1992). Composing one's self in a discipline: Students' and teachers' negotiations. In D. Charney & M. Secor (Eds.), *Constructing rhetorical education: From the classroom to the community* (pp. 92–115). Carbondale: Southern Illinois University Press.
Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. London: Longman.
Hyland, K. (2002a). Options of identity in academic writing. *ELT Journal, 56*, 351–358.
Hyland, K. (2002b). Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics, 34*, 1091–1112.
Hyland, K. (2011). Writing in the university: Education, knowledge, and reputation. *Language Teaching, Plenary Speeches., 46*, 53–70. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444811000036.
Ivanic, R. (1998). *Writing and identity: The discoursal construction of identity in academic writing*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing.
Johns, A. (1995). Teaching classroom and authentic genres: Initiating students into academic cultures and discourses. In D. Belcher & G. Braine (Eds.), *Academic writing in a second language* (pp. 277–292). Norwood: Ablex.
Knights, B. (2005). Intelligence and Interrogation: The identity of the English student. *Arts and Humanities in Higher Education, 4*(1), 33–52
Kruse, O. (2003). Getting started: Academic writing in the first year of a university education. In L. Björk, G. Bräuer, L. Rienecker, & P. S. Jörgenson (Eds.), *Studies in writing: Vol. 12. Teaching academic writing in European higher education* (pp. 19–28). Amsterdam: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
Lave, J., & Wenger, E. (1991). *Situated learning: Legitimate peripheral participation*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
Lea, M. R. (2004). Academic literacies: A pedagogy for course design. *Studies in Higher Education, 29*, 739–756.
Leki, I., & Carson, J. (1997). "Completely different worlds": EAP and the writing experiences of ESL students in university courses. *TESOL Quarterly, 31*, 39–69.
Li, Y., & Casanave, C. P. (2012). Two first-year students' strategies for writing from sources: Patchwriting or plagiarism? *Journal of Second Language Writing, 21*, 165–180.
Lillis, T. M. (2001). *Student writing: Access, regulation, desire*. London: Routledge.
Lukács, K. (2002). Foreign language teaching in present-day Hungary: An EU perspective. *novELTy, 9*(1), 4–26.
McCracken, G. (1988). *The long interview*. Newbury Park: SAGE.

Ministry of Education and Culture, Hungary. (2008). *Education in Hungary. Past, present, future: An overview.* Budapest: Pátria Nyomda. Retrieved from http://www.nefmi.gov.hu/english

Nikolov, M. (1999). The socio-educational and sociolinguistic context of the examination reform. In F. Hajnal, E. Major, & M. Nikolov (Eds.), *English language education in Hungary* (pp. 7–20). Budapest: The British Council Hungary.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House.

O'Donnell, V. L., & Tobbell, J. (2007). The transition of adult students to higher education: Legitimate peripheral participation in a community of practice? *Adult Education Quarterly, 57*, 312–328.

Paltridge, B. (2004). Academic writing. *Language Teaching, 37*, 87–105.

Prior, P. (1991). Contextualizing writing and response in a graduate seminar. *Written Communication, 8*, 267–310.

Prior, P. (1995). Tracing authoritative and internally persuasive discourses: A case study of response, revision, and disciplinary enculturation. *Research in the Teaching of English, 29*, 288–325.

Prior, P. (1998). *Writing/disciplinarity: A sociohistoric account of literate activity in the academy*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.

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

Swales, J. (1998). *Other floors, other voices: A textography of a small university building*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Tang, R., & John, S. (1999). The 'I' in identity: Exploring writer identity in student academic writing through the first person pronoun. *English for Specific Purposes, 18*, S23–S39.

Vágó, I. (2000). Az idegennyelv-oktatás fő tendenciái a 80-as és 90-es években [The main tendencies in foreign language education in the 80s and 90s]. *Educatio, 4*, 668–690.

Wenden, A. (1991). *Learner strategies for learner autonomy*. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.

Wilde, S., Wright, S., Hayward, G., Johnson, J., & Skerrett, R. (2006). *Nuffield review higher education focus groups preliminary report*. The Nuffield review of 14–19 education and training. Retrieved from http://www.education.ox.ac.uk/research/higher-education/research/nuffield-review-focu-groups/

Womack, P. (1993). What are essays for? *English in Education, 27*, 42–48.

Wood, G. (2004). Academic original sin: Plagiarism, the Internet and librarians. *The Journal of Academic Librarianship, 30*, 237–242.

Zhu, W. (2004). Writing in business courses: An analysis of assignment types, their characteristics, and required skills. *English for Specific Purposes, 23*, 111–135.

Assertion and Assertiveness in the Academic Writing of Polish EFL Speakers

Jacek Mydla and David Schauffler

Abstract Our experience in Poland is that foreign students of English are influenced by two factors detrimental to their ability to write good academic English. One is rhetorical strategies of their native language; the other is training in academic writing that misrepresents or leads students to misapprehend the contours of academic expression in written English.

In this paper, we mean to address this problem by taking an example of the use of selected pronouns, verbs, and adverbs employed to express assertion of fact, opinion, and assumption in academic writing in the humanities. The verbs *to seem*, *to appear*, and *to prove* are particularly prone to misuse or infelicitous use by Poles writing in English due to influence both from Polish rhetorical habits (in themselves a reflection of culture) and from English language training, which frequently misrepresents the role of the authorial voice in academic writing in English. The function of personal pronouns will also be discussed.

We are not aware of any current research on this area of this topic; therefore, we offer this paper as an invitation for further consideration of the importance of voice and modulation in foreign-authored academic papers. We believe that our remarks can have a wide application, *mutatis mutandis*, for similar problems in other European language communities.

Keywords Academic writing · Assertion · Contrastive rhetorics

J. Mydla (✉) · D. Schauffler
Department of Literary and Cultural Theory, Institute of English Cultures and Literatures, University of Silesia in Katowice, Sosnowiec, Poland
e-mail: jacek.mydla@us.edu.pl; david.schauffler@us.edu.pl

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_13

1 Introduction

There is an area of composition in a second language that involves neither grammar nor rhetoric as such but rather the semantic domains of words in the first language that the writer may be assuming have more or less exact equivalents in the second language (in this case, English). The use of these words in certain contexts may increase ambiguity that the reader cannot resolve and/or build resistance in the reader that the author is not aware of.

In this article, we concentrate on the use of academic English by non-native-speaking writers in the humanities (e.g., students of literature and culture). We discuss this subject on the basis of problems we have found in English texts written by Polish students. Our considerations are divided into five sections, which address the following issues:

- Basic assertions about the academic use of English in the humanities
- The use of first person pronouns, singular and plural
- The problem of transfer of semantic domain
- Three model or exemplary verbs
- A set of adverbs

We will refer to the context of Polish students of English at the University of Silesia, Poland. The syllabus in English studies includes studies programs at the bachelor's and master's levels (day and extramural modes) in: English literatures and cultures, the methodology of teaching English as a foreign language, and translation studies (combining English and another language, e.g., German, Arabic, or Chinese). In the course of their studies, at both the bachelor's and master's levels, students take courses in English composition, academic writing (and the methodology of academic writing), creative writing, written two-way translation, and written assignments of various lengths and covering a variety of subjects (depending on the studies program). There are also BA and MA diploma seminars in which students write diploma papers of up to 40 pages (an average BA paper) or 70 pages (an average MA paper).

By way of concluding this article, we will present suggestions of how teachers of academic writing in English as a foreign language may deal with problems that have to do with assertion that academic use of English creates for non-native-English-speaking writers.

2 Main Assumption

In this section of the article, we state a set of propositions that will later help us to examine and assess the differences between features of Polish and English academic discourse.

To begin with, we assume that academic discourse is fundamentally argumentative.[1] It is about the presentation of evidence for the acceptance (by the reader or recipient) of a set of propositions. This does not mean that a particular text needs to be argumentative in its entirety, but that persuasion ought not be wholly absent. The goal of the writer is to elicit assent in the target or implied reader. To give this premise yet another formulation: The goal is to propose to the reader a thesis or a "debatable statement"[2] and to offer logically structured argumentation in its support.[3]

3 Discussion

Often, while readily admitting the argumentative purpose of the essay, scholars who do research and publish in the field of academic writing downplay the function or functions of properly handled assertions. For instance, in his otherwise very helpful guidebook for students, Richard Marggraf Turley (2000) stresses the need to tell the reader clearly "what my essay seeks to do" in order to explain, for instance, "my interest in relating literature to the historical period that produced it" (p. 3); in the section of the book attractively entitled "Express yourself," he further stresses the need for "an unambiguous statement of aims outlining the scope of the discussion" (p. 6). Expressing oneself, however, is not what ought to be the prime purpose of essay writing, and of course this is not exactly what Marggraf Turley means. Discursive strategies at work in an essay ought to have the purpose of encouraging assent, i.e., of making the reader think and say: "I see."

As examples of "debatable statements" in the area of literary and cultural studies, we may consider the following:

1. "John Milton's *Paradise Lost* reflects the patriarchal bias of the period or social and cultural milieu in which it was written."
2. "Contemporary popular vampire fiction and film serve as platforms for domestication of otherness and monstrosity."[4]

---

[1] Commonly, scholars describe argumentation as the defining feature of one main type of academic writing, namely, the essay, and, more narrowly still, the so-called argument essay (Coffin et al. 2003, p. 22). Neil Murray and Geraldine Hughes (2008, p. 3) name "argumentation" among a number of other "objectives" or "functions": "definition," "description," "classification," "cause-effect," "comparison and contrast."

[2] For the idea of the "debatable" or "thesis" statement see the relevant section at http://wwnorton.com/college/english/litweb10/writing/ "Writing about Literature" (accessed March 31, 2014).

[3] Rowena Murray and Sarah Moore dwell on the paradoxes of academic writing as a process rather than a final product: "Writing requires listening to and being guided by the voices of others, but also it demands your confidence and your willingness to present your own voice, your own perspectives and your own interpretations. … Writing is not just influenced by what we know and what we have discovered about a particular phenomenon, it is also influenced by what we feel, and more particularly, what we feel about ourselves …" (2006, p. 7).

[4] An example from Marggraf Turley's book: "Marriage in Austen's society was perceived as a functional device far removed from an emotional rhetoric." He goes on to improve on this thesis

It is worth reminding ourselves that what makes these and similar statements debatable is an element of dubiousness; they are not—and ought not to be—obvious to readers even if they are familiar with the material (literary or more broadly cultural) to which they refer: the poem in the first case and popular vampire novels and films in the second.

Furthermore, it is necessary to note by way of clarification that our intention is to propose a broad meaning for the term *assertion*. There are, to begin with, different levels of assertion, according to the strength of the statement. To use the language of psychology, we might describe the differences as degrees of certainty in the speaker. We could then represent assertion as denoting a continuum between two extremes: that of absolute certainty (or commitment) and that of absolute doubt. Helpful in this respect is the notion of modality as understood by grammarians:

> From a semantic point of view, in making an assertion such as *It's raining*, speakers express a proposition and at the same time commit themselves to the factuality of that proposition. In ordinary subjective terms, we should say that speakers **know** that their assertion is a fact.
>
> If, on the other hand, speakers say *It must be raining*, or *It may be raining*, they are not making a categorical assertion, but are rather modifying their commitment in some degree by expressing certainty or possibility based on evidence or interference. (Downing and Locke 2006, pp. 379–380; italics and emphasis in the original)

What the notion of modality means for the argument we are advancing here is that assertion is not only—or not really—about knowledge in the sense of absolute commitment (by or in the speaker) to the "factuality of [a] proposition." It is rather about an appropriate level of certainty. In more practical terms, a writer debating the proposition concerning gender bias in Milton's *Paradise Lost* may be making a modest claim on the beliefs of the reader and conclude by introducing various qualifications to the initial proposition, qualifications that will weaken its original "categorical assertion." We can also easily imagine another case, i.e., an essay in which the writer will be making an effort to disprove the proposition that links fictional vampirism and otherness, and will conclude by eliciting this "negative" assertion—doubt or skepticism—in the reader.

What also follows from the premise concerning debatability is that the writer must devise a way or ways of handling assertion. Metaphorically, assertion might be represented as a contract or compact between the writer and the reader; the writer uses verbal (discursive, rhetorical) signals that function as offers of understanding or even companionship (there are varying degrees of familiarity that a given text will seek to establish between the writer and the reader). This kind of discursive familiarity has the obvious goal of eliciting assent in the recipient.

The most common way to establish a link (or a platform) of familiarity is by means of pronouns. There are two options as to how to "place" assertion by means of pronouns:

---

statement because he finds it problematic for a number of reasons. But our point is this: As it is, it illustrates well what is meant by debatability.

1. Author/writer (the *I* option)
2. Reader (the *we* option)

We now proceed to examine both these options.[5]

There is no general agreement as to the use of the first person singular in academic discourse, regardless of the language. Indeed, the users of Polish and English feel that *I* introduces an element of subjectivity, unwelcome in that it effectively weakens the assertiveness of argumentation simply by limiting its range to one person, that of the writer. The introduction of a personal point of view is thus counterproductive; by saying, for instance, "In my opinion…," the writer suggests that the reader is not expected to agree.

Verbs of perception and cognition are especially to be avoided: "I have heard…," "I understand…,", and "I know…," unless of course perception and cognition themselves supply the evidence or have a role to play in the argument (issues raised by "to seem" and "to appear" will be addressed later in this article). Principally, the reader is not interested in the mental processes of the writer themselves but rather in their results. In this sense, academic discourse is anti-Cartesian, as we might put it. The pitfalls of Cartesian solipsism should be avoided at all cost. "I am thinking, therefore I am" is a strong enough statement in its own right, yet at the same time an extreme case of subjectivism.

Is the first person plural an option? One purpose of using it is simply to guide the reader through the text: "In this section, we look at examples of…" or "For the sake of clarity let us assume that…." In this function, the *we* form can be replaced by the *I* form, but sounds more friendly and less solipsistic. The reader guidance includes other formal strategies that a typical academic text requires, e.g., summarizing, paraphrasing, and defining. Another and more significant purpose of using *we* forms is to create a platform of mutual agreement between the writer and the reader: "We know that…" and "We can see clearly now that…." These and similar expressions and phrases invite the reader to share assertion, as it were, with the writer. The writer in a way congratulates her- or himself on having successfully completed the task of reaching the anticipated conclusions.

Problems, however, can easily be foreseen. The kind of imposed companionship or solidarity that *we* suggests may be rejected by the reader; the reader may become excessively suspicious and skeptical. This danger of excessive doubt and skepticism (in the original sense of "suspension of judgement") is greater or smaller in proportion to the cultural sensitivity, as we might call it, of the subject matter in hand. By this we understand the special quality (or set of features) of a problem that causes the reader "to feel strongly" about it. A writer within the area of literary and cultural studies ought to be aware of—and alert to—the fact that the subject matter being

[5] It is fair to state that for some scholars there is no room for personal pronouns in academic writing due to their informality. In *Academic Writing Course* (Jordan 2003), in a section on style, we read: "Personal pronouns *I*, *you*, *we* tend not to be used in more formal writing (except in letters, etc.). Instead the style may be more impersonal. An introductory *it* or *there* may begin sentences or even the impersonal pronoun *one*; passive verb tenses may also be used" (p. 92; see also Hartley 2008, p. 3).

addressed is much more sensitive than in the fields of exact science (*Naturwissenschaften*). Issues raised by Milton's representation of gender roles are in this respect very different indeed from, say, questions suggested by irregularities in blood pressure in humans, even though the latter are of far greater practical significance.

The *we* platform in scientific discourse may in most cases be avoided as out of place and an unnecessary encumbrance.[6] But de-personalized discourse in the realm of *Geisteswissenschaften* may be regarded as equally inappropriate, and this regardless of the allure of "objectivity" that some "humanists" still find difficult to resist. To avoid conducting one's discourse *more geometrico* does not have to entail giving up on objectivity. The objectivity of literary and cultural discourse consists in reaching an agreement, a consensus; the objective is the sharing of a belief. If appropriately used, the *we* forms will be helpful in producing this result. In the simplest of terms, two extremes should be avoided. One the hand, the hyper-objectivity modelled after scientific exactness: Axioms and definition generate theorems, and assertion is at best little more than inessential "psychic" accompaniment. On the other hand, the irrevocable *credo* or *cogito* excludes solipsism, which precludes all negotiation.[7]

Let us now take a look at some ways in which habits of presentation (and especially of assertion) in L1 (Polish) may combine with specific problems in semantics and infelicitous translation to exacerbate the foreign student's ability clearly to frame an argument in L2 (English).

The tendency of writers schooled in Polish rhetorical habits to avoid use of first person pronouns (or equivalent verb forms) in academic discourse may engender a disorienting uncertainty as to the authorship or endorsement of the views being expressed. This difficulty is compounded when other authorities are being quoted or paraphrased, and in some conditions confusion on these grounds may not only alienate the reader's sympathies, but compromise the research value of the whole work. The reader's inability clearly to distinguish between (1) arguments that the writer is advancing, (2) arguments that the writer is citing but not endorsing, (3) arguments that the writer is citing and endorsing, and (4) statements that the writer is stipulating to be taken as matters of fact can lead the reader simply to dismiss the

[6] We exclude from this discussion the obvious and unavoidable use of *we* to denote authorial intent when a paper has more than one author, which is also, of course, the present case.

[7] Worth noting is Toby Fulwiler's (2002) level-headed explanation (and the advice attached to it) placed under the heading "subjectivity": "In many disciplines, your personal opinion may not be worth very much; in others it will be. In the more interpretive disciplines, such as history, philosophy, and literature, you will generally find more room for *personal interpretation* than in the more quantitative disciplines, such as chemistry, physics, and mathematics. (The social sciences fall somewhere in between.) To be safe, whenever you make an academic assertion in any discipline, use the best evidence you can find and document it. But in all disciplines, your own reasoned, and necessarily subjective judgment will at some times be necessary; if it is, just be sure to state it as such ('In my opinion…' or 'It seems to me…') and give the best reasons you can" (p. 59; emphasis in the original).

paper in its entirety as a farrago of unattributable and unsupported propositions, however convincing, on their own account, some of these may be.

The chances for this unfortunate outcome may be increased due to a phenomenon that, while we will only sketch it here on the basis of brief examples of the relation between Polish and English, certainly exists on a wide scale in the relations between any two languages, namely, an insufficient knowledge on the part of the writer of key semantic disjunctions between L1 and L2. Because most students are taught academic English by speakers of their own language, the existence of these treacherous inequivalencies, or the danger to clear argumentation that they pose, may not be adequately addressed in the writing classroom.

Our first set of examples[8] is concerned with three English verbs often used by Poles writing academic English. In the first case, the Polish verb *wydawać się* is translated into English conventionally and in dictionaries using the verbs "to seem" and "to appear." The latter two verbs occur with high frequency in academic papers written by Poles who are unaware, however, that their meaning differs crucially from that of the accepted Polish equivalent. The Polish verb *wydawać się* denotes appearance, but suggests unambiguously that the appearance is trustworthy, if not exhaustive, and that conclusions can be based on it. ("*Wydajesz się zmęczona*." "You seem tired.")[9] While the English verbs may include, depending on context, this sense of the reliability of appearance, they more frequently suggest, as the Polish verb does not, that the appearance of a thing is either deceptive or too incomplete to warrant inference. In academic writing, the very important sense that a statement or state of affairs is incompletely known, but—in the author's judgment—can still be relied upon or taken for as being sufficient, is expressed in English by a series of qualifications, e.g., "It seems evident that…," "He appears clearly to have been…," and "This seems to compel us to conclude…." Such devices are employed to convey a sense of assurance that does not imply a boastful claim to perfect knowledge, but they are generally not employed by Poles, who see no use for them, finding exactly that sense contained in the verb *wydawać się* by itself and therefore, they assume, in its English equivalents. This leads Polish writers to produce English constructions such as the following: "Randall Jarrell appears to be a very controversial poet," "Prof. Smith seems to be unquestionably more correct than Prof. Brown," and "This seems to be an indisputable argument." In these cases and many similar ones, the reader is unable to clearly gauge the relation of the writer and thus, presumably, the intended relation of the reader him- or herself to the statement: Should the verb in question be given the weight of a copula (which in all three examples would very

[8] Examples quoted here and subsequently are all taken from papers written by BA and MA students of the authors and their colleagues at the University of Silesia; irrelevant details of the quoted excerpts have been changed.

[9] It might be noted in passing that the verb *wydawać się* is treacherous also because Poles tend to use the "to be" infinitive (Pl. *być*) after it (as if mimicking the English "to seem to be"), e.g., "*Wydawał się być zmęczony*." ("He seemed to be tired."), which is incorrect. See the entry for *wydać* in *Słownik poprawnej polszczyzny* [Dictionary of Correct Polish Usage] (1995) Warszawa: PWN.

likely have been the intention of the Polish-speaking author), or should the reader expect a counter-proposition, confirming that "things are seldom what they seem"?

A different effect, though it is an example of the same problem, results from difficulties in the relation between the Polish verb *udowodnić* and its standard English equivalent, "to prove."[10] Once again, convention and dictionary practice make this translation an almost automatic one for students; however, they may remain unaware, first, that while *udowodnić* can sometimes be taken to express the hard sense of the English word "to prove," both its etymology and its semantic field are centered on the notion "to adduce evidence," and this is a far less forceful concept than that conveyed by the English verb, and, second, that by custom, writers of formal English eschew use of the verb "to prove" unless they are discussing matters of historical or scientific fact or are engaged in overt polemics. "To prove" is a word treated with great caution in papers written in the fields of literary and cultural studies, and even the social sciences, when statistics or physical evidence are not at hand, and the unexpected appearance of this verb to assert value judgements or critical opinions where English typically uses "to suggest," "to demonstrate," "to argue," "to show," etc., may easily startle a reader and put her or him off the writer's argument.

Examples of statements exhibiting this infelicitous use taken from Polish students' papers are as follows: "Prof. Miller's analysis proves that John Donne is unquestionably a master of allegory." "This opinion proves how much Spencer influenced Milton." "Dreiser's socialism is proved by the remark of Prof. Curtis, that…." Here the likelihood of psychological resistance on the part of the English-speaking reader is very high; a categorical statement of proof in matters that, regardless of evidence, are not thought to be subject to "proof" of any kind sounds at best like a coarse misuse of language or, worse, an unwarranted claim to certainty which vitiates the author's academic credibility. A negative reaction of this kind could be entirely avoided, however, were the author to use instead of "prove" such common English constructions as "goes to show" (for the first two examples given above) or "testified to" (for the third).

The cases of verb employment cited here, unlike those of the use of personal pronouns discussed earlier, reflect no important difference in rhetorical strategies between L1 and L2, but show how minor differences in meaning between translation-equivalent words or phrases, when not fully understood, can exacerbate the problems a writer has with meeting the rhetorical expectations of the L2 readership.

A more clearly rhetorical problem with the transfer of L1 strategies to L2, which will also serve as our second example of difficulties we witness in the case of Polish-to-English writing, concerns the use of adverbs, specifically adverbs of manner. Here we refer to a habit that is exceedingly common in Polish formal writing of establishing a convivial spirit of solidarity between author and reader, which serves a purpose similar to the use of the first person plural voice. This habit is to litter the text with hortatory adverbs, giving exuberant advice on how it is to be read. Some

[10] Here we address only the meaning of the verb "to prove" that denotes establishment beyond question of matters of fact.

indication of this habit is provided in the examples already made, and we may adduce a few more: "Hawthorne is indisputably a great master of ambiguity," "Prof. Davis undeniably shows how well Lowell understood Freud," and "Prof. Black magnificently describes the unparalleled qualities of this passage." The infelicity here has not so much to do with exaggeration or overstatement (though it takes this form), but with the fact that English-speaking readers, especially in an academic context, are not receptive to advice about how to read a given argument: A bald exhortation to share the author's opinion, however warmly it is expressed, is likely to arouse suspicion and resistance and thus create an effect just the opposite to that which was intended.

It is to be noted that the foregoing problems are not the result of students ignoring or failing to incorporate the advice of their teachers. In our experience, teachers at all levels of the English and academic writing programs in Polish schools and universities fail themselves to be aware of these and similar problems. Rather, they enthusiastically pass on to students advice on the writing of texts in English that reflect their own convictions that come from the Polish language about successful rhetoric and continue to grade students' English-language papers according to criteria that are often inappropriate to English-language academic texts. A final problem with rhetorical strategies can be noted in this regard, and this one has almost entirely to do with faulty pedagogical methods. This is the encouragement that students receive to bridge sentences and paragraphs with linking adverbs, almost solely on the grounds of "smoothness" or a vaguely conceived "fluency" and entirely without regard to the fact that these linking terms set up a specific relation between the statement that precedes them and that which follows. Students will, therefore, in good faith, use "moreover," "thus," "furthermore," "in connection with which," "therefore," and other such expressions interchangeably, with no apparent awareness that each differs materially from the others and signals to the reader a particular expectation of the relation between the antecedent and consequent statements.

Because the rhetorical values of Polish are founded upon different circumstances and principles than those of English, it is difficult for Polish students to absorb the idea that a more or less direct "translation" of their own stylistic habits into English might have unexpected, indeed inimical, effects upon the reception of their text. One category of such effects that we have outlined in the foregoing remarks is the uncertainty, estrangement, or even dislike that an English-speaking reader may feel when confronted with a paper in which a clear line of argument is not posted by conventional markers of authorial viewpoint and attitude towards the subject, towards the sources engaged in during the discussion, and towards the reader.

Aesthetic principles—among which we include rhetorical habits—may be the most powerfully cathected and strongly held of the manifold interests that people absorb from their own culture and upbringing. We propose that they are therefore a singularly difficult obstacle to confront, both for students themselves and for their instructors at the level of advanced second-language learning, when the writing of academic papers in the target language is addressed. Though the particular cases discussed above and the advice appended below are based upon our experience with

the relative characteristics of Polish and English, we are sure that the issues touched upon here are relevant to all L1 backgrounds.

Polish students of English copy into their academic papers strategies proper to the way the Polish language is used in academic discourse. However, by calling such strategies "proper to the language" we do not mean that they are always felicitous and never unambiguous. On the contrary, as we have seen, some fixed expressions and phrases through their common use have the tendency to "disappear" before the eyes of the reader. Their conveyance into another language, here English, brings them back into view often with the result of exposing their infelicity and ambiguity.

Typical of the use of Polish for academic purposes are strategies of avoiding or shifting assertion away from the first person singular. Polish writers of English tend to overuse passive and non-personal forms of verbs. The writer sits awkwardly between the subject matter in hand and the reader. Assertion is supposed to "take care of itself." The writer may feel that the burden of asserting is too heavy to carry; the reasons for this kind of avoidance may be largely cultural (and this applies, as we have suggested above, in the case of many other European languages whose speakers are tasked with composition in English). Furthermore, the relation that Polish students writing in their own language have to the sources they cite, and the clarity with which they distinguish their own argument from the arguments made by the authorities quoted, differs markedly from the customary relation that obtains in English academic writing: Poles will often quote and then paraphrase a given authority and fail to give their own comment on the paraphrased argument, leaving the reader uncertain about its relation to the author's argument and therefore all too often about the nature of the author's argument itself.

4 Conclusions

Our considerations have allowed us to formulate some suggestions that academic writing teachers who have encountered the issues identified above may find helpful:

Identify assertion strategies native to the students' language. Use translation to see if and to what extent they can be transferred into English. Examine the results for their clarity and whether or not they violate the usage of the equivalents in English.

Work out means of teaching students proper (i.e., L1-to-English) ways of placing assertion in the second language (English). Help students to become familiar and comfortable with these. Show to students where in their texts there is room for assertiveness.

Insist on clear distinctions between the student writers' opinions and opinions found in sources or elsewhere. Make sure that students do not confuse primary with secondary sources. Help students to see that statements in secondary sources are not "holy writ" but are debatable.

Insist that students come up with their own debatable statements about the material in hand.

Practice striking a fine balance between the three options discussed in our paper. Absolute consistency may not be possible or indeed welcome. Flexibility, in the sense of keeping a careful eye on the subject matter and the kind of handling it requires, comes before consistency.

Encourage students to err on the side on direct speech rather than indirection in their academic use of English. Accustom students to the idea that academic writing, like any other use of language, entails personal responsibility and that there is no point in shirking it.

References

Coffin, C., et al. (2003). *Teaching academic writing. A toolkit for higher education*. London/New York: Routledge.

Downing, A., & Locke, P. (2006). *English grammar. A university course* (2nd ed.). London/New York: Routledge.

Fulwiler, T. (2002). *College writing. A personal approach to academic writing* (3rd ed.). Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Hartley, J. (2008). *Academic writing and publishing. A practical handbook*. London/New York: Routledge.

Jordan, R. R. (2003). *Academic writing course. Study skills in English* (3rd ed.). Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.

Marggraf Turley, R. (2000). *Writing essays. A guide for students in English and the humanities*. London/New York: Routledge.

Murray, N., & Hughes, G. (2008). *Writing up your university assignments and research projects. A practical handbook*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Murray, R., & Moore, S. (2006). *The handbook of academic writing. A fresh approach*. Maidenhead: Open University Press.

Słownik poprawnej polszczyzny [Dictionary of correct Polish usage]. (1995). Warszawa: PWN.

Extended Patchwriting in EFL Academic Writing of Hungarian Students: Signs and Possible Reasons

Katalin Doró

Abstract While EFL novice academic writers try to avoid clear signs of plagiarism, they often resort to what is referred to as patchwriting, which has been characterized as closely relying on source texts with only some modification in word choices or grammatical structures. Patchwriting is viewed as a natural step in the development of academic writing. This paper discusses what constitutes patchwriting in its original sense and offers a new definition that incorporates both direct textual chunks and partially paraphrased sections that often exceed phrase- or sentence-level copying. The possible reasons behind this extensive textual borrowing and the giveaway signs are reviewed. The need for investigating the reasons and attitudes behind patchwriting, as well as the level and proportion of copying, are emphasized in order to see which approach to writing instruction best fits the needs of specific EFL student populations.

Keywords Academic writing · Patchwriting · EFL

1 Introduction

Intensive discussions about academic honesty has been going on for decades in some countries, including debates over definitions and policy making as well as detection, prevention, and punishment options. As a response to the growing tendency of plagiarism and writing difficulties in higher education, good practices in academic writing instruction have been proposed and students' and teachers' attitudes have been investigated, yet many issues are still underestimated and questions remain unanswered. As no two cases of academic writing problems are identical, no one universal recipe to deal with them exists.

K. Doró (✉)
Department of English Language Teacher Education and Applied Linguistics, Institute of English and American Studies, University of Szeged, Szeged, Hungary
e-mail: dorokati@lit.u-szeged.hu

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_14

Over the past 15 years, I have been working in a Central European academic environment in which plagiarism has been a marginal issue. Very few graduate and undergraduate programs in Hungary include academic writing instruction, even though a dissertation or thesis is the major requirement for graduation. Moreover, although academic integrity policies do exist at all higher education institutions in Hungary, their implementation remains problematic. It is often unclear what the policies actually mean, who should decide whether we are facing an academic dishonesty case rather than a citation anomaly or inattentiveness, and what the consequences should be. It can only be assumed that most erroneous referencing or plagiarism cases remain unnoticed or unreported as very few are openly discussed.

I have taught essay writing to undergraduate students of English; supervised and evaluated BA and MA theses written by them; set and evaluated reports, research summaries, and other short academic writing tasks in applied linguistics seminars; and acted as an outside evaluator for research papers and doctoral dissertations. Most of these papers have been written in English by students whose main field of study is English studies (with English being a foreign language); they are expected to have an above intermediate (B2) level of English proficiency and to gradually improve their academic reading and writing skills in their chosen field of studies (e.g., linguistics, literature, or history). During this work, I have come across many poorly written assignments that reflected the students' best effort but had weak language skills. I have also seen many brilliant assignments that well exceeded the level of expectation and were testimonies to the academic writing development that some students were able to achieve during their studies. However, the majority of the written assignments handed in for evaluation fell in between these two categories. What for me were the most striking cases were the ones in which student papers contained heavy reliance on source texts that, at first glance, could look like reasonable or even high-quality original pieces of writing. These papers ranged from one-page argumentative essays to doctoral dissertation drafts that were often meant to earn students final grades for seminars or their entire academic studies. Therefore, in these cases it could be expected that students had put their best effort into writing their texts and knew about expectations and essential academic writing mechanisms. Nevertheless, I have come to realize that the best effort often meant very different things at different times, and the texts created by these authors were sewn together from patches partly written by the students and partly lifted directly from sources that were often not listed.

This paper first discusses some of the earlier works on patchwriting, its meaning compared to cheating, plagiarism, textual borrowing, citation, and referencing. Then, based on examples drawn from two English studies theses, a more specific term is proposed: *extended patchwriting*. Possible reasons behind heavy textual borrowing among novice EFL student writers are discussed, together with some of the signs that point to extended patchwriting. How academic writing instruction and assistance could better help students in preventing patchwriting is also examined.

2 Patchwriting: The Original Concept

The concept of patchwriting comes from the acknowledgement that novice writers often borrow and change the language of their sources in ways that conflict with English academic writing conventions. The first problem is that students often do not know what the conventions really are. For someone to become a reasonably good academic writer in a given field normally takes years, expertise and familiarity with the research published in the field, and practice with reading, critical thinking, and writing. This is not a stock of knowledge or set of skills most undergraduates or even graduates enter their education programs with. The academic texts that students write in their first language (L1) and second/foreign language (L2) are often interwoven with phrases or sentences copied from sources. Howard (1993) defines patchwriting as "copying from a source text and then deleting some words, altering grammatical structures, or plugging in one-for-one synonym-substitutes" (p. 233). Howard (1993) suggests that patchwriting is not only an important stage for novice writers who are unfamiliar with academic discourse and referencing rules but is also a commonly employed strategy that should be recognized. In the late 1990s, Howard continued to separate patchwriting from prototypical, intentionally deceptive plagiarism, claiming that students may not know the proportion of borrowing above which their text is considered plagiarized (something that oftentimes instructors do not have a general agreement on either). Indeed, patchwriting may show the writer's effort to employ the target discourse, but the summarizing and paraphrasing task is beyond their capability. Howard (1999) proposed that patchwriting should be acceptable in a draft but not in a final copy of a student text.

While other studies have also called for the need to separate unintentional plagiarism from intentional copying (e.g., Eckel 2010; Pecorari 2003; Pecorari and Petrić 2014), the line between the two is often indefinable when only the final products are read by instructors and therefore the writing process is not followed. Closely assisting every step a student takes in the writing process is usually not an option, even in academic writing classes. Also, students may well deny intentionality, and teaching about plagiarism in itself may not prevent academic misconduct. Plagiarism is often considered the intention to gain credit without doing the appropriate work and is defined in its broad sense as using someone else's ideas and words as your own without crediting the source.

The proportion of acceptable textual lifting is debatable and may vary in different contexts. Many policies go in the direction of zero tolerance and claim that even a sentence-long unquoted text or loosely paraphrased chunks used as if they were the author's own words and ideas are plagiarism and students should be more aware of its consequences. Nevertheless, raising awareness may not be a simple task, as Li and Casanave (2012) reported in a case study. Even when students were aware of plagiarism policies, they used patchwriting to construct their assignments. Also, instructors may condemn students for a widely used practice for which no consensus exists, which can be confusing for students, or something they themselves may

do under certain circumstances (Clarke 2006). To test this, Roig (2001) asked a group of psychology professors to summarize texts outside their field and found that many resorted to a technique that fell within the boundaries of patchwriting.

I believe that there are considerable differences among a variety of techniques that could all be considered patchwriting. For instance, textual patches directly lifted from sources and placed after a sentence-opening phrase, the recopying of sentences with the deletion of details or not clearly understood sections, and the reordering of information with some lexical and sentence structure changes are three distinct cases. I fully accept the view that academic writing instructors should educate and prevent plagiarism rather than punish it (e.g., Eckel 2010; Howard 1999; Petrić 2015), but most evaluations happen at the final stage of writing where education has little or no place and consequences must be fair but harsh. Eckel (2010) points out that certain fields, such as engineering or natural sciences, do not use attributed quotations, while writers of humanities studies do have this option and a wider selection of strategies (and I also believe larger space) to interpret and give reference to their sources. Referencing, indeed, should not be viewed as a necessity that can be done by mechanically listing a few sources written on a given topic. In the humanities, for example, understanding of the sources and their interpretation should be shown by the author's stance. This can be gained by selecting appropriate reporting verbs, adding comments, and drawing conclusions.

While most published data explore the academic integrity situations in English-speaking countries (e.g., Gulliver and Tyson 2014; McCabe 2005; Howard et al. 2010; Waye 2010), often in contrast with the permissive Asian traditions (e.g., Gow 2014; Liao and Tseng 2012; Ting et al. 2014), in recent years more research has been published on different countries and educational contexts, including Central and Eastern Europe (e.g., Badea and Presada 2017; Foltýnek et al. 2014a; Jahic 2011; Urbanovič et al. 2015). Glendinning (2016), Foltýnek and Glendinning (2015), and Foltýnek et al. (2014b) reported on a European project called the Impact of Policies for Plagiarism in Higher Education Across Europe (IPPHEAE), which collected questionnaire data from students and instructors in all 27 EU countries. The project found marked differences in the knowledge about plagiarism, its acceptance, and policy-related issues in the countries involved. Central and Eastern Europe is often found to be more permissive in academic honesty issues (see also Doró 2014a, b, 2016). However, the way plagiarism is treated may well depend not only on countries, but also on local institutes of higher education and academies of sciences, the tension between traditions and tendencies to integrate into Western academic communities, local policies and their implementation, local decision makers, and the willingness to openly discuss related issues. Moore (2014) reported on the zero tolerance of the Finnish Advisory Board on Research Integrity, which includes both direct and adopted patches as unacceptable in their plagiarism guidelines. Not surprisingly, most studies on plagiarism agree on the following: (a) students' and instructors' views and expectations about academic honesty are different, (b) similar differences exist among staff members, (c) policies are often not clear and not clearly implemented, and (d) marked differences exist between countries or even study programs within the same institutes in terms of what is acceptable or taught as desirable.

3 Forms and Levels of Patchwriting: Definitions

In this section, I will argue that treating patchwriting permissively in end-of-course assignments or other comprehensive papers is not only a simplification of the problem, but may also be dangerous. Not only because permissiveness can strengthen the undesired belief that borrowing is fine if not done word for word, but also because a student who is allowed to patchwrite at the beginning may not strive later for a next, more advanced level of academic writing. Most cases of textual borrowing that I come across during my daily work should be considered plagiarism. It has to be pointed out that there is a controversy when L2 writers are requested to use "their own words" or "fresh language." It is questionable how "fresh and original" an L2 writer's words can be. Learning to speak and write in a foreign language is based on imitation and students are encouraged to learn and use the academic phrases and structures most typical of their chosen field or topic. While doing so, they should learn to copy neither the ideas nor the actual passages of their sources as well as not to use them as their own. Instead they need to build up a large stock of useful academic phrases that they can choose from when discussing their sources or expressing their ideas.

I believe that we should distinguish between phrase-level, sentence-level, and text-level patchwriting to better understand the writing strategies students employ and also to see to what level the lack of intentionality may be used as an excuse. The examples that supporters of patchwriting have published mostly document the reuse of phrase-level chunks, where short strings of words from the original text are kept together. This *phrase-level patchwriting* means that the student author does work with the source text by changing the word order, finding synonyms, and hopefully adding some new ideas and fresh language. Many of my L2 English writers, however, lift larger chunks, leaving together longer phrases or full sentences with only minor modifications. I call this *sentence-level patchwriting*, which shows very little of the students' reading and writing skills and critical thinking. What happens is the identification of key sentences from a few sources and then the restructuring of the string of sentences into seemingly well-structured paragraphs. What is more, students sometimes go beyond this level and select groups of sentences or even full paragraphs to be placed together with some marginal reordering and with some additional sections written by them. I consider this practice *text-level patchwriting*. While constructing their papers, students may mix direct patches, paraphrased chunks, and truly original pieces of texts. I believe that sentence and text-level patchwriting is planned; it is a deliberate writing strategy used either because the writer (a) wants to deceive the reader per se, (b) has inadequate skills to write better, or (c) thinks that textual reuse is appropriate.

The extent of patchwritten or otherwise borrowed textual chunks within a text is also rarely discussed in the patchwriting or mosaic plagiarism literature. A 10-page essay that contains one phrase-level patchwritten paragraph may be accepted as no academic dishonesty, while the same should not be done if half of the paper follows the same writing strategy, and it should definitely not be accepted if it includes sentence-level chunks. Based on the above discussed levels, proportion, and inten-

tionality, I propose the identification of a specific form of patchwriting, namely *extended patchwriting*. Extended patchwriting is a writing strategy in which authors use, in a recurring manner, four-word or longer strings from original sources within the same paragraph or longer strings and sentences in multiple sections of their texts without using quotation marks. In these cases we talk about extended patchwriting regardless of whether one or more source texts are identifiable and whether the sources are cited at the end of the sentence/paragraph/paper or in footnotes. Extended patchwriting, in my view, is plagiarism, and it should not be accepted even from low-proficiency, inexperienced L2 student writers.

4 Extended Patchwriting: Examples

What follows are some examples of extended patchwriting taken from both a master's and a bachelor's level English studies thesis written as one of the final steps in completing all requirements to receive a degree. Prior and parallel to the thesis writing, students had attended at least one semester of general writing skills class and one semester of thesis writing seminar, with written assignments and extra consultation times. This means that students of English get much more academic writing instruction than what is offered in similar programs in the same university. However, this is far from being enough, and the two-semester consultation period during thesis writing with the supervisor is very uneven. Some students take advantage of the offered face-to-face consultations with the supervisor and send in sections of their drafts months before the paper is due; others resort to last minute writing a few weeks before the deadline during which there is little room for feedback and improvement.

Table 1 shows the last two sentences of a paragraph and the following full paragraph of Student A's master's thesis. The passage taken from the thesis is laid out side by side with the source sentences, and the borrowed chunks are underlined. References in this thesis are given at the end of each paragraph, using only a handful of sources, which is a typical sign of close reliance on one or two key sources. From a closer look at Ur (1984), it becomes apparent that indeed Student A's text is almost a word for word reuse of some key sentences. The text is patched together from several pages, yet it is clearly not acceptable to copy and paste sentences together from sources to write a literature review of a thesis. Very few words are deleted or changed in the source text, and there is almost no fresh language used by Student A in the entire paragraph. The preceding and the following paragraphs are constructed the same way. This is a good example of text-level patchwriting that makes the reader believe that the student's text is indeed a well thought-out summary of the sources indicated at the ends of the paragraphs. Instead, most of the text is quoted without the use of quotation marks to the extent that it cannot be claimed that the quotation marks were left out by mistake, which is often given as an excuse. Such a heavy reliance on the source text must be understood as a deliberate choice of the author, the reason for which can only be hypothesized.

Table 1 Excerpt from an English studies master's thesis and its relevant sources

Excerpt from an English Studies master's thesis	Ur (1984)
In aural close procedure a written text is given to the learner with words deleted at regular or irregular intervals. The learners then have to use the context to fill in the missing words (Ur 1984).	Aural cloze
	In the conventional cloze procedure, normally used as a test of reading comprehension, a written text is given to the learner with words deleted at regular or irregular intervals. The learner then has to use the context to fill in the missing words (pp. 83–84).
Aural close tests are the conventional close procedure; a written passage is given to the students with words deleted at regular or irregular intervals. A deleted version of a written text is given to the students, and the teacher simply reads out the full version while the students fill in the gap according to what they hear. Cloze tests such as the mentioned ones can be used to revise new vocabulary if each gap is designed to be filled by a recently-learned word. Meanwhile guessing definitions are a guessing game in reverse. The teacher defines something and tells the students in advance and they simply have to guess what it is. A set of pictures can be used in these kinds of listening exercises. Apart from visuals objects, people, professions, animals, places, events can be used as the subject of this game. The teacher jots down a list of the answers, and then improves the descriptions. More abstract nouns, adjectives and verbs can also be used as the subject of these exercises (Ur 1984).	A deleted version of a written text is given to the students, and the teacher simply reads out the full version while the students fill in the gap according to what they hear (p. 84).
	Guessing definitions
	This is really a guessing game in reverse. The teacher defines or describes something (having told students in advance what nature of a thing it is), and they simply have to guess what it is… sometimes the things to be guessed can be one of a close set, as for example when students have a set of pictures before them … (p. 87).
	Such activities can usefully serve to practice or revise vocabulary the students have been recently taught (p. 91).
	Apart from visuals, anything normally used as the subject of a guessing game can be used for this activity: Objects, people, professions, animals, places, events. The teacher jots down a list of the answers, and then improves the descriptions. (p. 90).
	More abstract nouns, adjectives and verbs can also be used as the subject of these exercises (p. 90).

Two interesting examples of copying mistakes are also visible for the attentive readers. The first is the shift between *close* and *cloze*, which may be a trick played on the student by the spell checker or a sign of the student's ignorance of the difference between the two words. The second is the slightly different copied versions of two sentences from Ur (1984, pp. 83–84), which were used as the last and first two sentences of two consecutive paragraphs. It is also interesting to note the *student–students* and *learners–students* shifts in the two versions.

When the language of the patchwritten literature review sections are compared to the ones in the methods section written by Student A herself, the differences are quite distinct. Note the grammatical, lexical, and stylistic errors in excerpts (1) and (2) below (quoted verbatim).

Table 2 Excerpt A from an English studies bachelor's thesis and its relevant sources

Excerpt from an English studies bachelor's thesis	Barikmo (2007, p. 23)
LBH was also supported by Mufwene (1999, cited in Barikmo, 2007:23) in a study comparing the first-language acquisition patterns of an English-speaking child with Bickerton's (1984) rubric for bioprogram grammar acquisition. The child in this study had a basic sentential structure of NP—PredP before the age of 28 months, and her nonverbal PredPs did not require a copula as she had not yet acquired the adult syntax rule requiring PredPs to relate to VPs with the help of copula. During the acquisition process the copula first appeared in imperative constructions such as *Be careful*. Bickerton argued that the most radical creoles (those closest to bioprogram grammar) exhibit this same tendency to allow adjectives and prepositions to head PredPs and not require copulas (example 30).	Mufwene (1999) Also found support for the LBH in a study comparing the first-language acquisition patterns of an English-speaking child with Bickerton's (1984) rubric for bioprogram grammar acquisition. The child in this study had a basic sentential structure of NP—PredP before the age of 28 months, and her nonverbal PredPs did not require a copula as she had not yet acquired the adult syntax rule requiring PredPs to translate to VPs with dummy-verb, or copula, insertion. Acquisition of the copula was gradual, and was first attested in imperative constructions such as *Be careful*. Bickerton argued that the most radical creoles (those closest to bioprogram grammar) exhibit this same tendency to allow adjectives and prepositions to head PredPs and not require copulas (example 41).
(26) a. Jean tall. (Gullah)	(41) a. Jean tall. (Gullah)
b. Jean taller 'n/more tall 'an she brother. (p. 112)	b. Jean taller 'n/more tall 'an she brother. (p. 112)
[Barikmo, 2007: 23, 41]	Mufwene asserted that the subject's grammar supported the structural claims of Bickerton's hypothesis, though generic claims were not similarly supported. The UG orientation of Bickerton's LBH was deemed valuable, though Mufwene suggested that UG features of acquisition are also available to adults and hence would afford them agency in the creolization context.
Mufwene claimed that the subject's grammar supported the structural claims of Bickerton's hypothesis so the UG orientation of Bickerton's LBH seems to be valid.	

1. ** To explore the facts on the topic, I provided nine statements to my colleagues asking them for help with my empirical research. The results and conclusions will be detailed in this part of my paper.*
2. ** I will focus on three questions, which will be expressed in this part. The teachers said that they use all of the methods which are in the course books, but the type depends on the age group and the students' language level.*

The text in Table 2 is a paragraph taken from a bachelor's thesis. Examining it in parallel with the source text (an award-winning and published student essay available online) shows similarly heavy textual lifting. At first glance the paragraph seems well written, with references and interpreted sources. A closer look reveals, however, that apart from some slight simplifications, Student B's text is the lifting of six consecutive sentences from one of her main sources. It is questionable whether Student B had ever read the sources mentioned in the passage or had understood what the page number in parenthesis, "(p. 112)," after the sample sentences refers

Table 3 Excerpt B from an English studies bachelor's thesis and its relevant sources

Excerpt from an English studies bachelor's thesis	Senghas (2000, p. 696), Adone (2012, p. 26) and Senghas (1995b, p. 543)
Before the 1970s, there was not much contact among deaf Nicaraguan children and adults. In the late 1970s, they got an opportunity to communicate with each other when a primary school for special education was established in Managua. (Senghas 2000) according to Senghas (1995*, cited in Adone 2012), in 1979 the Sandinista party established public schools for deaf children within a new literacy and social program and children started to communicate by signs immediately. Kegl and Iwata (1989, cited in Senghas 1995) Examined this early stage of Nicaraguan sign system and compared it to American sign language. They concluded that NSL's status can be evaluated as a creole. The oldest member of the community who entered the schools in the late 1980s used simple signs and gestures, so-called home signs, and they developed a pidgin language called Lenguaje de Signos Nicaraguense (LSN) which is still used today among them. Younger deaf children who joined the deaf community received this pidgin as an input and they enrich it to a full-fledged sign language called Idioma de Signos Nicaraguense (ISN). ISN is the result of "abrupt creolization" according to Bickerton's definition. (1984, cited in Senghas 1995*)	Senghas (2000)
	Before the 1970s, deaf Nicaraguan children and adults had little contact with each other. This situation changed in the late 1970s when a primary school for special education was established in Managua, followed in 1980 by a vocational school for adolescents.
	Adone (2012)
	According to Senghas (1995a, b) in 1979 after the victory of the Sandinista party, as a result of new literacy and health care and social programs, deaf children were brought together in schools and children started to communicate by signs immediately. Kegl and Iwata (1989) Described some of the early stages of Nicaraguan signing and compared it to ASL. They came to the conclusion that it had the status of a Creole.
	This new form of signing has been called Idioma de Signos Nicaragüense (ISN).
	Senghas (1995b)
	The oldest members of the community, who are now in their mid- to late-twenties, entered the schools in 1978, each with a different, highly idiosyncratic homesign or gesture system. Upon contact they developed a now partially-crystallized pidgin called Lenguaje de Signos Nicaragüense (LSN) which they continue to use today. Younger deaf children (many as young as 4 years old) who started school at that time received the Pidgin LSN used by the older children as input. From this impoverished language input they produced something richer: The new creole Idioma de Signos Nicaragüense (ISN). ISN is a full-fledged, primary sign language, resulting from the process of *nativization*, or *abrupt creolization* as Bickerton (1984) defines it.

to. Not knowing what to do with it, this reference to Mufwene (1999, p. 112) was left untouched. The minimal rewriting in the paragraph includes two distortions: PredPs *relate* (*translate* in source) to VPs and Bickerton's LBH is *valid* (*valuable* in source).

Table 3, coming from Student B's resubmitted thesis (only partly rewritten, leaving the excerpt in Table 2 untouched), again shows extended patchwriting, yet she employs a third type of typical source borrowing strategy. In this case, one thesis paragraph is patched together from three different sources. Although it is more difficult to detect, once the sources are consulted, it is again relatively easy to trace the sentences in the paragraph to sentences in the sources. While some effort to para-

phrase is visible here, the student text is deceptive as it gives the impression of a well-structured, argued, and original summary of sources. The student also left some giveaway signs of citation anomaly for the reader in this paragraph, namely that Senghas (1995), is first cited through Adone (2012), but further down in the paragraph it is indicated as the source of all the other sources.

5 Discussion

The examples discussed above are selected paragraphs taken from two theses of which multiple sections are heavily borrowed and only marginally adapted. These examples suggest that heavy textual borrowing may also be intentional; it is a systematically used strategy even when students are aware of the inappropriate nature of direct copying. Earlier research has also pointed out that students may plagiarize even when they have a general understanding of its inappropriate nature as they do not have a clear understanding of the term and the role of citation (Bretag 2013; Chanock 2008; Glendinning 2016; Pecorari 2003). It is often argued that everyone has done some kind of patchwriting; therefore, it is not a big deal. Nevertheless, there is no excuse for letting students perpetuate this copying in their writing and early intervention is a key to integrity and academic writing instruction. It proves highly problematic when, in pieces of academic texts, it is unclear what the author's own claims are and which ideas or passages come from someone else's work. If a student's writing gives the impression that the author has read the source texts, when, in reality, he/she has only patched together key sentences from literature reviews on the topic, the quality of the whole work is questionable. The information provided in the rewritten student versions is often superficial or distorted due to misunderstandings and/or simplifications or convincingly good writing that was actually written by someone else. As a result of one of the above-mentioned textual borrowing techniques, it is not only the text that is borrowed, but also the ideas and statements of the original authors.

The reasons for extended patchwriting in L2 academic texts can be varied. The general identifiable causes in the case of L1 writers may also apply here, including time pressure, difficulties with critical reading and understanding of sources, source selection problems, tasks too difficult for or unclear to the students, citation uncertainties, insufficient subject knowledge and little experience in academic research and academic writing. Plagiarism issues in L2 writing are even more complex (for an overview see Pecorari and Petrić 2014). Students' target language proficiency may be insufficient for source reading and understanding, and they often do not have the fresh stock of vocabulary or a comfort and error-free use of sentence structures necessary for good paraphrasing. They may also lack confidence in rewriting original statements. For all these reasons, the shortest route to success is through the heavy reliance on the language and ideas of the sources. Not surprisingly, therefore, L2 writers copy more than L1 writers, as was reported by Keck (2006) in a sum-

mary of writing investigation. However, training in academic writing, knowledge of paraphrasing and citation mechanisms, and familiarity with academic integration policies may not save students from inadvertent patchwriting. I have also observed, as a risk of plagiarism, erroneous note-taking skills in the Internet age. Even well-equipped students and experienced writers may copy and paste from sources into their own files without indicating to themselves that what they took was not a note on but a section of the source. When students later go back to their notes, they may no longer remember that those are not paraphrased, ready-to-use ideas and end up patchwriting without noticing it. Therefore, calling students' attention to the importance of systematic and clear digital note-taking is the key to preventing inadvertent plagiarism.

Patchwriting may not be as easy to detect as one may think. Some of the signs of heavy textual borrowing may be the following: uneven language use within paragraphs or sections (in grammar, style, and terminology), unclear or ungrammatical sentences, various referencing problems, reliance on only a handful of sources in an extended literature review, and wording or sentence structures not typical of L2 student writers (Doró 2014a). However, these signs are not always clear cut, and the close resemblance with the source texts is only evident when the sentences are matched up with the target texts. Both Howard et al. (2010) in their Citation Project and Moore (2014) in her work with Finnish theses point out that student and source text matching is a labor-intensive activity. What adds to the curiosity of the case of the two theses discussed in this paper is that both were second, unsuccessful attempts after I, as the second evaluator, had identified serious extended patchwriting in the first versions; the theses were failed for plagiarism, and the students had a minimum of one semester to rewrite them. Interestingly enough, neither of the two supervisors had noticed the extensive textual borrowing that occurred in multiple sections of the first versions. Instructors may be short on both time and attention when evaluating student texts on a daily basis. However, if cases of extended patchwriting are not identified early enough, the assistance provided to overcome the problem and to teach students better note-taking and writing strategies at a later stage may prove to be insufficient. Many universities around the world now use Turnitin or other detection software packages, and originality checking is compulsory for major student assignments. Still, it is often left to the instructors to decide whether they check smaller assignments, and they most likely do it if they spot an obvious change in writing style. Some universities have even adopted this type of software as a learning tool, and students can check their papers themselves before submission. Attitude forming and prevention are stressed in these cases (e.g., Bailey and Challen 2015; Graham-Matheson and Starr 2013). While phrase-level patchwriting is not always screened by software because the original strings of words are cut, more intensive forms of textual borrowing are more easily found. Unfortunately, at my university this or similar software are not available or are not used on a daily basis yet; therefore, instructors, in order to prove their plagiarism suspicions, have to resort to the even more labor-intensive phrase-by-phrase Google search. In all cases, only online

sources are detected while offline sources or assignments downloaded from paper mills most often remain out of reach.

6 Conclusion

This paper discussed, through examples of novice EFL writers' texts, the importance of differentiating between various levels of patchwriting and introduced terms such as phrase-level, sentence-level, text-level, and extended patchwriting. Adding to the growing body of literature on patchwriting, textual borrowing, and plagiarism, the discussion was placed in a Central European EFL context in which discipline-specific academic writing instruction is available, while originality-checking software is not. What aggravates the situation are research skills that are often weak, assignments that are too difficult, and low English-proficiency levels and time constraints that push many students to copy large chunks from sources. It seems clear that students are familiar with main citation mechanisms and produce texts that seem good on the surface. Academic writing assistance, therefore, should focus more on source selection, note-taking skills, and time management skills. Students should be given examples of good paraphrases and summaries as well as unacceptable textual borrowing techniques from the very beginning of their academic writing and content classes in order to clearly understand how to avoid plagiarism. Instructors, on the other hand, should be made more aware of the extent to which patchwriting is practiced by their students and come to a general agreement as to how to deal with patchwritten texts and plagiarism on the local level. Interviews with students who repeatedly patchwrite may shed light on some of the compelling questions still unanswered, such as the degree to which students profit from feedback and their ability to adopt better writing strategies when the ones they have used fail them.

References

Adone, D. (2012). *The acquisition of creole languages: How children surpass their input*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Badea, M., & Presada, D. (2017). Students' perceptions of cheating and plagiarism: A case study In D. M. Velliaris (Ed.), *Handbook of research on academic misconduct in higher education* (pp. 267–284). Hershey: IGI Global. http://www.igi-global.com/chapter/students-perceptions-of-cheating-and-plagiarism/170100

Bailey, C., & Challen, R. (2015). Student perceptions of the value of Turnitin text-matching software as a learning tool. *Practitioner Research in Higher Education Journal, 9*(1), 38–51.

Barikmo, H. (2007). Perspectives on creole genesis and language acquisition. Teachers College, Columbia University working papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics, the 2007 APPLE award winning M.A. *Essay in Applied Linguistics, 7*(2), 1–25.

Bickerton, D. (1984). The language bioprogram hypothesis. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences, 7*, 173–221.

Bretag, T. (2013). Challenges in addressing plagiarism in education. *PLoS Medicine, 10*(12), e1001574. https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pmed.1001574.

Chanock, K. (2008). When students reference plagiarised material—What can we learn (and what can we do) about their understanding of attribution? *International Journal for Educational Integrity, 4*(1), 3–16.

Clarke, R. (2006). Plagiarism by academics: More complex than it seems. *Journal of the Association for Information Systems, 7*(2), 92–120.

Doró, K. (2014a). Why do students plagiarize? EFL undergraduates' views on the reasons behind plagiarism. *Romanian Journal of English Studies, 11*(1), 255–263.

Doró, K. (2014b). Students' perception of cheating and plagiarism: An exploratory study among Hungarian EFL undergraduates. In B. Fregan (Ed.), *Success and challenges in foreign language teaching* (pp. 43–47). Budapest: Nemzeti Közszolgálati Egyetem.

Doró, K. (2016). To see or not to see: Identifying and assessing plagiarism in non-native students' academic writing without using text-matching software. *EduLingua, 2*(1), 15–26.

Eckel, E. J. (2010). A reflection on plagiarism, patchwriting, and the engineering master's thesis. *Issues in Science and Technology Librarianship*. https://doi.org/10.5062/F4NC5Z42.

Foltýnek, T., & Glendinning, I. (2015). Impact of policies for plagiarism in higher education across Europe: Results of the project. *Acta Universitatis Agriculturae et Silviculturae Mendelianae Brunensis, 63*(1), 207–216.

Foltýnek, T., Kravjar, J., & Glendinning, I. (2014a). Case study: Policies, strategies and responses to plagiarism in Slovakia. *Journal on Efficiency and Responsibility in Education and Science, 7*(1), 19–25.

Foltýnek, T., Rubička, J., & Demoliou, C. (2014b). Do students think what teachers think about plagiarism? *International Journal for Educational Integrity, 10*(1), 21–30.

Glendinning, I. (2016). European perspectives of academic integrity. In T. Bretag (Ed.), *Handbook of academic integrity* (pp. 55–74). Singapore: Springer.

Gow, S. (2014). A cultural bridge for academic integrity? Mainland Chinese master's graduates of UK institutions returning to China. *International Journal for Educational Integrity, 10*(1), 70–83.

Graham-Matheson, L., & Starr, S. (2013). Is it cheating or learning the craft of writing? Using Turnitin to help students avoid plagiarism. *Research in Learning Technology, 21*, 17218.

Gullifer, J. M., & Tyson, G. A. (2014). Who has read the policy on plagiarism? Unpacking students' understanding of plagiarism. *Studies in Higher Education, 39*(7), 1202–1218.

Howard, R. M. (1993). A plagiarism pentimento. *Journal of Teaching Writing, 11*(3), 233–246.

Howard, R. M. (1999). *Standing in the shadow of giants: Plagiarists, authors, collaborators*. Stamford: Ablex Publishing.

Howard, R. M., Serviss, T., & Rodrigue, T. K. (2010). Writing from sources, writing from sentences. *Writing and Pedagogy, 2*(2), 177–192.

Jahic, A. (2011). An insight into textual borrowing practices of university-level students in Bosnia and Herzegovina. *Journal of Academic Writing, 1*(1), 173–179.

Keck, C. (2006). The use of paraphrase in summary writing: A comparison of L1 and L2 writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 15*, 261–278.

Kegl, J., & Iwata, G. (1989). Lenguaje de Signos Nicaragüense: A pidgin sheds light on the "creole?" ASL. In R. Carlson, S. DeLancey, S. Gildea, D. Payne, & A. Saxena (Eds.), *Proceedings of the fourth annual meeting of the Pacific linguistics conference* (pp. 266–294). Eugene: University of Oregon.

Li, Y., & Casanave, C. P. (2012). Two first-year students' strategies for writing from sources: Patchwriting or plagiarism? *Journal of Second Language Writing, 21*(2), 165–180.

Liao, M.-T., & Tseng, C.-Y. (2012). Students' behaviors and views of paraphrasing and inappropriate textual borrowing in an EFL academic setting. *Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics, 4*(2), 187–211.

McCabe, D. L. (2005). Cheating among college and university students: A North American perspective. *International Journal of Academic Integrity, 1*(1), 1–11.

Moore, E. (2014). Accuracy of referencing and patterns of plagiarism in electronically published theses. *International Journal for Educational Integrity, 10*(1), 42–55.

Mufwene, S. (1999). On the language bioprogram hypothesis: Notes form Tazmie. In M. DeGraff (Ed.), *Language creation and language change: Creolization, diachrony, and development* (pp. 95–127). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Pecorari, D. (2003). Good and original: Plagiarism and patchwriting in academic second-language writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*(4), 317–345.

Pecorari, D., & Petrić, B. (2014). Plagiarism in second-language writing. *Language Teaching, 47*(3), 269–302.

Petrić, B. (2015). What next for research on plagiarism? Continuing the dialogue. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 30*, 107–108.

Roig, M. (2001). Plagiarism and paraphrasing criteria of college and university professors. *Ethics and Behavior, 11*(3), 307–323.

Senghas, A. (1995a). Conventionalization in the first generation: A community acquires a language. *USD Journal of Contemporary Legal Issues, 6*, Spring.

Senghas, A. (1995b). The development of Nicaraguan sign language via the language acquisition process. In D. MacLaughlin & S. McEwen (Eds.), *BUCLD 19: Proceedings of the 19th annual Boston University conference on language development* (pp. 543–552). Boston: Cascadilla Press.

Senghas, A. (2000). The development of early spatial morphology in Nicaraguan sign language. In S. C. Howell, S. A. Fish, & T. Keith-Lucas (Eds.), *BUCLD 24: Proceedings of the 24th annual Boston University conference on language development* (pp. 696–707). Boston: Cascadilla Press.

Ting, S.-H., Musa, M. K., & Mah, F. S.-F. (2014). Plagiarism norms and practices in coursework assignments. *International Journal of Education, 6*(1), 73–89.

Ur, P. (1984). *Teaching listening comprehension*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Urbanovič, J., Vasiljevienė, N., Žalėnienė, I., & Gudelienė, N. (2015). *Research on academic integrity: The role of awareness of local environment in developing university anti-plagiarism strategy*. Plagiarism across Europe and beyond conference proceedings, 75–90. Available at: http://plagiarism.pefka.mendelu.cz/files/proceedings_15.pdf

Waye, L. (2010). *Learning how to work with instructors of international EAL graduate students to better support their students' development of academic writing skills*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Victoria, British Columbia: University of Victoria.

Peer Review and Journal Writing in the Eyes of First-Year Students of English Studies: A Writing Course at the University of Łódź

Ola Majchrzak and Łukasz Salski

Abstract The aim of this paper is to show the results of a questionnaire that was completed by 91 students of English studies enrolled in the first-year writing course at the Institute of English, University of Łódź, Poland. The questionnaire was designed to elicit information on students' opinions on three aspects of the course, namely forms of feedback on written work, peer review, and journal writing. These points were considered crucial for meeting the objectives of the course, so it was hoped that examining the students' opinions about these issues could provide valuable feedback on the new course.

Giving feedback and peer reviewing have been seen as closely related and involve such issues as the role of the tutor in evaluating students' work, cooperation with peers, and possible improvements in this area. The most common form of feedback about a paper was a conversation between the student and the teacher. However, the choice of the form of feedback was up to the teacher: It included either a talk with the teacher or the teacher's written commentary on the paper. Simultaneously, peer review as a technique used during classes was regarded as helpful by more than half of the students.

As far as journal writing is concerned, the students found keeping a journal to be a positive experience, saying that writing journal entries not only helped them improve their writing skills but also allowed them to "open up," learn how to express their own opinions, and even to relax. They suggested that journal entries be submitted online and checked by the tutors more frequently.

Keywords Academic writing · Peer review · Journal writing · Writing survey · EFL

O. Majchrzak (✉)
Department of Humanities, University of Humanities and Economics in Łódź, Łódź, Poland
e-mail: omajchrzak@ahe.lodz.pl

Ł. Salski
Department of English Language and Applied Linguistics, Institute of English Studies, University of Łódź, Łódź, Poland
e-mail: lukasz.salski@uni.lodz.pl

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_15

1 How It All Began

The first-year writing course in its present form was created following recommendations of Professor Melinda Reichelt of the University of Toledo after her stay in Łódź as a part of the Fulbright Senior Specialist program (see Reichelt 2013). The main aims of the course are twofold. The first important goal is to help students develop their general language competence and English writing skills, with a particular focus on preparing them for the demands of the academic readership. Additionally, but not less importantly, the course is intended to build up students' confidence in writing, as well as their positive attitude to writing in general. This appears particularly important in Poland, where high school students' writing experience is often limited, both in the second language and native language (Reichelt 2005, Salski 2016). Another important factor causing many students' negative attitudes to writing is that writing assignments are often perceived as a form of assessment rather than means of practicing writing skills or developing language competence. Currently the traditional approach still dominates writing instruction in Polish as a native language, and it is transferred to L2 writing practice. Among different languages taught in Poland, English may be an exception, as there are EFL teachers who have been exposed to alternative approaches to teaching writing when studying English themselves and who may apply elements of these writing pedagogies in their own classroom.

2 The First-Year Writing Course

The present first-year writing course that is the object of this study was created when four two-hour-per-week classes (in speaking, listening, reading, and writing) were replaced by a four-hour class of integrated skills. Soon, however, the faculty realized that the writing practice that the integrated skills course could provide was far from sufficient. It was decided that the new writing course should not revive the old syllabus and, instead of focusing solely on the required academic outcomes, it should reflect both the academic context in which the students are at the moment and the volume and quality of their high school writing experience (see Reid and Kroll 2006, p. 263).

Therefore, it was assumed that in the first semester students should work on creative writing assignments, such as a descriptive passage, a short story, and writing an autobiography. Simultaneously, time should be spent on practicing paragraph and essay structure, as well as on raising the students' awareness of audience expectations. It was decided that only in the second semester should the course focus on introducing students to the basics of academic writing by requiring them to write a research paper on a topic of their choice, the only requirement being that they can find appropriate sources to cite. Thus, the required skills are developed within a framework that draws on students' personalized interests, as the course follows

Silva's (2006) assertion that "it seems...most reasonable and motivating to have students (individually or as a group) choose their own topics, those in which they have a sincere interest and some intellectual or emotional investment" (p. 156). In this way, not only are the papers, as Silva further explains, "well-informed, skillfully crafted, very persuasive, and incredibly moving" (p. 156), but student writers also develop a sense of authorship more effectively. The final outcome at the end of the spring semester is a research paper of around 3000 words, but before students complete this assignment, they also do a range of exercises in summarizing, paraphrasing, using academic register, and using punctuation that enable them to make their first steps in academic writing and acquire skills that they will need to write their BA theses as well as semester papers throughout the whole BA program. Additionally, throughout both semesters students are requested to keep a writing journal in which they add a one- to two-page entry once a week on a topic of their choice or responding to suggestions provided. This is done with a view to developing fluency rather than accuracy in writing.

2.1 Focus on the Process

Since this course aims at raising students' awareness of the writing process in order to give them the knowledge and skills necessary to make the most of their writing processes in the future, class activities include brainstorming ideas, planning, multiple drafts, team-writing, and peer reviewing. For many of the first-year students, who are typically accustomed to being assigned papers that are then only graded, this may be the first experience of such activities. All of the sections of first-year writing are taught in a similar way, even though each year there are at least three instructors teaching the course. While on one hand the instructors are encouraged to maintain their individual teaching style, on the other hand they are also required to follow the general guidelines sketched out by Reichelt and to liaise closely to ensure consistent standards across the sections. For example, as each instructor stresses the importance of the process in writing, home assignments may involve not necessarily complete papers, but rather individual stages of the process, outlines, or drafts. All students do multiple drafts and regular in-class peer review sessions of the major assignments, which are description, narrative, and autobiography, and in the second semester the sections of the research paper are reviewed.

2.2 Peer Review

Peer reviewing was introduced as an integral element of the course because of its objectively unquestionable merits. As White (2007, p. 64–65) asserts, the main advantage of group cooperation in writing is that it widens the scope of the audience: Instead of writing to satisfy the teacher, students become aware of the fact that

different readers may have different expectations and preferences. Additionally, when students cooperate, they learn from each other as well as get to know each other, which seems a particularly relevant consideration in their first year of study.

There are, however, several difficulties connected with introducing peer reviewing. Students who are not accustomed to it, and additionally lack expertise in writing, may have difficulty accepting the role of a reviewer claiming that only the teacher should give feedback on students' papers, because only then the comments can be reliable or, as they frequently put it, professional. Another problem is that inexperienced student peer reviewers tend to give very general feedback, taking care not to offend the author. Of course, as a result, such feedback is useless, or nearly useless. It typically takes some time for Polish freshmen to take to peer reviewing, and instructors need to be both consistent and sensitive not to discourage students who need to be assured that, on the one hand, all readers are eligible to express their opinion on the texts they read and, on the other hand, each of them also is a writer who should have his or her criteria of what makes a good text. They should also obviously take advantage of listening to other writers' opinions. Novice writers—and reviewers—benefit from clear guidelines on which they can base their feedback. That is why in our course, peer-reviewing sessions are mostly based on specially designed evaluation sheets, where the students' task is to comment on various aspects of their peers' written works, as specified in the form. An example of a peer review sheet that has been used for evaluating narrative essays can be seen in Appendix 2.

2.3 Journals

Journal writing was introduced in the new first-year writing course as an element intended to help students develop their writing skills, fluency in particular, and enhance their positive writing experience. Following Grabe and Kaplan (1998, p. 295–296), we assumed that journals not only extend the volume of writing practice as another opportunity for students to write, but also allow students to write on topics that are of immediate interest to them and to voice their opinions on the this course or other classes and activities. Typically, students write a short entry in a specially prepared notebook once a week; an entry is usually one to two pages long and develops a topic of the student's own choice or one of the suggestions from a list provided by the instructor (Appendix 3). The journals are periodically collected and the instructors respond briefly to the content, but do not assess them formally, purposefully leaving possible errors uncorrected. While a student's systematic work on the journal influences his or her final overall grade for the semester, individual journal entries are neither marked nor graded. This approach is intended to encourage students to write meaningfully and freely, without being preoccupied with issues of grammatical accuracy, vocabulary choice, spelling, organization, or the visual aesthetics of their texts.

3 The Study

The present study is an action research project designed as partial evaluation of the writing program described in the sections above, with particular focus on the forms of feedback and the techniques of peer reviewing and journal writing. It is based on a questionnaire that was distributed to 91 first-year students of English Studies at the Institute of English, University of Łódź, who were participating in the first-year writing course during the winter semester of 2013–2014. All of the students were taught by either one of the present authors or by a Fulbright English Teaching Assistant, Megan. The main goal of the questionnaire was to collect information on students' perceptions of the new composition course, focusing specifically on the forms of feedback, peer review, and journal writing. It was assumed that the findings of the study would verify the validity of important elements of the first-year writing course and consequently contribute to improving it by adjusting it better to the students' needs and preferences.

The study was conducted by means of a questionnaire written in the Polish language. It was assumed that the use of students' mother tongue would eliminate the influence of possible differences in individual students' levels of proficiency in English and that it would trigger more natural and honest answers. However, an English translation of the questionnaire can be seen in Appendix 4. It is also worth adding that all of the values that appear in the tables in the analysis section were calculated only for those students who provided an answer to a given question. Hence, it does not always mean that 100% signifies the total number of students who participated in the questionnaire; instead, it refers to the total number of students who answered a given question.

3.1 Forms of Feedback

The first aspect the students were requested to comment on was the forms of feedback used throughout the whole course. The students were asked which form of feedback they preferred (they could choose between the teacher's written commentary on their work, conversation with the teacher about their work, or opinions of their classmates). Table 1 presents the data pertaining to this issue.

It is clearly visible that the most appreciated form of feedback on the students' work was an individual conversation with a student about their work: 42% of all the respondents provided this answer. Receiving a teacher's written commentary on the students' works was also popular: 31% of students chose this answer. Finally, 18% of students preferred a mixture of both a teacher's written commentary and conversation. It is, however, noticeable that none of the students preferred peer comment as a form of feedback. This is especially interesting when compared to the students' answers to Question 6 (see Peer Review section).

Table 1 The questionnaire results: Form of feedback

Form of feedback	Result
Teacher's written commentary on the work	31%
Conversation with a teacher about the work	42%
Teacher's written commentary and conversation	18%
All forms	9%

Table 2 The questionnaire results: The relationship between the form of feedback and the instructor

Form of feedback	Megan	Ola	Łukasz
Teacher's written commentary on the work	44%	17%	36%
Conversation with a teacher about the work	23%	69%	21%
Teacher's written commentary and conversation	23%	8%	29%
All forms	10%	6%	14%

We observed that the aforementioned results depended on the individual teacher to a great extent, as can be seen in Table 2.

In the case of both Megan and Łukasz's groups, the form of feedback most popular with the students was teacher's written commentary on their work. However, Ola's students appreciated conversation with her about their work most. To understand the differences in the students' answers, the way of providing feedback has to be explained. Both Łukasz and Megan focused on commenting on their students' work in writing. However, when distributing the graded work to their students, they also discussed the papers in further detail as necessary. Ola also always provided written commentary on the students' papers; however, she never returned the papers to the students during a regular class. Instead, she always organized a session during which she talked to every student about their work in five-minute individual conferences. Apparently, her students appreciated those oral comments more when compared to the groups taught by Megan and Łukasz.

3.2 Peer Review

Łukasz and Megan used peer review to practice constructive, objective criticism; Ola, on the other hand, approached peer review as a form of subjective reader response. As has been explained, the technique of peer review is not very popular in Poland, where it is still the teacher who, in the opinion of the students, possesses all the necessary knowledge to guide their writing process. This also refers to grading papers, a notion closely connected with the product approach to writing, also deeply

Table 3 The questionnaire results: The usefulness of peer comments

Were the comments useful?	Result
Yes	57%
No	25%
Not always	11%
A valuable experience	7%

rooted in the Polish educational tradition. It is generally assumed that whatever students write has to be graded; otherwise, it is not worth doing it. Nevertheless, as the new writing course aimed at fostering the process approach to writing and popularizing the technique of peer review, the questionnaire's goal was to check what the students' attitudes towards peer reviewing were. Table 3 shows the results for Question 6: How do you assess peer review? Were your classmates' comments useful for you? Why?

It is clearly visible from the table that, despite the above-mentioned attitude towards peer review, more than half of all the students appreciated their classmates' comments. The students very often observed that peers' comments allowed them to understand how their work was perceived by others, whether it was clear to readers, and which fragments needed developing. Although some claimed that the idea of peer review was a bit awkward, they usually admitted that it helped them to improve the final paper. Hence, it may be regarded as a positive result, which shows the changing attitude towards peer review among university students.

Nevertheless, in the view of the results from the previous section, it may be assumed that peer review, despite its growing popularity among students, is still not perceived as a form of providing feedback that is as reliable as teacher's comments. Many students remarked that peers' comments were not valuable to them as they thought their classmates did not possess adequate skills to be able to assess their paper in a reliable way. There was even one student who wrote that she would not use peer review in the future as "she [was] not competent enough to assess somebody else's work" (They also noticed that the comments were not always honest: Students very often did not want to offend their classmates by criticizing their work. Others complained about comments that were too general, which did not help them understand what needed improvement and why it needed it.

In order to improve the quality of peer review, the next question focused on the possible changes that could be introduced in the future, such as a different evaluation sheet and more or less time devoted to peer review. The students' suggestions are presented in Table 4 below.

Thirty-four per cent of all the students felt there was no need for any improvements in the peer review technique, while 28% of the respondents suggested introducing changes in the feedback sheet. Little is known, however, about which aspects of the sheet the students felt needed improvement. On the basis of the instructors' observations and the next suggestion, that more time should be devoted to peer review sessions, it can be hypothesized that the sheet was mostly too long and too detailed for the students. Some students felt they were unable to comment on their peer's work in the time allotted, which was usually 45 min. This leads to the ques-

Table 4 The questionnaire results: Suggested changes in the peer review technique

Changes in peer review	Result
No changes needed	34%
Changes in the feedback sheet	28%
More time devoted to peer review	22%
Better teacher control	3%
Less time devoted to peer review	3%
Other changes	10%

Table 5 The questionnaire results: Students' attitudes towards keeping a journal

Did you like keeping a journal?	Result
Yes	82%
No	10%
So-so	8%

tion of whether the time should be lengthened or the feedback sheet shortened. Other changes suggested by the students concerned such aspects as better teacher control over the process of peer review, oral instead of written peer review, anonymous peer review forms, or peer review done in small groups of students rather than in pairs.

3.3 Journals

The following table presents the results concerning students' attitudes towards keeping a journal (Table 5).

On the basis of the results presented, it can be concluded that students generally enjoyed keeping journals. As some of the students wrote, keeping a journal taught them to approach writing as something natural and easy. They noticed that writing regular entries helped them work on their language. But there was even a more important aspect to journal writing: The students reported that writing an entry gave them time to stop for a moment, collect their thoughts, and write them down. What is more, they saw the journal as a chance to open up and share their thoughts with their tutor, which they valued. Throughout the course, the instructors observed that students felt like real writers whose entries were appreciated by their reader—the instructor. One student admitted that although she was not keen on writing about personal things, writing the journal was a form of escape from usual tasks and the teacher's comments made her happy. Of importance is probably the fact that the entries were not corrected by the teachers, which helped the students feel that it was

Table 6 The questionnaire results: Suggested changes in keeping a journal

Changes in journals	Result
No improvement needed	39%
Online entries	27%
Topics	15%
More frequent check-ups	13%
Other changes	7%

content not form that was important, which may sometimes be forgotten in the process of preparing for various exams, such as the high school final exam. Hence, keeping a journal was considered a form of relaxation by some students.

When asked about possible improvements concerning journals, students provided the following answers (Table 6).

Many students (39%) felt that no changes were needed. One student observed that "it is not worth improving anything. A journal has to be personal. Its efficacy depends on whether the writer wants to keep it and how much he strives to do it well". Many students suggested that the entries should be submitted online, which would make the teacher-student communication faster, more frequent (as some students complained about the teacher's comments being too rare), and more up-to-date. One student noticed that "online entries would be an interesting modification because peers could also have access to their classmates' entries and possibly comment on them". Online entries, or even blogs, are a suggestion that is worth considering when modifying the course in the future. It was interesting that 15% of the students suggested that the topics should be modified. It is surprising, as the students were given a choice of two topics for every week with an option to write on any other topic if the two were not suitable in any way. Still, some of the students complained about the choice of topics. The instructors noticed that those entries that were written on very popular topics such as Christmas, Halloween, or my last holidays, were usually written in an uninteresting way, with a very basic choice of grammar structures and simplistic vocabulary. Hence, such clichéd topics should be avoided in the future. Other changes mentioned by the students included more frequent entries, or being given the possibility to improve the entries; there was also a suggestion made that entries could be made during classes.

4 Overall Suggestions and Improvements for the Future

The valuable feedback on the writing classes provided by the questionnaire findings has been or will be implemented in the subsequent editions of the course. First, there is a need for a balance of the forms of feedback used in the course. Written

comments on students' papers need to be supplemented with one-on-one conferences and, if possible, a combination of both forms needs to be used in order to provide the students with as clear feedback on their written performance as possible. It has to be remembered that while individual conferences take up a lot of class time, their indisputable advantage is that they create opportunities for students to ask for clarification or further explanation. Second, while it seems that Polish students of English respond reasonably well to peer reviewing, there is always room for improvement. Peer reviewing sessions can easily become repetitive and tedious, so more variety of peer-reviewing tasks and forms needs to be introduced. Also, it has to be remembered that novice writers—and reviewers—need clear and short instructions, possibly simple worksheets. Finally, journal writing has been received enthusiastically by nearly all students, who appreciate the freedom of expression and an opportunity to stop to reflect that it offers. However, it would be appreciated even more if its form was more of a conversational journal with more frequent responses from the instructors, which of course can be demanding on the part of the instructor with a large number of students. Writing journal entries online rather than in a paper notebook is another suggestion that may be considered in order to ease student-teacher exchange. Also, as some respondents suggested, a choice of more controversial or inspiring topics could stimulate students to write more effectively than the free topic option. Finally, asking students to put together a portfolio of all the papers written for the course may lead not only to more systematic and valid summative feedback, but also to giving them a better sense of progress and achievement during the course.

The course, however innovative in its initial form, was not free from flaws and continues to be improved. Because of its specific nature, it can only achieve its goals if it meets the students' needs, expectations, and interests. Only if the students' feedback is used to fine tune the content and form of the classes will it be possible to keep them motivated and interested, which in turn may allow building up their skills as well as enhancing their attitudes.

Appendices

Appendix 1

Writing and Text Analysis—Year One

Class Evaluation Survey The aim of this survey is to collect information on the writing class you have taken this semester. Your responses will remain anonymous and they may influence the shape of the course in the future, so please answer the questions honestly.

Instructor's Name:

……..…

1. What is your general opinion on the course? Did you learn much? Why?

……..…
……..…
……..……
……..

2. Were the genres practiced in class (description, narrative, autobiograpny) interesting for you? Why (not)?

……
……
……..……
……..

3. Would you prefer to have written more in class? If so, how? Individually, in pairs, in groups? Why?

……
……
……..……
……..

4. Did you receive valuable feedback from your classmates in the peer reviewing session? Did you use these comments when rewriting your papers?

……
……
……
……

5. Was commenting on your classmates' papers helpful to you? If so, how? If not, why not?

……
……
……
……

6. Do you feel that keeping the writing journal helped you develop linguistically? Did it help you improve your writing skills? If so, how? If not, why not?

……
……
……
……

7. Is there something that could have made this course fuller and more effective? What?

……
……
……
……

8. Overall, what did this course give you?

……
……
……
……

Thank you for your honest answers ☺

Appendix 2

PEER REVIEW FORM – **NARRATIVE**

AUTHOR: …….
REVIEWER: ……

Read the essay carefully and respond to the questions below. If you find glaring typos or errors, you can circle them, but your job is ***NOT*** *to grade or fix grammar errors – you are* ***reviewing*** *the writing and providing feedback on how to* ***revise****.*

1. Has the beginning of the story made you want to continue reading? YES/NO
   If so, what makes it so? If not, how could it be improved?

……
……
……..

2. Is your attention kept until the very last moment? YES/NO
   If so, what makes it so? If not, how could it be improved?

……
……
……..

3. Does the story develop in a logical way? YES/NO
   If so, explain how it works. If not, how could it be improved?

……..…
……..…
……..

4. Do the descriptive passages help the author to tell the story? YES/NO
   If so, explain how it works. If not, how could it be improved?

……
……
……..

5. Are you satisfied with how the characters are presented? YES/NO
   If so, explain why. If not, how could it be improved?

……
……
……..

6. As a reader, do you always find it easy to picture images, characters, situations? YES/NO
   If so, explain why. If not, how could it be improved?

……
……
……..

7. Dialogues

- Are the dialogues used in the story effective? YES/NO
- Are they presented in an appropriate way (e.g. punctuation)? YES/NO
- Has the author used a variety of verbs to introduce a quote? YES/NO

Specify what – concerning the dialogues – would need further improvement.

……
……
……..

8. What passage or area would benefit most from revision? You can mark it in the text. Provide the author with at least one suggestion that might help improve the piece.

……
……
……..

9. What is the most effective aspect of the paper? Why?

……
……
……..

Author's comments after editing the paper:
Which reviewer's comment proved most useful when editing your story? Why? Which fragment of your paper was moderated thanks to this comment? (mark it on the text)

……
……
……..

Appendix 3

University of Lodz, Institute of English Studies

ACADEMIC WRITING YEAR 1
Topics for journal entries

Week 1	Journals, diaries…
	What I expect from the composition classes
	Free topic
Week 2	Yes, I would do it once again
	I am new here
	Free topic
Week 3	What makes a good writer?
	"Who wants to live forever…"
	Free topic
Week 4	It changed my attitude to…
	… and lived happily ever after.
	Free topic
Week 5	Rain
	In my pocket…
	Free topic
Week 6	On my way to school
	Dreams
	Free topic
Week 7	Tomorrow, and tomorrow, and tomorrow (Shakespeare)
	Running
	Free topic
Week 8	Late in the evening…
	Travel… the perfect freedom
	Free topic
Week 9	"I do."
	It is still dark when I get up in the morning.
	Free topic
Week 10	I never thought of that!
	"Life is what happens when you plan to do other things" (Lennon)
	Free topic
Week 11	My pride and joy
	If only…
	Free topic
Week 12	What I need to concentrate on next semester
	What I would like to tell my teacher
	Free topic

References

Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R. B. (1998). *Theory and practice of writing*. Harlow: Addison Wesley Longman Ltd..

Reichelt, M. (2005). English-language writing instruction in Poland. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 14*, 215–232.

Reichelt, M. (2013). English-language writing instruction in Poland: Adapting to the local EFL context. In O. Majchrzak (Ed.), *PLEJ_2 czyli Psycholingwistyczne Eksploracje Językowe* (pp. 25–42). Łódź: Łódź University Press.

Reid, J., & Kroll, B. (2006). Designing and assessing effective classroom writing assignments for NES and ESL students. In P. K. Matsuda, M. Cox, J. Jordan, & C. OrtmeierHooper (Eds.), *Second-language writing in the composition classroom: A critical sourcebook* (pp. 260–281). Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's.

Salski, Ł. (2016). EFL writing in Poland, where traditional does not mean current, but current means traditional. In T. Silva, J. Wang, J. Paiz, & C. Zhang (Eds.), *Second language writing in the global context: Represented, underrepresented, and unrepresented voices*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Silva, T. (2006). On the ethical treatment of ESL writers. In P. K. Matsuda, M. Cox, J. Jordan, & C. Ortmeier-Hooper (Eds.), *Second-language writing in the composition classroom: A critical sourcebook* (pp. 154–158). Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's.

White, E. W. (2007). *Assigning, responding, evaluating: A writing Teacher's guide* (4th ed.). Boston: Bedford/St. Martin's.

An Analysis of Dissertation Abstracts Written by Non-native English Speakers at a Serbian University: Differences and Similarities Across Disciplines

Marina Katic and Jelisaveta Safranj

Abstract This paper deals with functional variation of language in the scientific context. The research was performed using a corpus of abstracts across various disciplines from the Digital library of the University of Novi Sad. The lengths, kinds, frequencies, and positions of moves applied in the selected abstracts were examined. Differences and similarities of moves between different scientific areas were identified and discussed. The employed methodology consisted of Hyland's (Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing. Longman, London, 2000) five-move model, including the move recognition criteria. Findings showed optional structures, which indicated differences among various disciplines. There were also some similarities, such as cycled patterns, that were influenced by Serbian cultural conventions. Examining the linguistic properties of dissertation abstracts can help teachers to improve their learning methods in English for specific purposes by extending the range of their pedagogical material in the domain of contemporary academic writing.

Keywords Dissertation abstracts · Moves · Different disciplines

1 Introduction

When completing their PhD dissertations, all candidates from the University of Novi Sad must write an abstract in both the English and Serbian languages. Since writing a PhD dissertation is done only once in one's whole life, it is a great challenge for any postgraduate student to prepare a well-structured abstract that can enable the reader to identify the basic content of a research work in order to determine its relevance for further reading. Having in mind the importance of English for scientific purposes, this paper focuses on dissertation abstracts written in English. For this purpose, there is a standard model for abstract creation that can be found in

M. Katic (✉) · J. Safranj
Faculty of Technical Sciences, University of Novi Sad, Novi Sad, Serbia
e-mail: mare@uns.ac.rs; savetas@uns.ac.rs

M. Chitez et al. (eds.), *University Writing in Central and Eastern Europe: Tradition, Transition, and Innovation*, Multilingual Education 29,
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-95198-0_16

the on-line guidelines in the Serbian language (Univerzitet u Beogradu 2014) that indicates that an abstract should be brief and generally state the principal objectives and scope of the investigation, including methods, results, and conclusions. It is assumed that all PhD candidates are familiar with its content since it is available online. The goal of this study is to examine dissertation abstracts across unrelated disciplines in an attempt to identify the similarities and differences between them regarding abstract rhetorical moves. Swales (2004) defined a *move* as "a discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse" (p. 228). A more detailed definition was made by Nwogu (1991) who apart from defining move as "a text segment made up of a bundle of linguistic features" introduced the term *submove*, "which combine to constituent information in the move" (p. 114).

Focusing on abstract moves, this paper aims to enrich the domain of academic writing, especially abstract writing for scientific purposes.

2 Move Structure Analysis

Owing to international recognition in the field of science and engineering, academic English has become important for both researchers and PhD candidates, either native or non-native speakers, whenever they wish to write a research article or dissertation and in order to keep abreast with the latest developments in their disciplines. Any scientific publication usually contains an abstract, which is a short review of the work at hand and which many famous linguists have tried to define. Bhatia (1993) explained that "an abstract, as commonly understood, is a description or factual summary of the much longer report, and is meant to give the reader an exact and concise knowledge of the full article" (p. 78). In spite of their traditional purpose to summarize research articles, abstracts have become crucial for readers in their decision process of reading the text further. In that sense, it is stated that "the abstract that accompanies research articles and dissertations is a notable practice in academic research as it constitutes a gateway to the reading or publication of a research article or a thesis" (Lores 2004, p. 281). Furthermore, it saves time by "informing the reader about the exact content of the article, indicating whether the full text merits their further attention" (Martin 2003, p. 26). Due to abundance of recent scientific publications in various domains, a good basis for linguistic investigation has been established to support further analysis from different points of view. Accordingly, it is not surprising that differences and similarities of abstracts across disciplines have attracted particular attention. Al-Ali and Sahawneh (2011, p. 9) gave a comprehensive review of researchers, emphasizing that Melander et al. (1997) detected different overall organization between linguistics and biology abstracts produced in the American context, while Stotesbury (2003) even revealed that the appearance of evaluation attributes in humanities and social science abstracts is twice as common as it is in natural sciences.

It is also worth mentioning that dissertation and research article abstracts are recognized as a genre by contemporary linguists. Indeed, Swales and Feak (2009) defined it as "a type of text or discourse designed to achieve a set of communicative purposes" (p. 1). A genre is mainly described in terms of its rhetorical structure, i.e., its constituent moves. In that sense, there have been several proposed models throughout the language history.

Genre analysis has been greatly influenced by John Swales's (1990; see also chapters, "Reader Versus Writer Responsibility Revisited: A Polish-Russian Contrastive Approach", "Research Articles as a Means of Communicating Science: Polish and Global Conventions" and Individual Differences and "Micro-Argumentative Writing Skills in EFL: An Exploratory Study at a Hungarian University") Creating a Research Space (CARS) model for research article introductions, which consists of the following three moves, each one including the following steps:

Move 1: Establishing a territory: Claiming centrality, making topic generalization, reviewing items of previous literature
Move 2: Creating a niche: Counter-claiming, indicating a gap, question raising, continuing a tradition
Move 3: Occupying the niche: Outlining purpose or announcing present research, announcing principle findings, indicating RA structure (p. 141)

In general, this model was created to present the current situation in a particular scientific discipline, indicate a problem, and give a solution.

The most-cited model is Bhatia's (1993, p. 78), a four-move model, in which an abstract gives information on four aspects of the research article it is describing: (1). what the author did, (2). how the author did it, (3). what the author found, and (4). what the author concluded. The following moves are included:

1. Introducing the purpose
2. Describing the methodology
3. Summarizing the results
4. Presenting the conclusions

On the other hand, "some researchers found that Swales and Bhatia's models did not contain all the component moves found in the data analyzed" (Al-Ali and Sahawneh 2011, p. 13) in that numerous texts were found to include some additional component moves that have not been identified by the above-mentioned models.

Subsequently, a more extended model appeared: Hyland's (2000) model of research article abstracts, which includes five moves: introduction, purpose, method, product, and conclusion (p. 6), referred to here as M1, M2, M3, M4, and M5.

The functions of the moves and their constituent steps are precisely presented by Li (as cited in Saboori and Hashemi 2013, p. 486):

1. **Introduction** (Establishes the context of the paper and motivates the research.)

Step 1. Arguing for topic prominence
Step 2. Making topic generalizations

Step 3. Defining terms, objects, or processes
Step 4. Identifying a gap in current knowledge

2. **Purpose** (Indicates purpose, thesis, or hypothesis and outlines the intention behind the paper.)

Step 1. Stating the purpose directly

3. **Method** (Provides information on design, procedures, assumptions, approach, data, etc.)

Step 1. Describing the participants
Step 2. Describing the instruments or equipment
Step 3. Describing the procedure and conditions

4. **Product** (States main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished.)

Step 1. Describing the main features or properties of the solution or product

5. **Conclusion** (Interprets or extends results beyond the scope of the paper, draws inferences, and points to applications or wider applications.)

Step 1. Deducing conclusions from results
Step 2. Evaluating value of the research
Step 3. Presenting recommendations

In addition, Li stressed that contrary to the Bathia's model, this new framework for abstracts distinguishes its purpose from the introduction, because it has a different role from the typical aim of introduction, which is to provide a justification for the research. Consequently, the purpose move is created to indicate the purpose, thesis, or hypothesis, which is the main argument of a dissertation. Furthermore, in this framework a product move is adopted instead of the result move, taking into account Hyland's (2000) explanation that this move can better account for abstracts from social science fields, sometimes including not only a statement of empirical results but also a statement of the argument (Saboori and Hashemi 2013, p. 486). Among other things, this is why the authors considered it relevant for this study.

3 Research Methodology

The corpus of this study consisted of 12 dissertation abstracts, covering different scientific fields, randomly retrieved from the Digital Library of the University of Novi Sad. Indeed, it is the current practice of our university to keep and display scientific contributions in electronic form. As a result, all the dissertations used for abstract selections were available as public theses (in Serbian: *Doktorske disertacije stavljene na uvid javnosti*) from 29 December 2013 to 28 January 2014, meaning that all abstracts were available online for a period of 1 month. After collecting the entire corpus, the abstract from each text from the related discipline was assigned a

UNS Digital library identification number and the word count of each abstract was done by computer. The procedure of the research methodology consisted of Hyland's (2000) five-move model for studying structures and functions of abstracts. It also included key steps in developing the move recognition criteria, which are usually considered unavoidable in this type of research. In other words, during the rhetorical move analysis, we noticed that the majority of abstract moves were represented either by one sentence or more, while in particular cases, two or more moves were simultaneously embedded in one sentence. Being aware that identifying move borders is a difficult task to accomplish, the authors decided to follow two criteria. The first, or formal linguistic criterion, was based on separation of the abstract content into individual sentences, and the second was based on Ackland's (2009) "top-down" and "bottom-up" approach. In order to avoid subjectivity in the analysis, the move recognition and the setting of move borders were done by two raters (a PhD researcher from the Faculty of Philosophy at Novi Sad and a PhD researcher from the Faculty of Technical Sciences at Novi Sad) and the authors themselves. In this respect, all arising disagreements during the annotation process were solved through fruitful discussions until reaching mutual consent. In addition, for the purpose of this analysis, the authors prepared a table with nine columns representing disciplines as recognized by the University of Novi Sad, including ID number of the abstract, the total number of words, individual inclusion or omission of a move, and an indicator for the position of each move. In addition, the authors used Kanoksilapatham's (2005) criteria for justifying and classifying the frequency of each move. In this respect, a move is regarded as "obligatory," if it occurs in 100% of abstracts, "optional" if the occurrence of a move is below 60%, and "conventional" if the occurrence ranges from 60 to 99%.

4 Data Analysis

In order to identify moves, the authors adapted a framework for data analysis based on the assumption that each move may consist of either one or more sentences or at least a clause or phrase. In other words, each sentence of an abstract can be assigned to one move, but frequently a longer sentence can be marked as two different moves or entities. This practically means that from the aspect of move structure, one or several sentences can produce an independent move, while on the other hand, a longer sentence can produce several embedded moves composed of either clauses or phrases. However, the authors gave advantage not to structural or grammatical characteristics but to the semantic property of each move, due to its importance for the interpretation of the whole abstract. Indeed, the idea was to analyze all moves on equal footing, regardless of their form. Therefore, in this analysis both *independent moves* and *embedded moves* are treated equally, as if they belong to the same grammatical category. In this respect, the authors divided the 12 academic abstracts from different disciplines into two sections:

Table 1 Move recognition and setting of move borders according to Hyland's (2000) model in Sect. 1

Discipline	Sentence containing independent move	Moves according to Hyland's (2000) model	Procedure 1 move-recognition criteria	Procedure 2 move-recognition criteria
Automation and control systems	*The thesis is dedicated to* development of the approach capable of providing timely and reliable information on technological parameters that represent important indicators of cement production process performance.	M1	Formal linguistic criterion	Bottom-up approach
Technological engineering	For these reasons, *the task of* this PhD thesis was to determine the impact of an integrated three most important seed quality factors in the overall quality of the produced cold-pressed sunflower oil.	M2	Formal linguistic criterion	Bottom-up approach

- Abstracts containing moves represented by one or more sentences: Sect. 1 (independent moves)
- Abstracts with longer sentences in which two or more moves have simultaneously been embedded: Sect. 2 (embedded moves)

Abstracts composed of both types of sentences were similarly evaluated, i.e., using the same criteria, depending on sentence structure and content. The first step (Procedure 1) in analyzing Sect. 1 was to separate the full text of abstracts into sentences. The second step (Procedure 2) was to perform the move recognition and the setting of move borders based on linguistic signals using the bottom-up approach (Ackland 2009). The examples in Table 1 illustrate Procedure 2, regarded as relevant for the move-recognition process. In this respect, phraseology such as "the thesis is dedicated to" and "the task of" was of great help to identify the move according to Hyland's (2000) model.

On the other hand, special attention was paid to abstracts containing sentences in which two or more moves have simultaneously been embedded, i.e., Sect. 2, presented in Table 1. In the first example, the bottom-up approach was applied, since the linguistic signal "with the aim to" was recognized. In the second example, in the absence of linguistic signals, a semantic criterion based on the content of the abstract was used through the top-down approach (Ackland 2009).

Having analyzed examples from Table 2 the authors realized that in both cases there was a need to separate a relatively "lengthy" sentence structure into smaller units in order to determine different moves. This was in congruence with Samraj's (2005) assertion that "a sentence may sometimes be a realization of more than one move" (p. 146) as well as Santos' (1996) reference to embedded moves as "a hybrid

Table 2 Move recognition and setting of move borders according to Hyland's (2000) model

Discipline	One sentence with more than one move	Moves according to Hyland's (2000) model	Procedure 2 move-recognition criteria
Biotechnical sciences	Bio-pomological properties of highbush blueberry cultivars grown under the agro-environmental conditions of Western Serbia over 2008–2010 were examined *with the aim to* recommend them for introducing into production.	M1 and M2	Bottom-up approach
Electrical engineering	Procedure of controllers development was presented through development and testing of one new control algorithm for connecting the permanent magnet synchronous generator to the electrical grid.	M3 and M2	Semantic criterion/ Top-down approach

move" (p. 492). Indeed, both examples contain merging of moves associated with different sentence functions. The first example demonstrates blending of M1 and M2 (introducing the context of the dissertation together with its purpose), while the second one illustrates blending of M3 and M2 (explaining methodology and indicating purpose, including move reversal). However, in these particular cases, the problem arose in regard to setting of move borders, because it was difficult to categorize each move. Relying on both Samraj's (2005) and Santos's (1996) remarks, the authors agreed to categorize an embedded move as inclusion of a move through embedding, aiming to indicate that such a move, being a part of the "hybrid move," should be treated on an equal footing with an independent move. For practical purposes, both embedded moves were recognized as entities due to the importance of their semantic properties.

By defining the framework of the data analysis, the authors provided a firm basis for further investigation in regard to rhetorical move-structure analysis. Next, the abstract moves were analyzed according to the proportion of each individual move inclusion across disciplines and adherence of each individual discipline to Hyland's (2000) five-move model norm.

5 Results and Discussion

Over the last two decades, the writing of doctoral theses has attracted the growing attention of numerous linguists (Dudley-Evans 1999; Cooley and Lewkowicz 2003; Paltridge and Starfield 2007; Bitchener 2010; Al-Ali and Sahawneh 2011), who have tried to explain how language is used in such a specific context. Most of them have recognized the linguistic demands for widening knowledge in rhetorical characteristics and typical text features of dissertation abstract moves, hoping that their research implications could be of great help to PhD candidates when expressing their innovative ideas in such a condensed form.

The increasing importance of abstracts in academia motivated the authors to explore the lengths, kinds, frequencies, and positions of the moves in the selected abstracts across disciplines. Accordingly, the corpus of the analysis included a variety of scientific disciplines: mathematics, music theory, medicine, automation and control systems, electrical engineering, biotechnical sciences, geography, technological engineering, history, biotechnology, food biotechnology science, and geodesy.

The authors decided to follow Hyland's (2000) five-move model in their analysis due to its comprehensiveness. In addition, the authors noticed that this model was supported by the guidelines for writing abstracts (in Serbian: *Uputstvo za izradu doktorskih disertacija*) available online from their university. In this respect, a rhetorical move structure analysis was conducted in order to identify the variations of dissertation abstracts in terms of move structure presence or absence across 12 disciplines. Table 3 shows the lengths of the abstracts and the kinds and frequencies of moves in each of the disciplines, including their position, based on Hyland's (2000) move structure model. As presented, the lengths of the dissertation abstracts ranged from 50 to 595 words.

The five detected moves were introduction, purpose, method, product, and conclusion. It is worth mentioning that most of the moves in the present corpus were explicitly announced by certain lexical signals. In that sense, lexical expressions such as "in this doctoral thesis" or "the thesis is dedicated to" are used as a clue to signal the introduction move. Likewise, "the aim" or "objective of this thesis" indicated the move of purpose, whereas "using this method" or "the methodology presented" marked the move of illustrating methodology. Lexical phrases such as "the results show" or "indicate" suggested the results move. Furthermore, the move of expressing conclusions was usually announced by "it can be concluded."

The introduction move was present in all 12 (100%) of the examined dissertation abstracts (see Fig. 1a), thus it can be considered an obligatory move. We surmised that the majority of the PhD candidates from the University of Novi Sad, being non-native English speakers, followed the practice of traditional academic writing in the Serbian language, which insists on the obligatory status of this move due to its purpose in justifying the study and determining the appropriate context, which avoids wider promotion of the research work. In other words, the Serbian cultural norms significantly influenced the way these dissertation abstracts were composed, as they advocate a roundabout way of expressing innovative ideas. It is apparent that most of these dissertation writers represented current knowledge and provided detailed information of previous research. By respecting these move requirements, they expected to arouse sufficient interest in the matter, but they neglected other moves. It is interesting to note that this move appeared as a starting point in 10 instances out of 12. The findings revealed that there were two instances of move embedding, where the purpose move preceded introduction move and five instances of move embedding (M1-M2) with standard move order, which will be discussed in detail below.

The purpose move, intended to present the goals of the study, is considered to be an essential component of experimental-empirical scientific papers (Endres-Niggemeyer 1998, p. 107). In most of the abstracts examined that were from these disciplines, it followed the introduction move, but in some instances, such as in the history discipline, it opened the abstract in order to describe the key features of the

Table 3 Move analysis based on Hyland's (2000) five-move model

Discipline & Abstract Code	Abstract length/Total number of words	Move 1 Introduction/ Inclusion or omission of Move 1	Move 2 Purpose Inclusion or omission of Move 2	Move 3 Methodology Inclusion or omission of Move 3	Move 4 Product Inclusion or omission of Move 4	Move 5 Conclusion Inclusion or omission of Move 5	Position of moves Hyland's move order or significant reordering of moves
Mathematics pdf&id = 1029	297	Inclusion	Inclusion	Inclusion	Inclusion	Inclusion	Hyland's move order
Music theory pdf&id = 1014	226	Inclusion through embedding (through Move 2)	Inclusion	Omission	Omission	Inclusion	Significant reordering of moves
Automation and control systems pdf&id = 2141	50	Inclusion	Inclusion through embedding (through Move 1)	Omission	Omission	Omission	Hyland's move order
Medicine pdf&id = 1005	326	Inclusion	Inclusion through embedding (through Move 1)	Inclusion	Inclusion	Inclusion	Significant reordering of moves
Electrical engineering pdf&id = 947	94	Inclusion	Inclusion through embedding (through Move 3)	Inclusion	Omission	Omission	Significant reordering of moves
Biotechnical sciences pdf&id = 977	224	Inclusion	Inclusion through embedding (through Move 1)	Omission	Omission	Inclusion	Significant reordering of moves

(continued)

Table 3 (continued)

Discipline & Abstract Code	Abstract length/Total number of words	Move 1 Introduction/ Inclusion or omission of Move 1	Move 2 Purpose Inclusion or omission of Move 2	Move 3 Methodology Inclusion or omission of Move 3	Move 4 Product Inclusion or omission of Move 4	Move 5 Conclusion Inclusion or omission of Move 5	Position of moves Hyland's move order or significant reordering of moves
Geography pdf&id = 990	237	Inclusion	Inclusion through embedding (through Move 1)	Omission	Omission	Inclusion	Hyland's move order
Technological engineering pdf&id = 3156	341	Inclusion	Inclusion	Inclusion	Inclusion	Inclusion	Significant reordering of moves
History pdf&id = 939	137	Inclusion	Inclusion	Omission	Omission	Inclusion	Significant reordering of moves
Biotechnology pdf&id = 938	406	Inclusion	Inclusion through embedding (through Move 1)	Inclusion	Inclusion through embedding (through Move 3)	Inclusion	Significant reordering of moves
Food biotechnology science pdf&id = 960	595	Inclusion through embedding (through Move 2)	Inclusion	Inclusion	Inclusion	Inclusion	Hyland's move order
Geodesy pdf&id = 2359	136	Inclusion	Inclusion	Omission	Omission	Omission	Hyland's move order

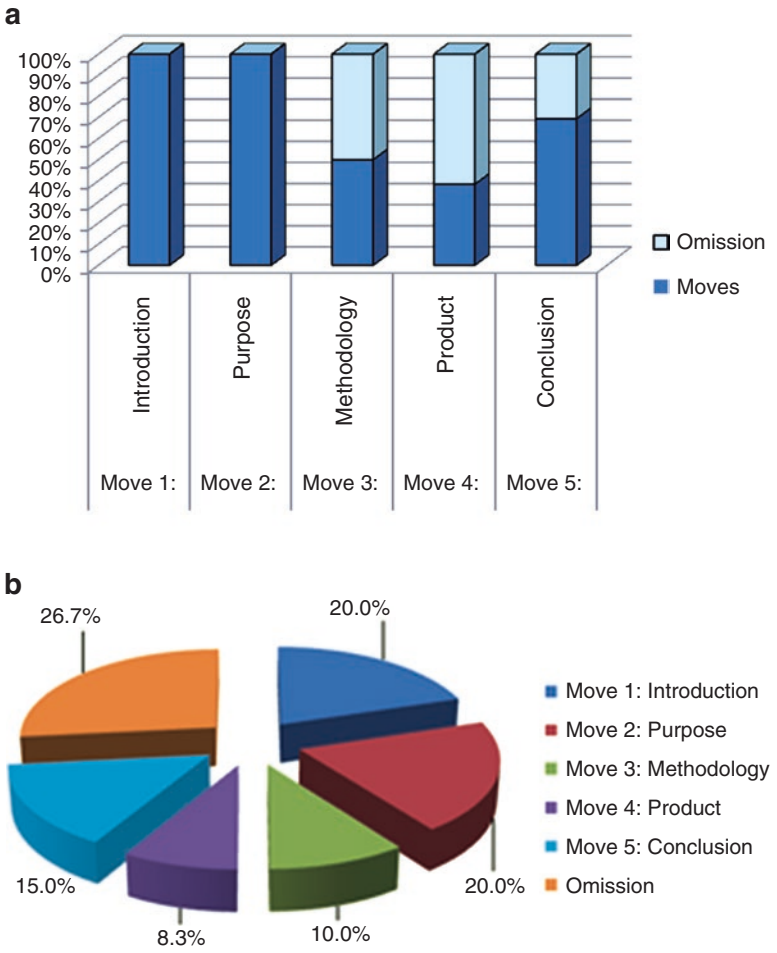

Fig. 1 (**a**) Frequency of moves according to Kanoksilapatham's (2005) criteria, (**b**) Frequency of the inclusions/omissions of moves across disciplines

research, pointing to the fact that it is of great importance for the whole content of the abstract. However, from a structural point of view, this move did not appear as an independent move in most disciplines but was combined with other moves. Consider the example below taken from the music theory discipline, where Move 1 also came after Move 2, confirming the previous observation regarding its tendency to be placed in front of the introduction move:

> The aim of this thesis is to use the theory of musical gesture—the sonatas as a representative sample in which the basis for creating musical gesture meaning, generator of compositional form and structure, but also a determining factor of analysis that provides understanding of style and stylistic change—to confirm the use of musical gesture as an element of narratology of musical flow in the music by Prokofiev. (Univerzitet u Novom Sadu 2014)

This illustration reveals a linguistic phenomenon—move embedding—that has been a matter of debate among many famous linguists (Bhatia 1993; Santos 1996; Swales 2004; Pho 2008) since the second half of the twentieth century and was performed in an attempt to shorten the abstract, i.e., summarize what the dissertation thesis is about and what the writer's intention is. There were 7 such cases of move embedding, i.e., hybrid moves, reflecting a combination of M1 and M2, in the corpus of 12 abstracts, indicating that Serbian dissertation writers prefer merging this move with the introduction move rather than structuring it as an independent move. Further, an anomaly in M2 was detected in the corpus of the study regarding the reversed sequence of moves. Although the whole content of M2 was expected to be placed after the introduction move, in the biotechnical sciences discipline, it was suddenly divided into two separate parts. The first part of the content logically followed the introduction move, while the additional content of this move occupied the position after the methodology move, slightly decreasing reading comprehension.

On the contrary, the disciplines presented above showed variations in the use of the methodology move, which involves the description of the procedure or method. The writers in music theory, automation and control systems, biotechnical sciences, geography, history, and geodesy did not include it in the move structure, while the writers in other six disciplines insisted on this move, taking into account that it is rather important for achieving the goals of dissertation. Consider the following illustrative example of this move inclusion, signaled by "…method was introduced," found in the discipline of mathematics:

> The wave front tracking method was introduced in the fourth chapter. It was shown that, using this method, for sufficiently small initial conditions, it could be obtained a unique solution with bounded total variation for $t \geq 0$. (Univerzitet u Novom Sadu, 2014)

Some methodology moves in this corpus, however, had to be identified by the top-down approach, which leads us to conclude that Serbian dissertation writers preferred describing methodology in their own words rather than using lexical signals for this move, as shown in the example taken from the discipline of food biotechnology science:

> The influence of the content of impurities is determined by pressing the starting material in which was not any impurities present, as well as materials in which the content of impurities was 5 and 10%. The influence of the shell content was investigated by pressing the starting material, without shell, that is the core, and the core with 16 and 32% of sunflower seed husks. (Univerzitet u Novom Sadu, 2014)

In addition, there was a low incidence of move embedding. Indeed, in the electrical engineering discipline, this move was merged with purpose move, while in the biotechnology discipline, the methodology move was combined with the product move, pointing out that both the purpose move and the product move were closely related to writer's experimental process. Briefly, on the basis of this analysis, Move 3, which actually indicates the procedure, analytical tools, and variables, i.e., the essential elements for regulating a related discipline, was not employed in 50% of the examined abstracts, indicating that it can be considered optional (see Fig. 1a). In other words, the Serbian dissertation writers probably assumed that the readers have

already gained background knowledge regarding the methodology performed, avoiding a detailed explanation of the procedure.

Surprisingly, the product move, designed to summarize the results, was not present in seven disciplines out of 12, although it is considered to be the most important one. The findings demonstrated a decreasing rate of interpreting results. Practically, this move was only included in mathematics, medicine, technological engineering, biotechnology, and food biotechnology. Indeed, based on this analysis, only 42% of the corpus included Move 4 (see Fig. 1a), suggesting that it was an optional move. It seems that Serbian dissertation writers are reluctant to share valuable information and knowledge with scientific community on a global level.

The conclusion move, in which a writer makes his/her final judgments about the thesis importance, is omitted in automation and control systems, electrical engineering, and geodesy. In most cases it was signaled either by "in this way" or "it is concluded," suggesting that writers tend to objectively report their findings. However, in some instances this move was recognized by the top-down approach due to absence of lexical clues, which might be ascribed to the lack of language skills. The results indicate that this move can be regarded as a compulsory move, since it was included in 75% of the cases from the corpus, as shown in Fig. 1a.

Concerning the position of moves, it is worth mentioning that seven (music theory, medicine, biotechnical sciences, electrical engineering, technological engineering, history, and biotechnology) out of 12 abstracts have significant reordering of moves, as indicated in Table 3. In other words, findings do not reveal that Serbian PhD candidates have a positive attitude towards this norm. This may be linked with their wish to reflect and promote a summary of dissertation content in their own authentic way. However, they have forgotten that prescribed language conventions could have enabled better reading comprehension, taking into account that accompanying English abstracts are used to show disciplinary research to a wider readership.

There is no doubt that length of the abstract affected the inclusion or omission of moves, which can primarily be seen in the discipline of automation and control systems (50 words), composed of only two moves instead of five. On the contrary, abstracts with considerably greater number of words, such as those from the discipline of medicine (326 words) or biotechnology (406 words), included all five moves. Further, assuming that there is a relation between the length and the persuasive quality of an abstract, which actually means that an abstract should not only be well formed but also short enough to attract and keep the reader's attention, the authors consider that only a small number of Serbian writers succeeded in fulfilling these requirements due to their reluctance to obey norms.

The results from the analysis of the frequency of the inclusions and omissions of moves across disciplines (see Fig. 1b) showed that the most employed moves were the introduction move (20.0%) and the purpose move (20.0%), while the least included one was the product move (8.3%), despite its relevance for scientific community. In addition, it was found that the methodology move (10.0%) and the conclusion move (15.0%) were moderately employed. This indicates that these moves, although not completely ignored, should be more widely used. On the other hand, considerable omissions of moves (26.7%) across disciplines were a matter of concern.

6 Focusing on Differences and Similarities

Considering the 12 disciplines together, the introduction move and purpose move were found to be the only obligatory moves that these disciplines share; the methodology move and conclusion move showed considerable variations, while the most omitted move across unrelated disciplines was the product move. This might be attributed to the previous long-term isolation of Serbia in all spheres of life, especially scientific research. In general, the authors attempted to reveal the distinctive features of abstract sections across disciplines according to Hyland's (2000) five-move model norm. Hence, the aim of this analysis was not only to point out significant differences among disciplines but also to demonstrate similar rhetorical structures through the phenomenon of cycling, i.e., reoccurrence of moves.

In this respect, the most preferred cycle was a M1-M2, following the traditional Serbian abstract-writing practice, while the second cycled one was M1-M2-M5, slightly extended. In this way, the most important similarities were revealed. This research also disclosed the considerable use of move embedding, i.e., hybrid moves. Out of the 12 disciplines, hybrid moves were noticed in nine instances, suggesting the strong preference of dissertation writers to merge moves, i.e., to combine two moves in one sentence in order to make the abstract more condensed. However, it is necessary to point out that move embedding and cycling were closely related in some instances from the corpus. Indeed, move cycling mostly occurred in an M1-M2 sequence as a consequence of frequently embedded moves (introduction and purpose moves), bearing in mind that it was found in the abstract structure of seven disciplines. On the other hand, the analysis showed that the most striking difference among disciplines lay in the occurrence of the product move. Although it is not common for disciplines in the field of natural sciences and humanities to avoid highlighting the results by using evaluative terms, M4 was the least frequent move in the corpus. The methodology move showed considerable variations, occurring in 50% of the examined abstracts (mathematics, medicine, electrical engineering, technological engineering, biotechnology, and food biotechnology science), which indicates that it is considered either relevant or peripheral, depending on writer's preference. However, Nwogu's (1997) move classification suggests that both M3 and M4 are to be called "normally required moves" as opposed to "optional" moves (p. 124). In other words, employing the introduction, purpose (considered obligatory), and conclusion (considered compulsory) moves without explaining the experimental process and revealing the results can somehow show that the writers are uncertain about the importance of their contribution, raising doubts about the quality and value of the whole thesis.

As already stated, there are strict norms concerning abstract writing, including among other things a clear plan in order to convey the full content of the writer's thesis. However, the findings reveal some surprising facts. Only PhD candidates in mathematics, medicine, biotechnology, and food biotechnology science relied on the strict move structure norm (introduction, purpose, method, product, and conclusion) that was available online, as opposed to other disciplines (music theory, automation and control systems, electrical engineering, biotechnical sciences, geography,

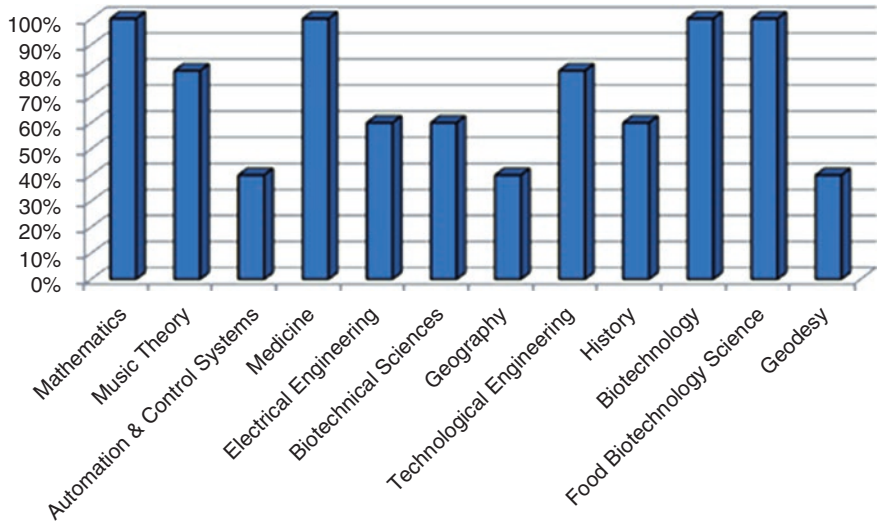

Fig. 2 Adherence of dissertation abstracts from unrelated disciplines to Hyland's (2000) move structure model

technological engineering, history, and geodesy), which failed to do so, neglecting some of the important moves. Shown in Fig. 2 are the different adherences to Hyland's (2000) move structure model: Not all moves were present in all the abstracts across disciplines. Although, it is difficult to determine the reasons that some moves were included while others were omitted, the authors aimed at finding the explanation in the profound disciplinary differences.

In the field of mathematics (100%), strict adherence to the abstract writing pattern might be attributed to the writer's way of thinking and reasoning in general, in that the goal of mathematics, as a branch of natural sciences, is to search out patterns to formulate new assumptions and provide order in nature. The authors posit that this is why the dissertation writer of this discipline respected the pattern and order in abstract writing. On the other hand, music theory is a discipline associated with creative thinking that involves hypothetical speculation about composing throughout the history of music. Accordingly, the lower frequency of move employment (80%) may be the result of the writer in this field avoiding using norms when writing the abstract for her thesis and seeking originality. However, there is no logical explanation for PhD candidates of other disciplines, particularly automation and control systems, geography, and geodesy, giving themselves the freedom to be remarkably distant from the established pattern for writing abstracts (see Fig. 2), since their related scientific fields are also based on natural sciences.

Taking into account Hyland's (2000) statement that an abstract is "critical to disciplinary knowledge-making and therefore to the work of academics" (p. 63), the "disobedient" dissertation writers should change their abstract writing practice considerably in order to indicate the expertise and correctness of their research. This is particularly important considering the great amount of endeavor and enthusiasm they put into writing their dissertations.

7 Conclusion

Having analyzed some dissertation abstracts across disciplines at the University of Novi Sad Digital Library in January 2014, the authors concluded that writing of dissertation abstracts depends more or less on the writer's own options, i.e., their preferences for which moves to include. The findings showed some similarities, expressed in the form of the M1-M2 cycle, based on Serbian cultural conventions, including the second-most preferred sequence, M1-M2-M5, which is a bit more modern. On the other hand, the most noticeable difference among disciplines was in the occurrence of the product move, while the most obvious variation was in the use of the method move. This points to the fact that Serbian academia failed to incorporate appropriate academic writing courses for postgraduate students across disciplines, which unfortunately resulted in variety of levels of adherence to the prescribed writing norm for abstracts. Although these differences and variations may be linked to explainable reasons, such as cultural conventions, the previous political isolation of Serbia, and even profound disciplinary differences, postgraduate students from the University of Novi Sad need help in realizing the importance of applying Hyland's (2000) five-move structure in their abstract writing. This model contains the most important information that should be placed at the potential readers' disposal. In other words, it is unacceptable to publish abstracts lacking important moves such as the product and the method. To achieve this goal, PhD candidates should be instructed on the conventional rhetorical structure of abstracts, helping them recognize the particular properties of the moves and their purposes, thereby revealing the mechanism that controls this specific genre and helping students efficiently adopt it. In this respect, the findings and their implications obtained on the basis of this relatively brief analysis may be used for further development of pedagogical activities in the field of academic abstract-writing practice. For instance, some future actions of the University of Novi Sad should involve organizing ESP courses and preparing specific instructions on language use in this demanding scientific discourse for particular fields of research. Indeed, the authors believe that Serbian postgraduate students will enjoy full international recognition in their related disciplines if they are given the opportunities to learn more about the rhetorical structure of dissertation abstracts and their important linguistic features.

References

Ackland, G. M. (2009). *A discourse analysis of English and French research article abstracts in linguistics and economics*. San Diego: Montezuma Publishing.

Al-Ali, M., & Sahawneh, Y. (2011). Rhetorical and textual Organization of English and Arabic PhD dissertation abstracts in linguistics. *SKY Journal of Linguistics, 24*, 7–39. Retrieved from http://www.linguistics.fi/julkaisut/SKY2011/SKYJoL2011_netti.pdf

Bhatia, V. K. (1993). *Analyzing genre: Language use in professional setting*. London: Longman.

Bitchener, J. (2010). *Writing an applied linguistics thesis or dissertation: A guide to presenting empirical research*. New York: Palgrave & Macmillan.

Cooley, L., & Lewkowicz, J. (2003). *Dissertation writing in practice: Turning ideas into text*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.

Dudley-Evans, T. (1999). The dissertation: A case of neglect? In P. Thompson (Ed.), *Issues in EAP writing research and instruction* (pp. 28–36). Reading: Centre for Applied Language Studies, University of Reading.

Endres-Niggemeyer, B. (1998). *Summarizing information: Including CD-rom "SimSum" simulation of summarizing, for Macintosh and windows*. Berlin: Springer.

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

Kanoksilapatham, B. (2005). Rhetorical structure of biochemistry research articles. *English for Specific Purposes, 24*(3), 269–292. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2004.08.003.

Lores, R. (2004). On RA abstracts: From rhetorical structure to thematic organization. *English for Specific Purposes, 23*(3), 280–302. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2003.06.001.

Li, Y. (2011). *A genre analysis of English and Chinese research article abstracts in linguistics and chemistry*. Approved master's thesis, San Diego State University, CA.

Martin, M. P. (2003). A genre analysis of English and Spanish research paper abstracts in experimental social sciences. *English for Specific Purposes, 22*(1), 25–43. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(01)00033-3.

Melander, B., Swales, J. M., & Fredrickson, K. M. (1997). Journal abstracts from three academic fields in the United States and Sweden: National or disciplinary proclivities? In A. Duszak (Ed.), *Cultures and styles of academic discourse* (pp. 251–272). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Nwogu, K. N. (1991). Structure of science popularization: A genre-analysis approach to the schema of popularized medical texts. *English for Specific Purposes, 10*(2), 111–123. https://doi.org/10.1016/0889-4906(91)90004-G.

Nwogu, K. N. (1997). The medical research paper: Structure and functions. *English for Specific Purposes, 16*(2), 119–138. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(97)85388-4.

Paltridge, B., & Starfield, S. (2007). *Thesis and dissertation writing in a second language: A handbook for supervisors*. New York: Routledge.

Pho, P. D. (2008). Research article abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology: A study of linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance. *Discourse Studies, 10*(2), 231–250. https://doi.org/10.1177/1461445607087010.

Saboori, F., & Hashemi, M. (2013). A cross-disciplinary move analysis of research article abstracts. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World, 4*(4), 483–496. Retrieved from http://profdoc.um.ac.ir/articles/a/1038627.pdf

Samraj, B. (2005). An exploration of a genre set: Research article abstracts and introductions in two disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes, 24*(2), 141–156. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2002.10.001.

Santos, M. B. (1996). The textual organization of research paper abstracts in applied linguistics. *Text Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse, 16*(4), 481–499. https://doi.org/10.1515/text.1.1996.16.4.481.

Stotesbury, H. (2003). Evaluation in research article abstracts in the narrative and hard sciences. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 2*, 327–342.

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

Swales, J. M. (2004). *Research genres: Explorations and applications*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Swales, J., & Feak, C. (2009). *Abstracts and the writing of abstracts*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Univerzitet u Beogradu. (2014). Uputstvo za izradu doktorskih disertacija. Retrieved from http://www.fpn.bg.ac.rs/studije-ii-i-iii-stepena/doktorske-studije/uputstvo-za-izradu-doktorskih-disertacija/

Univerzitet u Novom Sadu. (2014). Doktorske disertacije stavljene na uvid javnosti/Public theses. Retrieved from http://www.cris.uns.ac.rs/publicTheses.jsf