1. Syntactic and lexical features of academic discourse. The use of nouns. Lexical bundles.

- past tense/ present perfect in literature review
- nominalation/ different part of the article
- anaphoric nouns = these
- linking adverbs/ cohesive devices
- hedging /
- lexical density / lexical diversity and vocabulary of the texts.
- Academic collocation
- Academic Manchester bank
- Technical terms soft/hard sciences
- Formulaic language spoken discourse
- Lexical bundles: written discourse
- Noun/nounphrases/ clauses/

Challenging stereotypes about academic writing: Complexity, elaboration, explicitness

Our goal in the present paper is to challenge these stereotypes, based on results from large-scale corpus investi- gations.

Our findings strongly support the view that academic writing and conversation have dramatically different linguistic characteristics.

However, the specific differences are quite surprising. First, we show that academic writing is not structurally 'elaborated' (in the traditional sense of this term). In fact, subordinate clauses e especially finite dependent clauses e are much more common in conversation than academic writing. Instead, academic writing is structurally 'compressed', with phrasal (non- clausal) modifiers embedded in noun phrases. Additionally, we challenge the stereotype that academic writing is explicit in meaning.

In addition, researchers have claimed that academic writing is more explicit than speech. That is, while speech is dependent on a shared situational context, academic writing is claimed to be 'decontextualized', 'autonomous', or 'explicit', with all assumptions and logical relations being overtly encoded in the text notes both of these characteristics, writing that spoken grammar employs 'simple and short clauses, with little elaborate embedding

in contrast to written discourse, which employs longer and more complex clauses with embedded phrases and clauses', 'explicit and varied marking of clause relations', 'explicit presentation of ideas', and 'explicit indication of text organization'.

A few early studies present a different perspective, arguing that academic writing is actually more nominal than verbal.

Hyland (2002, p. 50), in a major ESP teacher education textbook, documents the widespread perceptions that academic writing is 'structurally elaborate, complex, abstract and formal', with 'more subordination' and 'more explicit coding of logical relations'.

Our central goal in the present paper is to challenge these stereotypes, based on the results of large-scale corpus investigations. We should be clear at the outset: We are not claiming that there are no clear-cut differences between academic writing and speech. In fact, we show that academic writing is fundamentally different from conversation in its grammatical characteristics.2

Characteristics :

1) we argue that both conversation and professional academic writing are structurally complex e but their complexities are dramatically different.

in some ways, conversation is more structurally elaborated than academic writing. In contrast, written academic discourse is actually much more 'compressed' than elaborated. In particular, subordinate clauses e especially finite dependent clauses e are much more common in conversation than in academic writing. In contrast, phrasal (non-clausal) modifiers embedded in noun phrases are the major type of structural complexity found in academic writing.

2) a consideration of the meaning relations among structural elements shows that academic written texts are not explicit at the grammatical level. Rather, the 'compressed' discourse style of academic writing is much less

Then, more specialized computer programs were developed for detailed linguistic analyses of specific types of structural elaboration.

For example, multi-dimensional studies of register variation (e.g., Biber, 1988, 1992, 2006) have shown repeatedly that certain dependent clause types (e.g., because-clauses and WH-clauses) are more strongly associated with speech than writing.

academic writing does not often employ dependent clauses for structural elaboration. Rather, we find a more 'compressed' style, employing embedded phrases rather than fuller dependent clauses

The second stereotype to be challenged is the characterization of academic writing as maximally explicit, in contrast to conversation, which relies heavily on implicit meaning.

Another structure of this type is appositive noun phrases: two noun phrases that occur in sequence, separated by a comma or parentheses.

Figures 5 and 6 document some of these historical changes, based on analysis of science/medical texts in the ARCHER Corpus and astronomy texts in the A Coruña Corpus. Figure 5 shows that nouns as pre-modifiers were generally rare in academic writing through the 18th and 19th centuries. They began to increase in the early 20th century, and have increased strongly in use over the course of that century. Similarly, Figure 6 shows that prepositional phrases as noun modifiers have increased strongly in use over the past century. Of-phrases were already prevalent in the 18th century, and their frequency has remained relatively constant.

A complementary stereotype is that academic writing has changed historically to become more speech-like and less formal. For example, researchers have noted that authors of modern academic prose sometimes refer directly to themselves (using the pronouns I and we; see Harwood, 2005) and assume the existence of a specific addressee (e.g., using imperative constructions; see Swales, Ahmad, Chang, Chavez, Dressen, & Seymour, 1998).

> In contrast to the academic professional, the compact, inexplicit discourse styles of research articles are difficult for novice students. This is because students lack the specialist knowledge that would allow them to readily infer the expected meaning of compact, inexplicit constructions.

An academic word list should play a crucial role in setting vocabulary goals for language courses, guiding learners in their independent study,
After discussing issues
that arise in the creation of a word list through a corpus-based study, I
describe the methods used in compiling the Academic Corpus and in
developing the AWL. The next section examines the coverage of the

AWL relative to the complete Academic Corpus and to its four discipline-specific subcorpora.

describe the vocabulary of a particular register, such as academic texts, the corpus must therefore contain texts that are representative of the varieties of texts they are intended to reflect

corpus. Organizing the corpus into coh sections of equal size allows the researcher to measure the rang occurrence of the academic vocabulary across the different discip and subject areas of the c

of texts), each text was inserted area computer file in alphabetical order according to the Each subject-area file was then inserted into a discipline alphabetical order according to the subject. Any text selection criteria but was not included in the Academi its corresponding subject area was complete was kept a second corpus used to test the AWL's coverage at a l

resulting corpus contained 414 academic texts by authors, containing 3,513,330 tokens (running words) (individual words) in approximately 11,

. To maintain a balance of long and short texts, the four main sections (and, within each section, the seven subject areas) each contained approximately equal numbers of short texts

(2,000-5,000 running words), medium texts (5,000-10,000 running words), and long texts (more than 10,000 running words).

nd 2 university psychology laboratory manuals.

The majority of the texts were written for an international audie Sixty-four percent were sourced in New Zealand, 20% in Britain, 13% the United States, 2% in Canada, and 1% in Australia. It is difficult t exactly what influence the origin of the texts would have on the cor for even though a text was published in one country, at least some o authors may well have come from anWords selected based on the criteria:

Specialized occurance (Arts, commerce, law, and science texts)

range

frequency

he list appears to be slightly advantageous for commerce students, as it covers 12.0% of the commerce subcorpus. The coverage of arts and of law is very similar (9.3% and 9.4%, respectively), and the coverage of science is the lowest among the four disciplines (9.1%). The 3.0% difference between the coverage of the commerce subcorpus and the coverage of the other three subcorpora may result from the presence of key lexical items such as economic, export, finance, and income, which occur with very high frequency in commerce texts. (Se

pus, I compiled a second corpus of academic te English, using the same criteria and sources to select texts and divi them into the same four disciplines. This corpus comprised ap mately 678,000 tokens (82,000 in arts, 53,000 in commerce, 143, law, and 400,000 in science) representing 32,539 types of le

The Academic Word List includes 570 word families that constitute a

specialised vocabulary with good coverage of academic texts, regardles of the subject area. It accounts for 10% of the total tokens in the Academic Corpus, and more than 94% of the words in the list occur in 20 or more of the 28 subject areas of the Academic

Courses that involve direct attention to language features have been found to result in better learning than courses that rely solely on incidental learning (Ellis, 1990; Long, 1988). Using subdivisions of the AWL, teachers and students can set short-term vocabulary learning goals of reasonable size during courses of study. The AWL can be divided into 10 rank-ordered sublists according to decreasing word family

frequency (Table 9).

Direct teaching through vocabulary exercises, teacher explanation, and awareness raising, and deliberate learning using word cards need to be balanced with opportunities to meet the vocabulary in message-focused reading and listening and to use the vocabulary in speaking and writing

> Good knowledge of academic vocabulary is essential for success at higher levels of education (Corson, 1997). By highlighting the words that university students will meet in a wide range of academic texts, the AWL provides the foundation for a systematic approach to academic vocabulary development and may serve as a useful basis for further research into the nature of academic vocabulary.

2. Cohesive patterns in academic discourse. Lexical cohesion. Anaphoric nouns.

- cohesive
- coherence : relation between the text and readers
- lexical cohesion : collocation, synonyms, repitions, substitution,
- grammatical coherence : reference pronoun/ substitution

The place of signalling nouns in research on the vocabulary of English
1) general nouns (Halliday and Hasan, 1976) —> many concrete nouns
2)Type 3 vocabulary (Winter 1977) —> verbs and adjectives
Which words and phrases are core members of the class, and which are peripheral (portable to attach)?

1) Nouns are members of thing, fact , problem, idea, argument, possibility, chapter, and kind.
2) Thing: is general noun (Halliday and Hasan, 19767) , other general nouns include people, stuff, move, and place
3) Fact : a logical coherence relation (peripheral member). Other nouns include basis, cause, problem, and solution.

4) idea : is a mental noun include belief, view, interpretation, and theory

5) Argument : is a speech noun. Francis (1986) subcategorises "utterance" nouns into illocutionary and verbal activity group. Schmidt subcategorises into prepositional and illocutionary groups. Others include : question, claim, example, and summary.
6) Possibilty : is a modal noun and is included in Francis including opportunity, tendency, need, and certainty

7) chapter is textual signpost icluding lecture, introduction, section, and paragraph

8) Kind is an example of a partitive noun of quality or species noun inlcuding type, part, sort, and piece.

Teaching those missing links in writing1
linguistic features = Cohesive devices are crucial in writing signalling the relationship between ideas and making obvious the thread of meaning by the writer

missing teaching method for this connective devices

Teaching suggestion :
1) classifying linking devices according to their grammatical functions i.e.,
conjunction (and , or , but) subordinate conjunction (although, because, if) and
cunjunctive adverb (on the other hand, nevertheless)
2) learning coordinate conjunction CONNECTS independent clause, subordinate
TRANSFORM the independent clauses into subordinate clause, conjunctive adverb
HAVE SEMANTIC weight but no grammatical function
3) Completion Exercise
4) sentence combining
5) longer unit of discourse
6)

3 Disciplinary variations in academic discourse. IMRaD, moves and steps.
- lexical bundles
- organization based on the movement
- establishing a niche, occupying a niche (objective of the study) = introduction parts

4. Oral academic genres:
- language signposting
- spoken/written
- non-verbal / presentation (visual representation)
- eyes contact/gestures
- metalinguistic markers
- formulaic language formation
- modes
- Allison and Tauroza _ The Effect of Discourse Organization on Lecture Comprehension
- Main Points :
- Investigation of L1 English undergraduate students have difficulties in a lecture whose beyond a basic problem-solution structure.
- The study replicated an experiment of 50 students whom English is a second langauge showing that the difficulties of the L2 subjects were also found among the L1 subjects indicating that the most basic problem-solution discourse pattern present difficulties for a significant minority of science undergraduates whatever their language background.
- Problems = video played L2 students provided oral summary with good discourse markers but failed to understand the main point of the lecture.
- Elaboration lecture may be difficult for some students
- Evaluation is the final stage in the model-problem-solution discourse
-
- **Problems with Elaborate Discourse : Linguistic and/or Cultural?**
- One aspect for L2 subjects difficulties in elaborating the disourse is due to a lack of familiarity with the structure and goals of the discourse as whole
- Academic discipline: Science students will be used to hearing a series of facts

and situation described in their lectures.
-        The studies meantioned that L1 and L2 students face the same problem regardles their English proficiency. In fact, substantially different, discourse questions structures might have been constrastsing .
-
-        Methods: lecture excrept with the topic entitled Human as Information Processors: (1) Introduction, (2) Problem, (3) Solution, (4) EValuation
-        Results:
-        The native English speakers in the present study were much more likely than the Cantonese-spekaing subjects un the earlier study to reporst the PROBLEM and the SOLUTION. Omission happen among Non-NES. Differences on the SITUATION and DETAILS are less strongly pronounced.Reagrdign EVOLUTION NES response devided among correct, contradictory and unclassifiable reports. in contrast with N-NES did not report anything regarding the EVALUATION. It seems the fact that a similar proposrtion of NES and N-NES contradict in terms of EVALUATION section.
-
-        With regards to the EVOLUTION, NES indicates problems in recognising speakers reservations about a proposed solution in which L2 speakers didn't confirm.
- This result suggested that improving the langauage proficiency of L2 learners will not suffice to overcome failry widespread difficulties with this form of dicourse elaboration.
- Studies in NES showed that Reading implicates study skills, background knowledge, associative memory and reasoning as well as language proficiency and there are no reasons that NES superiority is obvious.
- Another suggestion is that might be a potential structural ambiguity in transcript so filtering is helptful to block the error or omission, distortion and interference. Given more access to the students who had watched the video, it would have been useful here to ask what the lecturer thinks might lead to error.
-
- It is also suggested that "misunderstaning" of the *evalution* section are likely to be primarily relatable to "educational" cultural factor.
-
-

5. Academic integrity. Citation practices. Plagiarism

- behavior honesty
- generalization (in frequent) multiple authors
- summary for 1 author
- attributing to someone according to, showing link
- citation integral – author /
- non integral (simple) / information / sciences
- link between the references
- stereotype / oral presentation on plagiarism
- Sowden vs Liu plagiarism
- Culture behind the plagiarism, the only way to avoid is doing the presentation and oral presentation

16) Lee _ Practices of L2 University Students in First-year writing: Form, function and stance

This paper uses a multi-perspective analytical approach (form, function, and stance). L2 students use a restricted range of reporting structure and use source for attribution function to display tgheir knowledge of the topics. For strong positive or negative stance position, L2 student writers adopt a non-commitall stance by merely aknowledging or distancing themselves from cited materials, meaning L2 students are inclined to show diference to the perceived authority of published sources.

Citation/ reference is of the distinguishing features of academic writing.
Citation is to provide justification, and evidence for arguments and claims, demonstrating familiarity with the literature; show (dis)alignment with particular scholarship; and establish credibility.
RA —> Research Articles of Citation including citation integration, presentation, frequency, and reporting verb usage, with the greatest division between soft and hard knowledge fields.

Studies showed:
RA and graduate level writers contrast in the way of citation due to several factors involving discipline, genre (and part-genre), and lingua-culture, interact in complex ways in the use of citations in student writing
MICUSP = Michigan Corpus of Upper-level Student Papers
FYW = First Year Writing
Integration citation, Undergraduate and graduate students the source in the sentence grammar (i.e., integral citations), non-integral citation depend on factors suhc as wriitng experience, disciplines and genre, stance is unusually integrated with attribution in students writing.
Most studies discussed L2 undergraduate student writers use of source, challenges that L2 experience in integrating sources and problem they may tackle.

To analyse the surface forms of the citations, four categories of citation: direct quotation, block quotation, (direct quotes of 40 or more words), summary (and generalization. (Hyland, 1999)
Integral Citations= *McBrien (2005) observes that education is one of the key tools that can be used to transform the lives of the refugee children.*
Non-Integral Citation= *In the contemporary world, numerous people are consuming dietary supplements, and statistics showing over 50% of American adults take them often (Dickinson & MacKay, 2014)*—> emphasis on the reported message

The search for citation includes **Reporting verb** (e.g argue, assume, define), **Nouns** (e.g., argument, assumption, definition) **including research nouns** (i.e., data, evidence, investigation) and writer **Nouns** (i.e., author, scholar, scientist), **pronouns** (e.g., He, She, They), and **Preposition Phrses** (e.g., according to X, in X's article, by X)

In terms of Rhetorical Functions (Function Typology)= Attribution, exemplification, further reference, statement of use, application, evaluation, establishing links between sources, comparison of one's own findings or interpretation with other sources, and other.

Writer stance refers to an affective position a writer takes hard the words, observations, viewpoints, theories comprising the referenced source:

For example:
1) Evaluative formulation = X clearly shows..
2) Stance Nouns (X's argument that…) and
3) Contextual and contextual cues (another problems in X's article.

RESULTS :
1) **Surface**
Professional summary is mainly adressed to SUMMARY. The second citation is GENERALIZATION (the most effective way to achive writer's argument) but not in Corpus, prediction the L2 student writers have considerable difficulties in synthesizing mjultiple sources an advancing their argument and suppporting their claims.

MICUSP papers in humanities and social sciences 19% citation to be direct quotations.

Greater inclusion of brief quotation is indicatives of less proficient writers , L2 student writers encountered enormous challenges in using the directly borrowed materal to establish their own voice.
Science texts use Non-integral citation
MICUSP in humanities and social sciences use Integral forms 80%.

Using Integral citation places prominence on the messenger on cited authors in the text, another reason students use integral citation because it is a common way in which they have been instructed in integrating sources in academic writing.
The verb "**SAY**" frequently occurs in social sciences. While **SHOW** and **FIND** are f*actual status of a report*
Common citation in corpus :
(1) *the X + Verb + that clause*
(2) accordign to X,
(3) By X
(4) in X's article

t*he X + Verb + that clause* is less frequent in L2 students text, according to X is also common on L2's writing because students want to sound more formal or professional.

3) Rhetorical functions of citations in student writing
L2 students apply *attribution* due to remaining descriptive for knowledge telling purposes (i.e. retelling odl information) rtaher tahn to be analytical with the goal of "knowledge transformation)
10 most frequent reporting words :
1) SAY
2) STATE
3) REPORT
4) SHOW
5) FIND

6) DESCRIBE
7) USE
8) CLAIM
9) INDICATE
10) TALK

Anotehr rhetorical citation is *Evaluation*, *Exemplification* and *establishing links betweens sources.*

4) Writer stance in students wriitng
1) Acknowledge
2) Distance
3) Endorse
4) Contest

Negatives strong stands are relavant to L2 student writers, and strong positive stance belong to professional writers due to allowing writers to advance their own arguments.
L2 student writers show that as the authors of the texts may be viewed as more knowledgable experts and their words, ideas, viewpoints to be credible, reliable, and authoritative.

L2 students writer may face difficulties in synthesizing multiple sources as few generalization (i.e., multiple sources cited together)

L2 student writes are frequent on the use of integral citations

L2 student writers are mininal in the use *X+verb+ that clause* compared with high-rated L1 student writing.

In term of rhetoric function, attribution is of paramount importance for L2 stduents writers indicating they are still in th eprocess of developing their ability to take advanteg if the host more rhetorically complex purposes for citing sources.

6 Academic communities: experts and newcomers, native and non-native speakers
- **publication**
- **journal of world englishes : international invites**
- **native vs non-natve speakers**
- **vague nouns/ simple lexical features : tentative verbs/ hedging verbs/**
- **non-native**
- 20) Aull, L. L., & Lancaster, Z. (2014). Linguistic markers of stance in early and advanced academic writing- A corpus-based comparison.pdf
- Keywords : *linguistic expressions of stance by incoming first-year university students vs upper-level undergraduate students and published academics.*
-
- ***Finding** : points to a developmental trajectory include hedges, booster,*

code glosses, and adversative/contrast connectors.

-
- **Introduction**
- Stance is under the discussion of evaluation, appraisal, evidentiality, metadiscourse, positioning. Stance is really important in early and upper-level English L2 academic writing.
- L1 and L2 English in the US have to attend the First-year writing or composition class.

-
- The Study
- This study is conducted in University of Michigan (UM) and Wake Forest University (WFU)
- 4,032 corpus institution's direct self-placement (DSP) process.
- The upper-level graduates students consist 615 papers writtend by advanced undergraduate and FY to third-year graduate students wriitng as the corpus and scholarly journal.
- Three different field Humanities, Social Sciences, and Natural Sciences.

-
- AntConc (Anthony, 2011) is selected to analyse the text for in terms of concordance.

-
- **Findings : Hedging and Boosting (adjusting commitment)**
- **Hedging** —> *evidential verbs* e.g the research suggests, indicates. ***Modal of verb probabliity*** e.g. may, might, could. **Approximately adverb** e.g. genrally, likely, possibly. ***Downtowners and minimizer*** e.g. somewhat, almost, nearly
- - *generally, truly, certainly,, seem*
- - *often* (most frequent by all groups)
- - most advanced writer uses *primarily*
- **-** *apparently, generally*

-
- **Boostings** —> **amplifying or intensifying adverbs** e.g. absolutely, clearly, likelihood, certainty, attitude, style
- - highly likely or certainly unlikely
- -generally, primarily, certainly, undoubtedly, definitely

-
- The term ***Code Glosses*** refers to linguistic resources that help readers grasp the appropriate meaning of element in texts : ***Reformulation*** and ***Exemplification***. *It includes moves from one sentence to another sentence.*
- *Example : in other words* (formulation) and *for instance* (exemplification)
- Upperr and Scholar use more code glosses involving *reformulation* and *exemplification* than FY students especially in the case of *reformulation*.

-
- Advanced level students used marked exemplification by s*uch as, for example, for instance,* and other wordings
- - reduced the scoped content i.e. *especially, specifically,* particularly etc
- - paraphrasing to be more precise i.e. *that is, in other words*

-
- **EXPRESSING CONCESSION AND CONTRAST**
- **Contrast connections —>***However, but and nevertheles*

- Two functional categories (1) concessive/counter connector on the one hand, and contrast connectors on the other hand
- - **Concessive/counter markers:** *However, certainly, of course, obviously,although, but, yet, though, while, nevertheless, at the same time, nonetheless, still correct*—> counterexpectancy
-
- - **Contrast :** *in contrast, on the other hand, rather, whereas, by contrast, conversely, alternatively*
-
- **Q1 : FY students** tend to underuse approximate hedges, code glosses, concession and contrast expression **whlle their more advanced peers and expert academic writers** tend to draw on these linguisytic resources more frequently. In contrast, **FY students** tend to overuse intensifying boosters and adversative connectors without concession
-
- Q2: Complexity issues in academic writing. For instance, advanced student academic writing in history showed that texts produced by the most advanced writers were marked by a more dialogically expansive stance. This study contributes to show that complexity in academic stance to be especially related to awareness of others views. It means that FY writers to be those that help construcy a sufficiently honed and cautious stance in a community of many views. Additionally, the advanced writers' more frequent use of approximative **hedges** (i.e., *possibly, generally*), **reformulation markers** (i.e., *in particular, put another way*) and **contrast expression** (e.g i*n contrast, alternatively*)
-
- Beginning writers use more frequent of certain type of **Boosters** like *very* and *certainly* and **concessive/counter** connectors like *However.*
-
- Stance to emphasize author's point of view, logical or accessible fro someone reading the discourse of the authors, and emphasize the positioning of one's argument amid existing views in a larger academic conversation.
-
21) Hinkel, E. (2003). Simplicity with elegance- Features of sentences in L1 and L2 academic texts. TESOL Quarterly, 37(2), 275–301..pdf
- This study was done in US by non-native-English-speaking students
- Simple syntactic and lexical construction, such as be copula as the main verb; predicative adjective, vague nouns, and public, private and expecting/tentave verbs shows higher than native English speakers.
- Focus = grammar and vocabulary by non-native and native speakers
- Non-native speakers' academic texts tend to be limited lexical repertoire that results in vague and less sophisticated prose relative to taht of Ns.
- be+ copula or linking verbs (e.g. become, grow, seem/appear) for example students are responsinle for their studying, grades or not.
- Findings:
- 1) be+Copula is more common in NNS that NS texts.
- 2) Predicataive adjective (*important, mature, incapable,contradictory, and anxious*) is higher in NNS than NS
- 3) It-cleft is higher in NS than NNS e.g. It is clear that…., It is because …

- 4) vague words (such as grades, lessons, people, things, class) are higher in NNS texts.
- 5) public and private verbs are higher in NS than in NNS.
- 6) public verbs (e.g., say, tell, talk, ask, write and speak)/ Provate verbs (e.g., believe, feel, lear, study, think, understand)
- 7) in Conversation discourse the most frequent private verbs include see, know, think, find, feel, and remember.
- Concluison = simple syntactic and lexical feature of NNS are high than NS.
- moving adjective from predicare (e.g. students are careful) into a careful student (atribution to a Noun)

22) Hinkel, E. (2004). Tense, aspect and the passive voice in L1 and L2 academic texts. Language Teaching Research, 8(1), 5–29..pdf
the past, present and future tenses, the progressive and the perfetc aspects and the passive verbs.
Finding
NNS use past-tense verbs than NS
NS use Present tense for generalizable observation
the use of future tense is higher in NNS than NS
NNS avoid to use progressive and perfect aspects however the use of this aspect is common in introductory sections of academic papers.
NNS less syntactic and semantic complexity verb structure

Conclusion:
NNS use past time more than NS. For example, Swales and Feak (1994, 2000) note that such verbs as considered, done, found, given, made, shown, or used, are almost always employed in passive constructions, and predominantly in the present tense.
In the context of academic prose, L2 writers need to be strongly encouraged to avoid using the future tense and instead use modal verbs, such as may, can and could.

7 Critical writing: Stance, evaluation, hedging and boosting. The Literature Review

Students used most a lot of quotations not generalization as synthesis of claims
Hedges = **might, probably, seem, believe, likely, may**
Boosters ; **clearly, obviously, of course, clearly show, strongly suggest**
Intensifier = definitely, clearly show, the fact that
T**emporal intensifiers** = never and consistently
epistemic verbs = suggest, and indicate

This paper examines the citation from the doctoral theses in literature part of 20 students based on the home-grown and overseas-trained chinese and interview of 20 writers. the findings showed a greater use of integral citation, authors as agent. 10 from studying in China and 10 studying in the UK, USA, or Australia. This study uses NVibo
Home-grown students = lexical devices loaded with evaluation
overseas trained students = syntactic and discourse devices.

construction of authorial voices is to view the representatom of one's point of view or negotiation of one's discursive identity or academic visibility.

Integral vs non-integral citation = integral citation use the name of the cited author as a grammatical constituent of the sentenc, whereas in non-integral the cited author's name is either placed in parentheses or noted by superscript number.

Integral accentuates the cited authors and non-integral citations foregrounds the reported proposition.

Non-Integral citations: the writer's voice is believed to be dominant and the author's voice to be a satellite component of the writer's argument.

Integral citation : a) Author as subject of the sentence; b) Author as agent (e.g. "It was proposed by Smith (2002)"); c) Author as adjunct (e.g. "According to Smith (2002)" or "As Smith (2002) points out"); and d) Author in noun phrase (NP) (e.g. "Smith's (2002) theory" or "The theory proposed by Smith (2002)").

Findings:
1. subject who did what
2. conjunctive adverbs i.e., furthermore and sometimes
3. *assimilation* (summary and generalization) than chinese counterpart
4. the greater frequency of summary identified in the overseas training students are more acculturated into this English discursive feature.
5. Direct quotation (quotation fragment, brief quotation, extended quotation)
6. overseas trianed chinese students displayed significantly greater use of non-integral citations, authors as agent in integral forms, and summary than the howe grown students.
7. more positive and critical reporting verbs were found in the HGWT than in OTWT expecting that home grown chinese students expresses stronger authorial voice that overseas students.
8. authorial voice is more often communicated via lexical devices loaded with evaluation by the 10 HGWT.