



Research article

Citation behavior, audience awareness, and identity construction in Arabic and EFL research

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ABSTRACT

Citations are an integral component of writer-reader dialogic interaction in academic discourse. One under-researched question concerns the role of audience as a contextual factor that impacts writers' citation choices and the nature of the identity and disciplinary knowledge that they construct. The present study adopts a discourse analytic, case-study research design. First, it aims to investigate the citation behavior in five Arabic education research articles. Second, it examines whether the writers of these papers would modify their intertextual style to enact different identity and disciplinary community when writing in English as a foreign language (EFL). Findings revealed a unique character for the Arabic-based citation behavior that contrasted, sometimes, markedly with conventional academic norms, indicating the pivotal role that culture plays in shaping rhetorical preferences. Arabic-based tendencies involved predominance of integral citations, use of combined citations and non-citations, and reliance on what is herein termed *intertextual saturation* and *diffused intertextuality* as rhetorical strategies to contract dialogic space and persuade audience. The findings also showed marginal modification of intertextual style in the EFL texts. This suggests lack of significant orientation toward target audiences' characteristics that would have resulted from enculturation into disciplinary community. The findings imply the need to introduce novice writers to the concept of audience if they are to produce academic discourse that is interpersonally optimal from the perspective of the international discourse community.

1. Introduction

One characteristic that is integral to written academic discourse is its rhetorical orientation toward establishing a direct writer-reader interaction [1,2,3,4]. To communicate the value of research, scholars do not exclusively rely on the validity of the propositional content they provide. They also make their work persuasive by enacting successful social relationships with the audience [5]. Writers project a community-recognized identity that is conventionally constructed in similar research contexts. They negotiate their claims using the rhetorical styles that the community finds acceptable and engaging. The community's acceptance of claims is the means through which new research is integrated as a piece in the collaborative construction of disciplinary knowledge. Several interpersonal features are deployed to rhetorically constitute and maintain social relations, one of which is citation.

Citation, an obligatory feature of academic discourse, incorporates and recontextualizes other's words and ideas within a given text [6]. A range of ideational and rhetorical purposes are performed. Ideationally, citation allows writers to indicate what is already known about the subject of the study and, consequently, situate the study within established contextual knowledge [7]. Rhetorically,

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citation represents a fundamental aspect of persuasion; it justifies arguments and demonstrates the novelty of claims [8]. Citation allows writers to promote their and other authors' work [9], which enhances the acceptance of the presented research. It also helps in the construction of writers' identity by displaying them as insiders who possess in-depth knowledge of their fields. This allows them to project a voice that can establish alignment or dissonance with related social discourses [10]. With citation, writers can negotiate dialogic space by expanding or contracting it to recognize or fend off counterarguments [11].

The role of citation in academic writing has been investigated in the fields of sociology of science [1,12], information science [13,14], and applied linguistics [3]. In applied linguistics, studies explored the relationship between citation and independent variables like the genre in which the citations occur [15], academic discipline [3,16], writers' native culture [17], geolinguistic context and type/ranking of journal [9], and writers' differing research abilities and linguistic position as expert EFL or student writers [18,19,20,21,22]. Furthermore, research investigated dimensions that characterize citations, including density [7,23], formal structure and syntactic position [24,25], rhetorical functions [26,27], contribution in constructing writer's stance through different reporting verbs and tenses [28,29], and role in the construction of student identities.

Despite the wealth of evidence, research has not investigated the relationship between the writers' citation preferences and specific characteristics of the intended audience within the same writers. Although it is acknowledged that "[c]itations index the disciplinary community being invoked" [9], studies have not examined how awareness and consideration of the intended audience affect the citation practices that writers employ in the construction of identity, knowledge, and maintenance of successful social relationships.

The present study is the first study to utilize a case-study research design to examine the citation behavior adopted by five Arab writers in their Arabic- and English-medium education research. It aims to describe citation practices in Arabic research and uncover whether a change in target audience (Arabic-vs. English-speaking) would be associated with modification of the intertextual styles adopted for the construction of disciplinary identity and knowledge and the achievement of optimal written social interaction.

1.1. Literature Review

Research on citation in applied linguistics [23,24,30–32] started with Swale's [24] seminal distinction between two major forms of citations: integral and non-integral. Integral citations mention the cited author's name in the actual cited sentence; non-integral citations place the author's name in parenthesis or refer to it by a subscript number. Later analyses elaborated the framework by identifying finer-grained distinctions, including the classification of reporting verbs in terms of (a): their denotative, evaluative, and interpretive meanings [33]; (b) the researcher activity that they refer to [23]; and (c) the evaluative content of verbs in terms of citing writer's and cited author's stances toward the proposition [23]. More recently, drawing on systemic functional linguistics and, particularly, the engagement system of the appraisal theory [34], Coffin [11] provided a multi-dimensional framework that complemented previous models by considering the dialogic functionality of reporting options. Coffin's model, thus, looks both retrospectively in terms of the writer's relationship to the literature and introspectively in terms of the relationship between the writer and readers.

With regards to research aims and purposes, studies have examined the role of contextual factors on citation behavior, including rhetorical, disciplinary, geolinguistic, and cultural factors. The rhetorical context represents the association between the communicative purposes of the part-genres in research papers, with the typical citation patterns that appear in them [7,15,35]. Genre-based research found substantial cross-sectional differences in densities, surface forms, roles of cited authors, reporting verbs, and functions of citations in the introduction-method-result-discussion (IMRD) part-genres of research articles. One common finding for density, for example, is that there is typically a lower percentage of citations in the Method and Results sections due to their descriptive and factual nature as compared to the density in the Introduction and Discussion sections as is necessitated by their socially-oriented and argumentative nature.

Cross-disciplinary studies underscored the role of the varying epistemological beliefs, ideologies, and ways of tackling research that are embedded in different disciplines on the prevalence of certain citation options over others [23,36]. In a widely cited study, Hyland [23], for example, uncovered key cross-disciplinary differences in the density and types of citations used in the hard sciences and social sciences/humanities. One notable finding was that fields in the social sciences/humanities utilized a higher density of citations due to their discursive and argumentative nature. Although fields in both disciplinary groups used more non-integral than integral citations, there were more integral citations in the soft sciences. This indicated the tendency to allow more visibility for cited authors' agency in the building of truths.

Research also investigated the association between citation use, different sociolinguistic contexts of writing (Anglophone center vs. periphery) and the type of journal (local vs. international), and how this association determines the type of the invoked disciplinary community (e.g., 9). Findings showed that writers modified their intertextual style when addressing different audiences, demonstrating the impact of audience awareness and writers' orientation toward its characteristics on citation use. However, this research focused on English-medium discourse only. It, consequently, left the question of how the role of audience awareness interacts with the writers' native language/culture in the creation of culturally situated persuasive discourse in languages other than English.

Finally, findings from cross-cultural studies, which investigate the use of citations in languages other than English, point to a more complex relationship between citation behaviors and writers' cultural background. Fluttom et al. [36], for instance, found small differences in the use of integral/non-integral citations across eight European languages. They concluded that discipline was a stronger factor than language. To explain the similarities, claims are often extended concerning the influence of the globalization of academia and growth of English as the academic lingua franca [9,37]. Other studies uncovered both cross-cultural similarities and variations in citation use, indicating the influence of both discipline- and culture-specific factors [17,38–40]. Bloch and Chi [17], for example, observed a significant difference between English and Chinese physical science papers in terms of how recent the references were but

not in terms of the degree to which writers adopted a critical stance of the literature. Similarly, Varga and Gradečak-Erdeljić [35] found differences between English and Croatian citation practices in overall density. They also found a similarity in features like the cross-sectional distribution of citations and dominance of non-integral citations.

Overall, considering the dominant English-based citation practices, cross-cultural research suggests that for every language/culture, especially ones that are not historically related to English [cf., 41], there is likely to be certain rhetorical features that are occluded and less salient for its users leading to language-specific divergences in rhetorical preferences. This necessitates the exploration of discourse produced in individual cultures within a contrastive rhetorical framework, particularly if evidence-based pedagogical implications are to be drawn.

Despite the richness and variety of the literature, no previous studies addressed the relationship between citation choices and writers' awareness of their intended audience and how this relationship is reflected in the social identity that writers assume. Audience awareness means writers' knowledge of the intended readers' perceptions, interests and needs as embodied in their preferred linguistic and rhetorical norms and conventions [42]. Because different audiences define and use knowledge, conventions, genre and register differently [43], they require writers to position to them differently by constructing particular identities that are unique to the social context of writing [10]. This entails that identity, as realized by adherence to the community's linguistic norms and conventions, is not stagnant but is discursively and dynamically constructed and transformed through interaction between writers and different audiences [44,45,46,47]. Intertextuality is one of the means through which writers signal their enculturation into the specialized discourse of certain disciplinary communities [44,47]. This dialogic view of academic discourse, therefore, yields the question of whether experienced writers who possess mastery over their specialized genres and who belong to different cultural communities would attune their rhetoric and by implication their identities to align with the target community, be it Anglophone or non-Anglophone.

Thus, the present study focuses on the interplay between citation use, identity construction, and positioning toward audience by examining whether citation is used differently by the same writers to enact distinct identities and invoke different disciplinary communities when addressing Arabic-speaking as opposed to English-speaking audiences, whose backgrounds are often described as being "cultural opposites" [48]. Through a case-study methodology, the present study compares five published writers' Arabic-medium research, which has never been described in citation literature, and English-medium research to reveal potential traces of identity transformation that might occur because of writers' disciplinary enculturation and orientation toward an intended community. Addressing this issue would make a contribution to the field of cross-cultural contrastive rhetoric by advancing a deeper understanding of how citation is used as a persuasive strategy in different cultures. The study would also provide practical insights to inform English for Academic Purposes instruction and curriculum development in higher education institutions.

To this end, the study poses the following questions.

1. What citation practices are characteristic of Arabic Education research?
2. Is a change in the target audience (Arabic-speaking vs. English-speaking) associated with a change in citation behavior?

1.2. Theoretical framework

The present study draws on Coffin's [11] model that conceptualizes earlier categories within the framework of the engagement sub-system of the appraisal theory [34], a development of the interpersonal metafunction theorized by systemic functional linguistics [49]. Engagement focuses on the diversity of voices (heteroglossia) that the interpersonal resources, including attribution or citation, achieve for texts and the role of these resources in negotiating the dialogic space through dialogic expansion and dialogic contraction. Dialogic expansion is the creation of a space for alternative opinions to appear as valid; dialogic contraction is a challenge or restriction of the scope for other voices. According to Coffin [11], the citation strategies that realize dialogic expansion and contraction fall into three major categories (a): textual integration (b); the nature of the source; and (c) writer stance. The following sections explain these categories with definitions based on Coffin [11] and illustrative extracts from the present data.¹

Textual integration refers to the extent to which the cited information is assimilated into the text. The first sub-system in this category includes the traditional distinction between integral and non-integral citations. Integral citations, in which the author's name is explicitly mentioned in the cited sentence, give more prominence to the cited author than to the propositional content. Thus, they make the attribution more person-based and subjective, as illustrated in example 1.

- (1) Koehler (2012) suggested that this framework joins technology to specific pedagogical methods. [ELT3]

In contrast, non-integral citations, in which the author's name is included in parentheses at the end of the cited sentence, foreground the message by downplaying the role of the cited author. This increases the factuality and objectivity of the text, as in example 2.

- (2) There is no single and independent definition of a flipped classroom (Street, 2015). [ELT5]

¹ Sources of examples, whether from an Arabic-language text (ALT) or English-language text (ELT) are given between square brackets with numbers indicating the number of the text in the corpus (e.g., [ELT2] = the second text in the English-language corpus). Citations between single quotation marks are translated from the Arabic corpus. Translation is carried out by the present researcher.

The second sub-system in textual integration differentiates between insertion, assimilation, and insertion + assimilation. With insertion, the writer directly quotes a source, as in example 3.

(3) Gender role occurs “as a result of countless subtle and not so subtle ways” (Jakob, 2011). [ELT2]

In contrast, assimilation involves the rewording of the original text through summarizing and paraphrasing as in example 4.

(4) According to Field (2009), the value of Cronbach’s Alpha was either seven or higher. [ELT4]

Finally, insertion + assimilation includes a combination of direct quotation and rewording as in example 5.

(5) Scholars have advocated “carefully designed interventions” that are tailored to students’ specific needs (Hargrove & Nietfeld, 2015). [ELT5]

Rhetorically, an assimilated proposition, especially one that is cited through the non-integral format, contracts the dialogic space. It “merges so seamlessly into the writer’s argument that it resembles text which is entirely in the writer’s voice,” presenting the information as factual (11, p. 174). Conversely, quotations, especially ones that are presented in integral citations, depict the information as personal and tentative due to their affiliation with a single source. The rhetorical effect is dialogic expansion.

Citations can also be described in terms of the nature of the source. In this regard, they are distinguished according to (a) the degree of their personalization of sources and (b) how they identify sources. The personalization category is concerned with whether the human dimension is foregrounded. Distinctions are made between human, non-human, and abstract-human references. In the first type, a human agent is mentioned as the source (e.g., *Long (1985) suggested that*) and, thus, the reference is made inherently subjective. Non-human citations, in contrast, obscure human agency and foreground the non-human dimension of information by referring to a cultural product like a theory, method, or study instead of its human producer leading to the objectification of the references (e.g., *The broader attempt has suggested that*). Finally, abstract-human citations involve a reduced degree of objectification because they combine the human element with the non-human element of reference. The human element in this type normally occurs as a modifier within the nominal group (e.g., *It is influenced by Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory*). According to Coffin [11], human references expand the dialogic space because their subjectivity portrays the referenced opinions as personal and potentially contentious and debatable. The objectivity of the non-human citations, in contrast, boosts the factual nature of reported information and contracts dialogic space for possible disagreement.

In the identification category, citations are classified in terms of whether the sources are named vs. unnamed and whether they are produced by an individual author vs. a collective group of authors. Named citations mention the name of (a) specific author(s). Unnamed citations, in contrast, are attributed to unspecified or anonymous sources, as in example 6.

(6) It is widely known that by the time children start school ... [ELT2]

Rhetorically, unnamed citations expand the dialogic space because of their unverifiable and unspecified nature. Conversely, named citations are dialogically contractive because verification of the source makes the presented information convincing to readers.

Furthermore, citations can be classified in terms of *grouping* to two types: individual and collective. In individual citations, propositions are attributed to one author. In collective citations, propositions are attributed to a group of authors clustered as one in-text citation. Collective citations are more persuasively compelling than individual citations. They present the proposition as being robustly validated and endorsed. Therefore, collective citations are dialogically contractive. This is illustrated in example 7.

(7) Concerns have been raised about the continual reliance on traditional lecture-based teaching (Butt, 2014; Hargrove & Nietfeld, 2015; Onsmann, 2011). [ELT5]

The last category in Coffin’s model as utilized in the present study is writer stance. This category is concerned with the different evaluative positions that the citing writer adopts in relation to the cited information and that lead to different degrees of dialogic expansion or contraction. Four stances can be adopted: (1) acknowledge; (2) endorse; (3) distance; and (4) contest. With acknowledge reporting verbs like *say*, *report*, *observe*, and *mention*, the writer exhibits a neutral stance that acknowledges the sources without providing an evaluative comment on the information. These expressions expand the dialogic space because they indicate that the referenced opinion is one among several alternative positions. In contrast, endorsed expressions, such as *demonstrate*, *show*, *conclude*, and *provide evidence*, are dialogically contractive because they involve the expression of a positive evaluative position. The writer directly agrees with the referenced propositions, marking them as reliable and authoritative. Distance reporting verbs like *claim* are dialogically expansive because they create a distance between the writer’s position and the referenced information, indicating the existence of other dialogic alternatives. Finally, contest expressions like *too simplistic*² ([11], p. 172) are used to directly disagree with the referenced opinion. These critical evaluative comments contract the dialogic space as the writer’s personal investment in the

² No contest instances were found in the present data.

conveyed disagreement maximizes the interpersonal cost required to advance an alternative position.

It is worth noting that Coffin's model also includes one last sub-category, *status of cited source*. This category is not employed in the present study due to issues related to its reliable operationalization, as discussed by Wang and Hu [50].

Overall, the model can be diagrammatically represented, as shown in Fig. 1.

2. Methodology

2.1. Corpora and subjects

The data consist of 10 research articles published by five Saudi Arabian academics. Five of the articles were written in modern standard Arabic and five in English as a foreign language. The academic discipline of the articles is education; the sub-discipline is curriculum and teaching methodology. Table 1 details the Arabic language texts (ALTs) and English language texts (ELTs).

The English articles were published in international peer-reviewed journals. The Arabic articles were published in Arabic peer-reviewed journals that are affiliated with universities in Arab countries. The method of data collection was as follows. First, Saudi academics in the colleges of education, particularly in departments of teaching methods, were identified by searching the websites of all Saudi universities. Five writers were randomly selected from a cohort of 30 published writers. Then, each of these writers' curriculum vitae was examined to identify their publications. The Saudi Digital Library and online search engines were used to locate each of the selected research papers. The present writers have doctorates in education and are either assistant or associate professors in their respective departments.

2.2. Research design and data analysis

The study employs a qualitative discourse analytic case-study research design, which allowed the use of two in-depth analytical procedures that would not have been possible with a corpus-based methodology. First, it was possible to manually identify all instances of citation (even ones that do not instantiate canonical forms of referencing). Second, through a careful reading of the texts, it was possible to carry out an ideational (not only interpersonal) analysis to uncover how the citations interacted in terms of their propositional content to achieve persuasive purposes. This approach is supported by previous researchers, including Flowerdew [51, p.18] who maintained that "small specialized corpora [...] allow for more top-down, qualitative, contextually-informed analyses than those carried out using general corpora."

To achieve comprehensiveness, the analysis was carried out at the level of whole article rather than being limited to specific (IMRD) part-genres. Cross-sectional differences were also sought through an examination of the density of citations in different part-genres in the articles. Each citation was multi-dimensionally categorized according to all categories in Coffin's [11] model. Thus, a given citation would be simultaneously annotated as, for example, *integral*, *assimilated*, *human*, *named*, *individual*, and *endorsed*.

To make statistical comparison across articles of different lengths possible, the frequency of citation categories was normalized by 1000 words for all articles. The normalized frequency was calculated by dividing the total number of citation features by the total number of words in the article. Moreover, to ascertain coding reliability, previous qualitative research [e.g., 52], was consulted whereby a sub-set of the data was analyzed twice with a month interval between the two analyses. The percentage of consistency between the two analyses was more than 97%. Finally, adopting Thompson and Yiyun's [33] definition, the subjects in the present study are referred to as "writers." The scholars whose words are cited in the data are referred to as "authors."

3. Results

In this section, the analysis starts with the presentation of the overall density of citations. This is followed by the categorization of citation forms according to Coffin's [11] model. Finally, it presents an investigation of the cross-sectional distribution of citations in the data.

3.1. Density of citations

Table 2 gives the frequency of citations in the two corpora. Writers used more citations in their English ($\bar{x} = 69.6$) than their Arabic (67.3) texts. Interestingly, the average of citations in both the Arabic (13.4 per 1000 words) and English corpus (13.9 per 1000 words) is greater than the average reported by Hyland [23] for research papers in the soft sciences, which is 11 per 1000 words.

A qualitative, ideational analysis of the content of citations revealed that the relatively high frequency of citations is partly a function of the tendency to *saturate* phases of texts with multiple citations to serve the following four purposes.

1. Repeated demonstration of the *importance* of the research topic, as in example 8, in which the writer used six citations to emphasize the importance of social values in school textbooks.
- (8) Effective educational processes "must be guided by basic values ..." (Al-Najhi, 1981). Teaching and learning values are among the basics ... (Al-Miqdadi, 2006) ... Moral values remain of great importance and an important and decisive factor ... (Al-Saud, 2004) ... Since the curricula are among the most important elements of the educational process, it is necessary for them to include some moral values (Al-Agha & Al-Farra, 1996). Moral values direct human behavior (Yaljin, 2002). They also protect members of society from deviation and corruption (Al-Jallad, 2007). [ALT2]

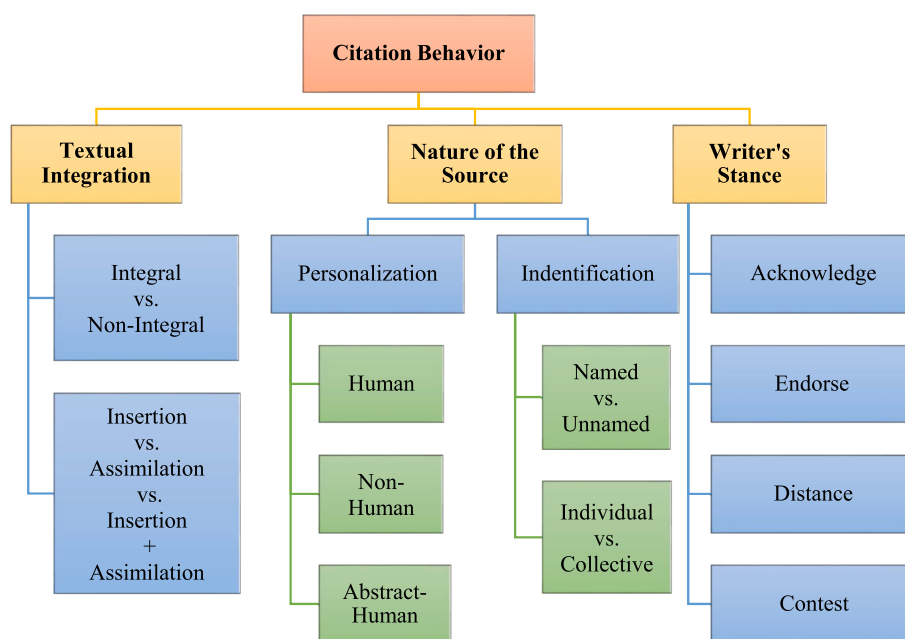


Fig. 1. Categories of citation behavior.

Table 1
Corpora.

	No. of articles	Date of publication	Word count
ALTs	5	2013–2016	35.451
ELTs	5	2015–2019	28.762
Total	10		64.213

Table 2
Density of citations.

	No.	\bar{f}_n	Average
ALTs	481	67.3	13.4
ELTs	385	69.6	13.9

The same strategy was used in ELTs, as illustrated by the following extract in which the writer used six citations to repeatedly support the same idea that the TPACK framework integrates knowledge, pedagogy, and technology.

- (9) TPACK has gained popularity (Voogt, 2013) as a result of effective integration of technologies into education (Koehler, 2012; Mishra, 2006). The use of TPACK can assist researchers and educators in integrating technologies into teaching and learning. TPACK has mainly described instructors' needs of knowledge to integrate appropriate technologies into effective teaching (Schmidt, 2009). TPACK has been suggested as the combination of content, pedagogy, and technology. TPACK provides a combination of knowledge of a particular subject that is taught using technology and the knowledge of teaching strategies (Niess, 2005). Koehler (2012) suggested that this framework joins technology to specific pedagogical methods and curriculum content. [ELT3]
2. Provision of multiple definitions for the same term, as in example 10:
- (10) 'Kandil (1999) defines smart boards as a type of educational software ... while Al-Abadla (2007) defines them as a flat electronic screen, ... Close to this definition, the British Educational Communications and Technology Agency (Becta, 2003) defines smart boards as a type of educational software ... ' [ALT3]
3. Support of information that would otherwise be regarded as factually non-controversial and, therefore, in no need to be documented with references, as in identifying the period when a given teaching methodology started to be used or mentioning the benefits of technology, as in example 11:
- (11) The employment of tasks was initiated towards the end of 1960s (Burt & Dulay, 1973; Hakuta, 1976; Krashen, 1994; Long, 1996). [ELT1]

The SPSS application was used because of its ability to provide accurate statistical information in various formats, such as tables, percentages and graphs (Pallant, 2007). [ELT5]

Some examples [of the uses of smart phones] include the ability to browse the Internet, and to participate in discussions simultaneously (Corbeil & Valdes, 2007). [ELT4]

4. Literal repetition of the same citation in the same part-genre of the paper to achieve emphatic purposes. In example 12, the writer used the same citation twice in the Introduction to emphasize the role of lack of representation of women in school textbooks.
- (12) Porreca explained the hidden messages by stating that “women’s accomplishments, or that they themselves as human beings, are not important enough to be included.”

Porreca explained that: When females do not appear as often as males in the text ... the implicit message is that women’s accomplishments, or that they themselves as human beings, are not important enough to be included. [ELT2]

3.2. Textual integration: integral, non-integral, and combined citations

Regarding textual integration, Table 3 shows that the frequency of integral citations ($f_n = 38.7$) in ALTs is substantially greater than non-integral citations ($f_n = 19.1$). This differs from the ELTs in which the frequency of integral citations ($f_n = 26.4$) is less than that of non-integral ones ($f_n = 31.9$). However, the gap between integral and non-integral citations in the ELTs is narrow. Also, the shift of preference from integral to non-integral citations in the ELTs is not consistent among all writers. Only writers 3 and 5 encoded a considerably greater frequency of non-integral citations (10.3 and 10.5, respectively) than integral ones (5.7 and 3.3, respectively) in their English research papers. The difference was not as pronounced for writers 1 and 4 use of non-integral (2.7 and 5.8, respectively) as opposed to integral citations (0.3 and 5.4, respectively) in the English corpus. Furthermore, writer 2 preferred the use of integral citations more frequently (11.7) than non-integral ones (2.6) in his English paper. These figures indicate that writers naturally leaned toward the use of integral citations in both Arabic and English texts.

Non-integral citations allow writers to foreground the message that is being conveyed, show objectivity and impersonality of scientific experiments, and give a truth-like impression to cited material. The integral format, on the other hand, is author-prominent by emphasizing the role of the cited author. In the present data, integral citations were used to perform a number of rhetorical functions, including.

- Using emphatic and evaluative devices to positively appreciate the cited material (example 13a)
- Ascribing a confident tone to cited authors to make the writer’s argument more forceful (example 13 b)
- Ascribing a favorable attitude to a cited author to help support the writer’s argument (example 13c)
- Using factive reporting verbs to endorse previous research (example 13d)

Example 13: Rhetorical functions of integral citations in the data

(3)		
a) Positive appreciation of reported material	Evans and Davies (2000) <i>clearly</i> pointed out [ELT2]	
b) Ascription of a confident voice to cited source	Hazel (2014) highlighted the importance of [ELT2]	
	‘Rao (2006) emphasizes the need ’ [ALT4]	
	‘The British Agency strongly recommends ’ [ALT3]	
c) Ascription of an attitude to cited author	Hargrove and Niefeld (2015) cautioned that overemphasis [ELT5]	
	Porreca (1984) highlighted the danger [ELT2]	
d) Endorsement of cited research	‘The results of the study showed ’ [ALT1]	
	‘They have proven ’ [ALT4]	

In addition to integral and non-integral citations, a third category of textual integration was identified in the present data. In fact, this category was not previously highlighted in the literature. This category is herein termed *combined citations* (Table 3). This category was used by all writers in the two corpora (except writer 2 in ELTs), which indicates the importance of this form as an attribution strategy for Arab writers. Combined citations differ from non-integral citations because they do not focus exclusively on the message

Table 3
Textual integration.

	Integral		Non-Integral		Combined	
	No.	f_n	No.	f_n	No.	f_n
ALTs	275	38.7	132	19.1	74	10.6
ELTs	134	26.4	228	31.9	23	3.4

that is being conveyed. They include an agent subject and a reporting expression, thus allowing writers to utilize all the evaluative features pertaining to integral citations as explicated in example 13. Simultaneously, combined citations are different from integral citations because they do not attribute the proposition to (a) specific author(s) by name. Rather, combined citations generalize the source and amplify the number of people who are said to hold the cited view as the following instances illustrate.

- (14) Many researchers believe that the mobile phone is one of the most powerful mobile learning tools (Peters, 2007; Prensky, 2004). [ELT4]

Most scholars have agreed that local environments ... are the most powerful ways to construct the gender roles (Riegle-Crumb & Morton, 2017). [ELT2]

'Many recent educational studies have focused on religious knowledge (Hayness, 2004)'. [ALT2]

Writers used combined citations to generalize their statements and amplify the number of cited authors. This strategy makes the rhetorical effect of the generalized proposition much stronger than one in which a limited number of specific authors is mentioned.

3.3. Textual integration: insertion, assimilation, and insertion + assimilation

As displayed in Table 4, the assimilation strategy is the most frequent textual integration strategy for all writers in the two corpora (ALTs = 64.8; ELTs = 67.2). Insertion was infrequently used by only three writers in the ALTs and by two writers in the ELTs. Insertion + Assimilation was even less frequent, with only two instances in the ALTs and five in the ELTs (and not by all writers).

3.4. Identification

As shown in Table 5, the two corpora utilized the same pattern with overwhelmingly more individual citations (Arabic = 49.9, English = 45.5) than collective citations (Arabic = 5.7, English = 7.1). Furthermore, there were fewer individual citations in English (45.5) than Arabic (49.9). Conversely, there were more collective citations in English (7.1) than Arabic (5.7), indicating the writers' relative awareness for the need to establish links between the cited studies through collective citations. However, with the significant difference between individual vs. collective citations in the ELTs, the trend can be confidently said to be equally emphasizing individuality rather than collective patterns in both languages.

Qualitatively, writers preferred to report each citation individually, even if this citation provided a similar ideational content to the one reported in previous citations. The result is the prevalence of a sequencing strategy in which references are sequentially listed as separate entries. This is illustrated in example 15, in which the writer used eight individual/integral citations to report eight studies that provided the same finding on the use of smart boards in teaching.

- (15) 'Abu Rizk (2012) conducted a study in the United Arab Emirates on the impact of using the smart board ... The study revealed that there are differences ... in favor of ... the experimental group ... In the Emirates, Abul-Enein (2011) conducted a study on ... the impact of the smart boards ... It was found ... that there were statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group ... In the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Al-Juwer (2009) showed that there is a positive trend towards using the interactive whiteboard ... In Saudi Arabia, too, Al-Asmari (2011) studied the effect of smart board ... and it was found that there are statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group. Also, a recent study by Al-Ruwaili (2013) ... revealed that there were statistically significant differences ... In Kuwait, Al-Zoubi (2011) ... found that there is a clear impact of the smart board in teaching science ... In Jordan, Alsahafi (2013) showed that there was a statistically significant effect of using smart boards ... In Jordan, Jubaili (2013) also studied the effectiveness of combining the use of the smart board with thinking skills ... and found that the combination had an effective effect on students' achievement'. [ALT3]

Example 15 gives an extract from the Literature Review written by ALT3. In this extract, the writer used a sequencing strategy in which references are sequentially listed as separate entries without thematic categorization. Would thematic categorization have been used wherein similar studies are categorized together, the whole extract in example 15 would be rendered more concisely and within a shorter space. It would utilize collective/non-integral citations as shown in the following fictional example:

The effectiveness of the use of smart boards in teaching Arab students has been demonstrated by studies conducted in the United Arab Emirates (Abu Rizk, 2012; Abul-Enein, 2011), Saudi Arabia (Al-Asmari, 2011; Al-Juwer, 2009; Al-Ruwaili, 2013), Kuwait (Al-Zoubi, 2011), and Jordan (Alsahafi, 2013; Jubaili, 2013).

The same strategy was used in ELTs, as illustrated in example 16.

Table 4
Textual integration.

	Insertion		Assimilation		Insertion + Assimilation	
	No.	fn	No.	fn	No.	fn
ALTs	15	2.1	464	64.8	2	0.05
ELTs	5	1	374	67.2	5	0.1

Table 5
Identification.

	Individual		Collective		Non-citation			
					Generalized		Named	
	No.	fn	No.	fn	No.	fn	No.	Fn
ALTs	364	49.9	40	5.7	1	0.2	11	1.6
ELTs	236	45.5	44	7.1	9	1.2	7	0.8

(16) Parke and Gauvain (2009) stated that as students' progress in school, their understandings and practices of gender roles encounter radical changes. Hazel (2014) highlighted the importance of schools' textbooks in shaping and constructing the students' gender roles. Hazel explained that students tend to take the content of the textbooks for granted and rarely challenge the knowledge and the characters' roles embedded in these textbooks. Luk (2004) clearly underlined the huge effects of school textbooks on students' attitudes and social roles in the society. [ELT2]

In example 16, Hazel (2014), and then Luk (2004), agree with Parke and Gauvain (2009) concerning the influence of schools on students' gender role perception. However, instead of establishing links between these three studies by using a collective non-integral citation, writer ELT2 chose to separate the citations and repeat the same proposition a number of times in different ways.

In addition to individual and collective citations, Coffin's [11] identification category included a type of citation termed *unnamed citations*. In the present data, unnamed citations have been largely different from how they are described by Coffin and other researchers. Thompson and Tribble [7, p. 96], for example, used the term "non-citation" to refer to attributions that give "a reference to another writer but the name is given without a year reference" because the year reference "has been supplied earlier in the text and the writer does not want to repeat it." Coffin [11, p. 176] termed non-citations *unnamed references*, defining them as encompassing anonymous cited individuals or groups and as being realized by indefinite pronouns (e.g., *Few would disagree that*). Non-citations in the present data fell into two types. They are herein termed *generalized* and *named non-citations*. They can be characterized as follows.

In generalized non-citations, example 17, writers use passive constructions to legitimize and solidify the ideas by making them appear as factual and generally accepted and, thus, hard to dispute. However, they do not simultaneously add an in-text citation for authentication. In the example below, the attribution of the problem to learners' influence is made factual; yet it is not anchored to any single study that validates the act of attribution.

(17) Another explanation of task-based learning lacking significance is attributed to factors beyond its principles, such as that of learners' influence. [ELT1]

This strategy was used even when providing information that would logically require documentation, such as coinage of terms and provision of definitions.

(18) This traditional way of teaching includes instructional practices that are collectively referred to as "prompting." [ELT1]

In contrast to generalized non-citations, named non-citations (example 19) mention a specific agent to make reference to the literature in general or to a more limited reference like a study or line of thought. These constructions provide the writer's summarized understanding or the gist from previous scholarship.

(19) As stated in many studies, the analysis of schools' textbooks in terms of gender roles are essential ... [ELT2]

'Overall, researchers confirm that teachers need these components.' [ALT3]

Furthermore, non-citation was used in the context of gap establishment to indicate deficiencies in the literature. Example 20 criticizes previous studies but it does not mention examples for the studies that had a limited focus.

(20) There are a very limited number of Arabic studies that explored the students' views, attitudes, and their readiness for this type of learning. Most previous studies in this area focused on technical aspects. [ELT4]

In terms of frequency of non-citations, Table 5 shows that only one writer used generalized non-citation in the ALTs (fn = 0.2), whereas all writers employed it at least once in the ELTs (fn = 1.2). Named non-citation, on the other hand, displays the opposite trend. Four writers utilized it in the ALTs (fn = 1.6) and fewer encoded instances in the ELTs (fn = 0.8).

3.5. Personalization

As shown in Table 6, the human source of attributed material is the most preferred option in both corpora (Arabic = 16.5, English = 20.2). However, the writers' use of personalization strategies is more disperse across the different personalization options in the ALTs than the ELTs. Due to this, the tendency to objectify attributions through abstract-human and non-human sources is more frequent in

Arabic than in the English corpus. The more varied choices in the Arabic personalization category are attributable to the higher prevalence of integral and combined citations, which necessitated the diversity of reporting styles aimed to add interest and avoid monotony of writing.

3.6. *Writer stance*

With regards to writer stance, Table 7 shows that the two corpora utilized the same pattern. The most frequent stance in the two corpora was Acknowledge (Arabic = 23.6, English = 16.1), followed by Endorse (Arabic = 22.3, English = 13.8). Individually, writers 2 and 4 endorsed rather than acknowledged most of their citations in both their Arabic and English papers. Distance was not employed in the Arabic corpus. It was used once in the English corpus. Contest was never used in the data. This pattern means that writers cited only the literature that was in line with their research position.

3.7. *Cross-sectional distribution of citation*

Concerning the cross-sectional distribution of citations, Table 8 shows an identical distribution. Citations are overwhelmingly used in the Introduction section in both Arabic (87%) and English (82%) texts by all writers. The second most common site of citations is the Discussion section. However, it has considerably fewer overall frequencies (Arabic = 5.6%, English = 11.9%). The third most frequent location for citations is Method (Arabic = 3.5%, English = 5.1%), followed by Results (Arabic = 2%, English = 9.7%). Interestingly, unlike the case in the Introduction section, in which all writers used citations, not all writers used citations in the Discussion, Method, and Results sections. Regarding Discussion, two writers in the Arabic corpus and one writer in the English corpus never used citations in this sub-genre.

4. Discussion

The foregoing analysis yields significant findings in response to the research questions. First, the analysis shows the Arab writers' utilization of the citation categories in Coffin's [11] model except for the contest option, which is one of the available means for assuming a critical authorial stance towards the cited references [15,29]. On the other hand, these writers' citation behavior involved two additional strategies that Coffin's model does not include, namely combined citations and generalized/named non-citations. This difference between the English-based and Arabic-based citation repertoires, in addition to variations in density and frequency of use of categories (as will be discussed below), signal the influence of the broader cultural context on the existence of divergent rhetorical means for engaging and interacting with different academic communities in persuasive academic genres [35,39,47,53–55].

Second, the findings shed light on the authorial identity that is constructed in the two sub-corpora. Identity is a social position assumed by individuals as they interact with the community by following certain rules and conventions [56]. It encompasses the notion that, "when a writer words something in a particular way, by a particular choice of words and structures, they are aligning themselves with others who use such words and structures and hence making a statement of identity about themselves ([47], p. 45). In the present sub-corpora, identity appeared relatively consistent. Particularly, apart from some quantitative differences, the intertextual patterns and distributions adopted by the writers in the two sub-corpora were similar, if not identical. Accordingly, there was minimal language-specific identity differentiation and only a partial adjustment of the argumentative style in response to target audience expectations. Taken together, the data from the two sub-corpora contrast with normative English-based referencing practices, displaying more divergence from these norms than similarities. Thus, the present findings can be said to instantiate what Canagarajah [44] calls the process of *appropriation* which is one of five directionalities of identity negotiation by multilingual writers in academic discourse. *Appropriation* refers to the situation in which writers infuse the non-native discourse with strengths imported from preferred personal discourses, i.e., Arabic-based in the present case. The other four directionalities are avoidance – producing no signs of tension between native and non-native discourses; accommodation – adopting and internalizing voice and identity influenced by non-native discourse; opposition – univocally opposing the non-native discourse without negotiating an independent voice; and transposition – working against both conflicting discourses to form a new discourse that transcends the dichotomy. To substantiate these notions, the following sections discuss the findings in detail by first presenting the similarities between the English-based and Arabic-based practices then outlining the differences.

Conformity between the present practices and conventional norms includes two intertextual aspects, namely textual integration and writer stances. Regarding textual integration, the most preferred option by the present writers was assimilation rather than insertion or insertion + assimilation. This is consistent with previous research, where summaries and generalizations were overwhelming and direct quotations were minimal [e.g., [9], [23], [57],58]. Writers use assimilation because rewording and summarizing

Table 6
Personalization.

	Human		Abstract-human		Non-human	
	No.	fn.	No.	fn.	No.	fn.
ALTs	127	16.5	41	3.6	79	10.1
ELTs	100	20.2	16	3.1	29	4.8

Table 7
Writer stance.

	Acknowledge		Endorse		Distance		Contest	
	No.	fn	No.	fn	No.	fn	No.	fn
ALTs	177	23.6	164	22.6	0	0	0	0
ELTs	83	16.1	71	14.5	1	0.1	0	0

Table 8
Cross-sectional distribution of citations.

	Introduction		Method		Results		Discussion	
	No.	fn.	No.	fn.	No.	fn.	No.	fn.
ALTs	421 (87%)	58.6	17 (3.5%)	2.4	10 (2%)	1.2	27 (5.6%)	4.8
ELTs	316 (82%)	55.6	20 (5.1%)	3.6	3 (9.7%)	0.5	46 (11.9%)	9.5

sources allows them to “absorb” the original wording of authors and seamlessly integrate them into their main arguments [11, p. 184]. This, in turn, allows them to exercise greater agency in emphasizing and interpreting the cited comments in a way that supports their claims [23].

Similarly, the pattern of writer stances used in the data was consistent with academic standards. Generally, writers in both corpora used more acknowledge than endorse, distance, and contest reporting verbs. This aligns with previous studies [11,15,23], revealing that in a whole-article dimension, writers were more likely to use non-factive (acknowledge) verbs to show their impartial familiarity with the field than to directly incorporate a judgment into the cited research with factive (endorse) or counter-factive (distance and contest) reporting verbs. However, for the present writers, endorse was also an essential resource. The difference in frequency between acknowledge and endorse in both corpora was not markedly substantial. In many cases, writers supported their arguments by investing heavily in the validity of the cited information with factive reporting verbs. Thus, the combination of acknowledge and endorse meant that writers did not take a critical stance of the literature; instead, they cited only those studies that were, in the first place, supportive of the writer’s own research position either indirectly (acknowledge) or directly (endorse).

On the other hand, there were several marked variations between the present data and conventional citation behavior. The first notable difference concerns the higher density of citations in both corpora, especially in the English one, compared to descriptions of citation density in English writing [e.g., 23]. This finding could signal the Arab academics’ culture-specific tendency to *saturate* their texts with intertextuality as a result of forming a stronger association between the amount of intertextuality imbued in a text and the resultant perceived value and scholarly contribution of the reported research.

Furthermore, writers in both corpora used their citations overwhelmingly in the Introductory section (Introduction and Review of Literature), a finding which corresponds to previous research on non-Anglophone writers [38,39]. Thus, intertextuality in Arabs’ research functioned prominently to motivate their research by demonstrating its significance and relevance to the literature. Attempted exhaustive review of studies that were similar in terms of content and purpose also performed identity-related purposes. It portrayed writers as knowledgeable experts who have extensive in-depth competence of a range of studies in the field. Lyu, Ruan, Xie & Cheng [59] described such an instance as performing an “advertising” function wherein writers use citations to claim their competence and display their knowledge of the field.

Conventionally, however, the Introduction is not the only “socially oriented and interpretive” (15, p. 3) section in the research article. The Discussion/Conclusion section also performs significant rhetorical purposes by establishing connections with the literature [60]. These include highlighting the contribution of the present research by comparing it with the literature [15,27] and confirming the factuality and legitimacy of the reported results as new knowledge by relating them to existing disciplinary knowledge [20]. Pertinently, in their meta-synthesis of the literature on citation behavior, Lyu et al. [59] found that one of the most common citation motivations was the use of citations as evidence to explain and substantiate writers’ findings in the Discussion section of their papers.

The present writers’ use of citations in the Discussion/Conclusion section was scant. Also, not all writers used citations in this section. The comparative infrequency of citations in the Arabic Discussions (5.6%) and, to a lesser extent, in the English Discussions (11.9%) compares markedly with higher frequencies in previous findings like Kuo et al. [61], at 21.4%, and Zhang [15], at 28%. This suggests that Arab writers did not take the same opportunities to confirm the legitimacy of their interpretations considering earlier knowledge and that, in some cases, they enacted a readership that accepted their interpretations without need for evidence-based support from the literature.

Furthermore, due to the prominence of integral citations, intertextuality in the Arabic papers was author-prominent or person-based rather than research-prominent or concept-based [15,62,63]. The English corpus had a significant shift for two writers from the use of integral to non-integral citations. However, the use of non-integral citation was not pervasive for the rest of the English papers. This tendency is in a stark contrast with previous findings on the strong unequivocal preference for non-integral citations in different academic disciplines [9,15,23,35,61,64,65].

There are many reasons why writers seemed to prefer the integral citation structure. Integral citations in the present data allowed writers to foreground the human dimension, especially in citations that started with human/abstract-human rather than non-human sources. Foregrounding the human dimension helps to increase the authoritativeness of the cited information. Integral citations also

allowed writers to show their stance, make evaluations through attitudinal and emphatic expressions, and strengthen the textual position by ascribing a confident tone to the cited authors.

Yet, there appears to be an additional reason for the preference, which is related to the textual given-new structure of integral citations. Syntactically, the subject noun phrase in integral citations gives the name of the cited author while the predicate includes the projected clause that is taken from the reference. In many instances in the present data, the projected proposition was “given” because its content was semantically repeated or mentioned in the preceding discourse [66]. Supposing that these repeated propositions were reported in a non-integral citation structure, then the repetitiveness of the ideas would have become obvious as the focus would be direct on the given proposition. Therefore, to avoid ending up with a text that would appear noticeably repetitive to the readers, writers tried to demonstrate the informativeness and newness of the knowledge they provided by placing a “new” entity (the name of the cited author) in a syntactically prominent sentential position. Thus, optimal exploitation of the textual make-up of citations assisted these writers in the construction of new and informative knowledge.

In contrast to the normative importance of collective non-integral citations to synthesize referenced research and establish links between reported studies [20,27,31], the present writers heavily preferred individual rather than collective citations in the English and, to more extent, Arabic corpora. Many of the individual integral citations conveyed a definition, claim, or research finding that was similar to previous citations. This indicates that individual citations were used not only because of the usefulness of their ideational meaning but also because of their potential in achieving interpersonal purposes. Specifically, unlike collective non-integral citations that economically pack similar information and, therefore, consume only a limited space from the discourse [20], multiple individual citations spread throughout a large span of the text making the supporting literature more physically visible. This *diffused intertextuality* creates a sweeping force that overwhelms the readers with the presence of a large amount of supportive evidence and, therefore, contracts dialogic space for potential disagreement. This finding is contrary to Coffin [11], who found that integral individual citations expand dialogic space because their subjectivity indicates the potentially contentious and debatable nature of references. The difference between Coffin’s and the present findings, thus, shows that dialogic functions of referencing cannot be taken *a priori* as corresponding in a fixed one-to-one fashion to distinct forms of citations. Rather, forms of citations can perform different dialogic, contractive *and* expansive, functions depending on how they are used in extended discourse.

Another non-conventional practice in the data involves the use of combined citations and non-citations. In combined citations, writers generalize the statement and amplify the number of authors who are said to embrace it while subsequently validating the statement with only one or two studies in a non-integral format. This strategy allows writers to utilize all the benefits of integral citations, including the use of evaluation. It also performs a dialogic purpose. When a belief is generalized, it is portrayed as representing the natural state of affairs that is accepted by the discourse community and that needs to be treated as such by the readers as well. While the non-integral citation structure is the means through which consensual disciplinary knowledge is conventionally established [27], for the Arab writers, combined citations provided an additional means through which this knowledge-construction function is performed.

Finally, generalized and named non-citations wherein a reference is made to the literature in general or to more specific agents without concomitant in-text documentation were also used as available intertextual options. Both types of non-citations allowed writers to make a point that was seemingly supported due to its affiliation with an external voice. Generalized non-citations were more frequent in the English corpus, signaling the writers’ attempt to demonstrate their authorial voice by discovering patterns and trends in the literature. This type also performed the same dialogic function as that of combined citations by generalizing the proposition and, thus, narrowing the dialogic space for opposing positions. Named non-citations, on the other hand, were less frequent in the English corpus. The higher incidence of named non-citations in the Arabic corpus indicates a higher level of flexibility afforded to Arab academics in constructing their unique intertextual practices and, thus, the stronger authority they entertain as writers when addressing an Arabic-speaking audience.

To summarize, although sometimes to varying degrees, both corpora used citations to construe a similar authorial identity with a similar positioning towards the audience. The dimensions of identity that were projected included subjectivity and reliance on human agency (rather than reliance on evidence-based argumentation), authoritativeness and confidence (rather than recognition of counterarguments through expansion of dialogic space) and knowledgeability and extensiveness of disciplinary competence through the use of ideational repetition. Additionally, writers positioned themselves as in alignment rather than in dissonance with the texts they appropriated by using directly or indirectly endorsed tradition-continuing citations. Writers populated their discourse with textually visible and manifestly marked citations to instill the informativeness of their research and demonstrate their knowledgeability as disciplinary insiders. Simultaneously, they managed to interweave this intertextuality with their main arguments, diffuse, repeat, intensify, and positively appreciate it in a way that contracted dialogic space and made it difficult for alternative dialogic positions to be conferred.

5. Conclusion

The present study focused on the interplay between citation behavior, audience awareness and identity construction. Specifically, it investigated the use of citations by five Arab writers in their Arabic- and English-medium education research to describe the citation behavior characterizing Arabic discourse and to uncover whether a change in the cultural characteristics of the target audience would lead to modification of the intertextual style used for identity and knowledge construction. First, although the Arabic-based citation style displayed equivalence to some of the established academic norms to demonstrate the writers’ roles as insiders in the academic community, it also developed a unique character that contrasted, sometimes markedly, with these norms. This signals the pivotal role of culture that, in this case, overrode the influence of globalization of English as an academic lingua franca. Second, there was not a

comprehensive adoption of the English-based conventions in the English-medium texts as would presumably emanate from enculturation into disciplinary discourse and construction of community-recognized identity. Instead, the English-medium texts instantiated the case in which texts signal relationships with various and sometimes conflicting audiences [67]. Although the English texts aimed to claim membership to an English-using disciplinary community, they carried several traces of Arabic-based intertextual preferences. This salient orientation toward Arabic rhetoric could be a function of the western and Arab worlds being “cultural opposites” [48, p. 241], which makes it more difficult for Arab writers than writers from other writing cultures “to escape their ethnic/race identity easily” [44, p. 279]. Alternatively, it could be related to the possibility that positioning one’s voice in relation to other voices through intertextuality is less malleable and subject to modification [45] than other interpersonal facets of identity construction.

Although the present study provides insightful results concerning the complex nature of citation behavior employed by Arab writers, it did not directly compare their Education research with the Education research written by English-speaking academics. Therefore, the possibility that some of the identified features are a function of discipline-rather than culture-specific proclivities cannot be categorically ruled out. Also, the present case-based study which investigated a small sample of papers could be complemented with research utilizing a quantitative corpus-based approach to provide more generalizable evidence concerning Arab-preferential styles of intertextuality. Finally, the study did not control for the impact and prestige of the publication outlet of the analyzed papers. Therefore, some of the identified patterns could be associated with the nature of the journals in which the papers were published.

Notwithstanding the delimitations, recommendations can be offered for EAP pedagogy and material design in post-graduate institutions. Novice writers must be aware of the construct of audience and the need to be cognizant of its intertextual norms to be able to construct identity and knowledge in the way that this community finds acceptable and convincing. Student writers need to appreciate the fact that the nature of rhetoric, as well as authorial identity, are not context independent. Instead, they can be significantly impacted by their native cultural context. With such competence, student writers should be more capable of downplaying their native tendencies and of consciously attuning their interpersonal style to construct successful writer-reader interactions that are deemed engaging and appropriate by the target disciplinary community.

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