

# **How Early-Career Researchers Use Citations to Build Arguments in Their Literature Reviews?**

by

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## **Abstract**

This study investigates the role of citations in constructing academic arguments within the literature reviews of early-career graduate students in Canada. A qualitative content analysis of the literature reviews of the six published articles in the *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education* was conducted to explore citation practices and patterns. The findings of this study highlighted that citation moves are instrumental in constructing well-developed arguments in academic writing, early-career academic writers often struggle to incorporate counterarguments in their citation practices. While the inclusion of rebuttals significantly enhances the persuasiveness and quality of arguments, literature reviews can still be persuasive in the absence of rebuttals. By providing insights into how citations function within literature reviews, this study offers recommendations for improving citation practices and supporting graduate students in developing their academic writing skills.

**Key words:** Academic writing, graduate writing skills, citation, argumentation

## **General Summary**

This study examines how graduate students in Canada use references (citations) to support their ideas in academic papers. It focuses on early-career students and examines how they write their literature review sections by analyzing six articles from a Canadian journal. The research shows that using citations is important for building strong arguments, but many students find it challenging to include opposing viewpoints. While adding these counterarguments can make their points more convincing, it's still possible to write a persuasive review without them. The study suggests ways to improve how students use citations and offers advice to help them strengthen their writing skills. These insights can guide students in becoming better at expressing their ideas clearly and effectively in their academic work.

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## **Chapter one: Introduction**

### **1.1 Background of the study**

Academic writing is a fundamental aspect of graduate education, it helps share knowledge, engage with other scholars, and develop intellectual skills (Hyland, 2009; Swales, 1990). It enables students and researchers to contribute to ongoing academic conversations by critically engaging with existing literature and presenting original insights. One of the core elements of academic writing is citation, which not only attributes sources but also plays a pivotal role in constructing arguments, establishing credibility, and positioning research within broader scholarly discourse (Harwood, 2009). Citation practices help authors build on previous work, justify their claims, demonstrate an awareness of disciplinary conventions, and engage in intertextual dialogues with other scholars (Hyland, 2000). The ability to use citations effectively is particularly critical in literature reviews, where researchers synthesize, evaluate, and integrate prior studies to establish the foundation for their own research contributions.

For Canadian graduate students, particularly those in the early stages of their academic careers, mastering the strategic use of citations in literature reviews is essential for producing high-quality scholarly work. The literature review serves as a platform for demonstrating one's understanding of the field, identifying research gaps, and articulating the significance of a study within a given disciplinary context. However, integrating citations effectively remains a persistent challenge for early-career researchers, as it requires more than just knowledge of referencing formats such as APA, MLA, or Chicago. Instead, it involves an advanced ability to interpret, synthesize, and incorporate existing literature in a way that supports argument development and aligns with disciplinary expectations.

A key difficulty lies in the implicit nature of citation instruction in many graduate programs. While students are often provided with guidelines on avoiding plagiarism and following citation styles, they receive limited explicit training on the rhetorical and argumentative functions of citations (McCulloch, 2012). As a result, many struggle with determining when and how to cite sources effectively. Research indicates that novice writers frequently cite without fully understanding the rhetorical purposes of their citations, leading to weak argumentation, excessive reliance on source material, or ineffective source integration (Pecorari, 2008; Shi, 2008).

The increasing emphasis on academic integrity and research transparency further underscores the importance of developing graduate students' citation skills. In an era where academic dishonesty, including unintentional plagiarism, is a growing concern, it is crucial to equip early-career researchers with the knowledge and skills to cite responsibly and purposefully (Pecorari, 2008). Beyond avoiding plagiarism, effective citation use reflects a researcher's ability to engage critically with existing knowledge, construct well-supported arguments, and contribute meaningfully to scholarly conversations within their discipline. Given these challenges and the essential role citations play in academic writing, it is imperative to investigate how graduate students employ citations in literature reviews and what pedagogical interventions may enhance their citation practices. By examining citation use in early-career publications, this study seeks to provide insights into how Canadian early-career researchers build arguments through citations, the challenges they encounter, and how academic writing instruction can be improved to support their development as scholarly writers.

## 1.2 Statement of the problem

Citations are a fundamental aspect of academic writing (Hyland, 2000; Swales, 1990). However, despite the recognized importance of citations in academic writing, there is limited research on how early-career researchers, particularly graduate students, take advantage of citations to build arguments in literature reviews. Literature reviews serve as a foundation for scholarly inquiry, allowing researchers to critically engage with existing knowledge, identify research gaps, and justify their contributions. The effectiveness of a literature review relies not only on the inclusion of relevant sources but also on how citations are strategically integrated to support argumentation (Harwood, 2009).

Many graduate students struggle with the rhetorical functions of citations, often treating them as a procedural requirement rather than as a tool for argument construction (Shi, 2008). Research suggests that novice writers tend to cite sources without fully understanding their rhetorical purpose, leading to underdeveloped arguments and a lack of critical engagement with the literature (Petricić, 2012). In some cases, students rely on citations to demonstrate coverage of existing research rather than to actively position their work within disciplinary debates (Harwood, 2009).

One of the primary challenges contributing to ineffective citation use is the implicit nature of citation instruction in graduate education. Academic writing courses and workshops in institutions often prioritize citation formats (e.g., APA, MLA, Chicago) and plagiarism avoidance over the deeper rhetorical and argumentative functions of citation use (McCulloch, 2012). While students may become proficient in citation mechanics, they often receive little guidance on how to integrate sources critically, synthesize multiple perspectives, and use citations to develop a coherent scholarly argument (Pecorari, 2008). This gap in instruction leaves students uncertain

about when and how to cite effectively, leading to inconsistent and sometimes superficial engagement with sources in their literature reviews.

Given these challenges, there is a pressing need for research that examines how early-career researchers construct arguments through citations in literature reviews. A better understanding of their citation practices can inform pedagogical strategies, leading to more explicit and structured instructional approaches in graduate education. By identifying common difficulties and gaps in citation knowledge, this study aims to provide insights that will help graduate students develop stronger academic writing skills, engage more critically with existing research, and establish their scholarly voice within their disciplines. Ultimately, addressing these citation-related challenges will not only enhance the quality of literature reviews but also contribute to broader efforts in fostering academic integrity and responsible research practices in higher education.

### **1.3 Research objectives**

This study aims to investigate how graduate students use citations to construct arguments in literature reviews of their early-career publications in a Canadian journal. As mentioned earlier, literature reviews serve as a foundation for academic research, allowing scholars to engage with existing knowledge, establish research gaps, and justify their contributions. However, the ways in which graduate students integrate citations to build arguments remain underexplored, particularly in the Canadian academic context. By examining citation practices, this study seeks to enhance our understanding of how early-career researchers navigate scholarly discourse and develop their academic voice. To be more specific, it aims to explore the role of citations in building arguments. Moreover, insights gained from this research will inform strategies for improving writing

pedagogy, ensuring that graduate students receive the necessary support to develop advanced citation skills.

Overall, by analyzing literature reviews of published papers, this study will offer recommendations for enhancing academic writing instruction, contributing to the development of more effective and discipline-specific citation training.

#### **1.4 Research questions**

According to what has been described, the study seeks to answer the following research question:

- How do early-career Canadian graduate students employ citations to build arguments in their literature reviews?

Addressing this question will help bridge the gap between theoretical knowledge and practical application in academic writing instruction. By examining the specific citation behaviors of graduate students, the study aims to highlight the areas where additional support and guidance may be needed.

#### **1.5 Significance of the study**

This study contributes to the understanding of how graduate students use citations to construct arguments in their literature reviews. The findings might benefit graduate students, academic writing instructors, and researchers in understanding the significance of citations in

constructing arguments. Additionally, the study may inform curriculum design and instructional approaches, leading to more explicit training in citation practices to enhance scholarly writing skills.

Furthermore, understanding citation use is crucial in addressing broader concerns about academic integrity, plagiarism, and knowledge construction in higher education (Pecorari, 2008). By equipping students with a deeper awareness of how citations function within scholarly discourse, educators can foster stronger critical thinking skills and encourage ethical writing practices.

## **1.6 Scope and limitations**

This study focuses on the citation practices of graduate students in literature reviews of their early-career publications. It does not examine citation use in other sections of academic papers or by more experienced researchers. Additionally, the study is limited to a specific academic context and may not be generalizable to other educational systems or disciplines outside Canada. The study relies on a qualitative analysis of selected literature reviews, which may limit the generalizability of the findings. Moreover, since academic writing conventions vary across disciplines, the results may be more applicable to certain fields than others. Despite these limitations, the study aims to offer valuable insights that can inform academic writing instruction and citation pedagogy.

## 1.7 Methodology

This study adopts a qualitative research approach to examine how graduate students use citations to construct arguments in literature reviews. Qualitative research is particularly well-suited for this inquiry because it allows for an in-depth exploration of citation practices, offering rich insights into the ways students integrate sources to build scholarly arguments (Cleary et al., 2014). By focusing on the rhetorical and argumentative functions of citations, this study aims to move beyond surface-level citation practices and uncover the underlying strategies students employ in their academic writing.

To ensure that the study captures relevant data, a purposive sampling technique was employed to select early-career researchers who have published in the *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*. This journal was chosen because it features research articles by graduate students and emerging scholars, making it an ideal source for examining how individuals at the early stages of their academic careers engage with citations. Purposeful sampling ensures that the selected texts align with the study's objectives by focusing on writers who are still developing their academic literacy and citation skills.

The primary data for this study will consist of literature review sections from selected early-career publications. The decision to focus on literature reviews is intentional, as this section of academic writing relies heavily on the strategic use of citations to position arguments, engage with existing research, and establish a foundation for new contributions (Swales, 1990). By analyzing literature reviews, the study can identify recurring citation patterns and explore how graduate students use sources to support claims, synthesize ideas, and establish their scholarly voice.

A systematic approach was used to analyze the selected texts, employing established theoretical frameworks to interpret citation practices. Specifically, Toulmin's (2003) model of argumentation provides a lens for examining how citations function within the structure of academic arguments, identifying components such as claims, evidence, warrants, and counterarguments. Additionally, Harris's (2017) citation moves were adopted to explore how citations contribute to strengthening arguments. The analysis involved multiple stages of coding to ensure a rigorous and structured examination of citation practices. Following Saldaña's (2016) coding framework, an initial coding phase focused on categorizing different types of citations (e.g., direct quotations, paraphrases, summary citations), while subsequent coding phases examined the rhetorical and argumentative functions of these citations within the broader discourse.

## **1.8 Outline of the thesis**

This thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter one introduces the research topic, objectives, significance, and scope of the study. Chapter two provides a comprehensive review of relevant literature on citation practices, argumentation in academic writing, and instructional approaches to citation use and argumentation. Chapter three outlines the research methodology, including the study design, data collection, and analysis methods, ensuring a thorough approach to investigating citation practices. Chapter four presents the findings and discusses their implications, linking them to existing theories and pedagogical practices. Finally, chapter five summarizes the study, highlights key contributions, and suggests directions for future research, emphasizing potential applications in graduate education and academic writing instruction.

## **Chapter two: Literature review**

### **2.1 Introduction**

Writing the literature review is widely considered one of the most challenging forms of academic writing due to its requirement of a sophisticated argument (Hart, 2018). One of the key organizational tools to the process of argument construction is citations (Hyland, 2004). While extensive research has examined the language and rhetorical strategies employed in the literature review (e.g., Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2004; Kwan, 2006), the use of citations within this genre has received comparatively less attention. This gap underscores the need to explore how citations are applied to construct arguments.

Accordingly, the chapter opens with an exploration of the nature of writing, focusing specifically on academic writing and the challenges it presents, it then follows the discussion of graduate-level writing and the significance of publishing for graduate students. The subsequent sections examine an academic literacies approach, the literature review as a genre, role of argumentation within literature review, and the structure of arguments (Toulmin's model, 2003). Moreover, the chapter examines the role of citations in literature reviews, Harris's (2017) citation moves, and the relationship between argumentation and citation.

### **2.2 Writing**

It is commonly acknowledged that effective writing is critical for both educational and professional contexts (Tuan, 2010). Effective writing is the one that conveys ideas clearly, logically, and persuasively to the intended audience (Hyland, 2012; Swales & Feak, 2012). Academics are expected not only to write but also to contribute to the advancement of their fields

through publishing professional papers (Kamler & Thomson, 2006; Pruitt-Logan, 2003). Similarly, effective writing has enormous importance in establishing a career (Hyland, 2013); seeking job opportunities, applying for the job, sustaining the job, and also career-related communication demands good writing skills (Karim et al., 2017). Taken together, as writing opens the door to progress in almost any field a person might opt for in the future, there is an urgent need to master it (Hosseini et al., 2013).

Given the significant role of writing in both academic and professional contexts, it is essential to recognize the nature of academic writing, which is addressed in the subsequent section.

## **2.3 Academic writing**

Generally speaking, academic writing refers to a process of writing that is required in any academic situation or “ways of thinking and using language which exist in the academy” (Hyland, 2009, p. 1). It is demonstrated in research papers, term papers, journal articles, theses, dissertations, assignments. To be more specific, it refers to any writing used for academic purposes (Yakhontova, 2003). This type of writing is also called *disciplinary* writing (Hyland, 2012; Yağiz, 2009) since it has the same academic purposes i.e., creation of new knowledge (Torrance et al., 1994) and definition of the intellectual boundaries of the writers’ disciplines and their areas of expertise (Swales, 1990).

Academic writing is different from other forms of writing (Ariyanti, 2016) although there might be some overlaps between academic writing and other types of writing such as journalistic or creative writing, academic writing is still different in many respects (Swales & Feak, 2012). One of the key characteristics of academic writing is that it is tied to disciplines and reader expectations

in those disciplines (Hyland, 2012). Each academic field has distinct norms regarding structure, style, methodology, and evidence presentation, which are essential for effective communication within that community (Swales & Feak, 2012). Understanding these disciplinary conventions is crucial for graduates and scholars, as it enhances their ability to engage critically with texts and produce work that meets the expectations of their specific fields (Hyland, 2012). Effective disciplinary writing involves not only mastering content but also understanding the audience's expectations and the context in which the writing will be received (Swales & Feak, 2012). Accordingly, academic writers are often expected to write in positions as experts, even when they might not consider themselves experts (Tardy, 2010).

Another key feature of academic writing is its persuasive nature (Andrews, 2010). Academic writers should be capable of processing ideas to transform them into something meaningful and logical (Setyowati, 2016) to persuade or convince readers about the correct claims on relevant issues (Sudirman et al., 2020). Academic writing often builds on existing research, presenting evidence-based arguments to advance knowledge or offer alternative perspectives (Hyland, 2009). By engaging such critical evaluation, writers create a logical framework for presenting and defending their positions (Nussbaum, 2011).

The necessity of following the disciplinary conventions by academic writers (Swales & Feak, 2012) and also keeping a balance between acknowledging others' contributions and presenting their own unique and well-supported arguments leads to complexity of academic writing (Hyland, 2009). Moreover, maintaining the logical flow is challenging, as writers must ensure that each section of the text connects smoothly to the next (Hyland, 2012) and clearly communicated (Murray, 2011). Overall, academic writing is complex by nature due to the multifaceted demands

it places on writers, especially when it comes to constructing and presenting arguments (Swales & Feak, 2012).

The following section on *graduate writing* examines the nature and challenges associated with academic writing at graduate level.

## 2.4 Graduate writing

In the realm of graduate education, academic writing is an integral part of every student's life (Nurkamto et al., 2024). As a result, mastering academic writing skills is essential for success in academia (Hyland, 2013). To be more specific, graduates' disciplinary learning, academic success, career advancement, and social status in academia is closely tied to their proficiency in academic writing (Fang, 2021; Kamler & Thompson, 2006).

Writing is not an automatic process (Langan, 2008). As noted earlier, writing is “a complex process” (Al Badi, 2015, p. 65). This complex nature could be the most significant reason for the challenges many graduate students face in writing (Alfaki, 2015; Yunus et al., 2012). Many academics come across difficulties during the process of academic writing from generating ideas, outlining, to producing the written text (Al Fadda, 2012; Al-Saadi & Samuel, 2013; Cai, 2013; Evans & Green, 2007). There are a number of factors contributing to the challenging nature of writing (Kobayashi & Rinnert, 2008), namely: *Complex disciplinary genres, psychological factors, linguistic factors, cognitive factors, argumentation, integration of sources, coherence, and cohesion.*

a) *Complex disciplinary genres*: Graduate students are expected to navigate various disciplinary genres such as research papers, book reviews, proposals, essays, journal articles, and

etc. (Cooper & Bikowski, 2007). Hyland (2015) believes that when preparing such academic texts students not only learn to adapt to and follow the disciplinary norms and cultural conventions of academia but also develop their writing expertise. To put it differently, graduate students must not only adhere to structural and stylistic conventions but also learn how to position themselves within a field's intellectual conversations (Bazerman, 2004). Therefore, familiarity with the various disciplinary genres' requirements is crucial for academic success.

b) *Psychological factors*: The complexity of graduate writing is deeply intertwined with psychological factors that influence how students approach writing tasks and their overall academic performance. *Self-confidence* or *self-efficacy*- trusting one's abilities and powers for learning and performance- is one of the key psychological factors affecting the academic success of university students (Mehmood et al., 2019). *Motivation* is another internal feeling that stimulates individuals to engage in certain behaviors or tasks (Brown, 2000). A large number of studies shows that there is a positive relationship between intrinsic motivation and academic performance (Richardson et al., 2012). *Writing anxiety* is another psychological factor that complicates the graduate writing process. Academic writing continues to generate anxiety among graduate students as writing is a high-stakes activity that directly impacts graduates' academic progress and future career opportunities (Holmes et al., 2018). This leads to significant anxiety about possible failure. Furthermore, Badenhorst (2018) believes that writing practices in academia are often invisible and learned through trial and error, leaving newcomers to navigate implicit expectations and tacit knowledge. She adds that the process of writing is intertwined with identity formation, as students use their work to position themselves in disciplinary conversations and gain membership in academic discourse communities. However, this process can be emotionally charged, as it often involves navigating contradictory identities, such as novice/expert and outsider/insider. Lastly, the

rejection of written work is deeply personal for students, as it is seen as a rejection of the scholar themselves. Rejection can thus be a source of vulnerability, as students tie their sense of self to their work (Badenhorst, 2018).

c) *Linguistic factors*: *Grammar* plays a crucial role in ensuring accurate communication, as it conveys detailed meaning from the writer to the reader (Al Khasawneh, 2010). Moreover, a rich academic *vocabulary* is essential for successfully navigating the writing process (Coxhead, 2000). Another linguistic factor is *spelling*. Poor spelling not only reduces clarity but also increases learners' anxiety (Afrin, 2016). As another linguistic factor, *punctuation* plays a vital role in writing as it provides clarity and context to words. Betham (2011) believes that punctuation "is more important than spelling" (p. 37) since incorrect punctuation can change the intended meaning of a sentence (Nasser, 2016). It should be noted that today's digital tools can automatically correct spelling, punctuation, and vocabulary, thereby making it easier to improve the accuracy of written text (Schcolnik, 2018). The use of *disciplinary language* is another linguistic factor that makes writing challenging. Each academic discipline has its own specialized vocabulary, rhetorical structures, and conventions that writers must master to effectively communicate within that field (Hyland, 2009). This complexity arises because disciplinary language often includes technical terms, jargon, and phrases that are unfamiliar to novice writers or those outside the field (Casanave & Li, 2008). Writers must also be able to balance the use of general academic vocabulary with discipline-specific terms to make their work accessible and credible (Coxhead, 2012). For graduate students, mastering disciplinary language is particularly challenging, as it involves not only learning new terminology but also understanding the cultural and epistemological norms of their field (Prior, 2000).

d) *Cognitive factors*: Riazi (1997) classified writing strategies into

i) *metacognitive* strategies: Strategies that writers use to control the writing process consciously (planning, monitoring, evaluating a task); ii) *cognitive* strategies: They refer to the strategies that writers use to implement the actual writing actions (note-taking, drafting, inferencing, elaboration, and the like); iii) *social/affective* strategies: They refer to strategies that writers use to interact with others to assist in performing the task or to regulate emotions, motivation, and attitudes in the writing (appealing for clarifications, getting feedback from professors or peers, searching). Therefore, these writing strategies can contribute to cognitive challenges of writing. The other cognitive factor is *working memory capacity*. According to McCutchen (1996), writing is a cognitively demanding task that requires the coordination of planning goals and language generation processes within the constraints of working memory. This temporary storage and processing system places considerable cognitive demands on writers. Another cognitive factor which plays a pivotal role in academic and graduate writing is *critical thinking*. It is considered as “the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action” (Scriven & Paul, 2004, p. 1). Critical thinking in academic writing is a manifestation of an author’s capability to analyze and comprehend ideas and assess and synthesize an argument using a variety of sources, before creating their final piece and presenting it to an audience (Daud, 2012).

e) *Argumentation*: Argumentation is a central component of academic writing, serving as a mechanism for writers to present, defend, and justify their positions while engaging with alternative perspectives (Hyland, 2012). Harris (1996) defines an argument as a connected series of statements intended to establish a position and implying response to another (or more than one) position.

Academic writers are expected to “expose their ideas and argue persuasively” (Al Haq & Ahmed, 1994, p. 308). This expectation involves not only the presentation of new ideas but also the anticipation of potential counterarguments (Toulmin, 2003). Successful argumentation requires writers to balance the integration of their perspectives with those of other scholars, effectively navigating between agreement, disagreement, and synthesis (Hyland, 2012). The ability to construct compelling arguments is essential for academic success, as it demonstrates critical thinking and contributes to the broader scholarly dialogue (Wingate, 2012). This skill, however, can be challenging for novice writers, who may struggle to balance the integration of sources, articulate their stance, and maintain a persuasive tone (Andrews, 2005; Wingate, 2012). To address this challenge, pedagogical approaches often emphasize explicit instruction in argumentation strategies, which helps writers develop their capacity to build and critique arguments effectively (Wingate, 2012).

f) *Integration of sources*: The effective use of sources is a fundamental aspect of academic writing and a crucial cognitive and disciplinary factor (Hyland, 2012; Kostka, 2014). Writers are required to integrate sources skillfully to build their arguments, support their claims, and contribute to their fields (Harwood & Petrić, 2012). However, this process involves navigating challenges related to *plagiarism*, *citation*, and *referencing*, all of which demand careful attention and adherence to academic conventions. *Plagiarism*, often described as intellectual theft, encompasses a wide range of practices, from deliberate cheating to unintentional copying from a source without acknowledgment (Pecorari & Shaw, 2018). Academic institutions increasingly emphasize the importance of educating students about plagiarism and the ethical responsibilities of writing (Pecorari, 2003). Strategies such as paraphrasing, summarizing, and quoting appropriately are essential for avoiding plagiarism while demonstrating respect for intellectual property (Carroll,

2002). *Citation* is indispensable in academic writing as it allows writers to combine their arguments with the perspectives of other researchers. This practice provides context, highlights gaps in existing research, and reinforces claims (Yugianingrum, 2010). Neglecting citation can lead to issues such as plagiarism, miscommunication, or even confusion between the writer's and the cited author's stance (Yugianingrum, 2010). Proper citation practices also enable readers to locate and verify sources, fostering a transparent and credible academic discourse (Hyland, 2009). Moreover, developing citation skills is particularly challenging for novice writers, as they often struggle to manage competing voices in their writing while maintaining their own authorial identity (Thompson, 2001). Academic writers are expected to adhere to specific *referencing* formats based on disciplinary standards, such as APA, MLA, IEEE, or Harvard. Accurate referencing is critical not only for crediting original ideas but also for validating arguments with credible evidence, tracing the origin of ideas, and acknowledging scholarly contributions (Neville, 2007). Poor referencing practices can undermine the credibility of a paper and create obstacles for readers attempting to engage with the writer's sources (Hill, 2013).

g) *Coherence*: This refers to the semantic relationships that create an underlying structure, enabling a text to be understood as a unified whole (Zor, 2006). Coherence plays a critical role in constructing meaning by logically linking ideas across a text, ensuring the reader can follow the writer's intended argument or narrative flow (Al Harbi, 2017). In other words, achieving coherence requires organizing content in a way that is logically structured, relevant, and connected that will assist readers to comprehend the writer's meaning (Al Harbi, 2017). Establishing such a clear and logical flow of ideas throughout their text is often a significant challenge for academic and graduate writers (Al Harbi, 2017).

h) *Cohesion*: Cohesion, on the other hand, refers to the general organization of academic writing; it involves the use of linguistic devices to link sentences and paragraphs together; These devices contribute to the smooth flow of ideas throughout a text (Mustafa, 2024). These devices, often referred to as cohesive ties, serve as textual glue, ensuring that all parts of a text are interrelated.

The above-mentioned challenges exist due to the fact that writing is not merely a skill to be mastered but a complex social practice deeply influenced by task, audience, and disciplinary context (Lea & Street, 1998). Unlike generic writing skills, academic writing is shaped by the norms and conventions of specific scholarly communities, requiring writers to adapt their approach to meet the expectations of a given audience (Hyland, 2009). This stems from the fact that writing is inherently situated within particular academic, cultural, and institutional contexts, making it a dynamic and socially constructed activity rather than a static, transferable skill (Lillis & Curry, 2010).

Many scholars suggest that critical aspects of academic writing, such as argumentation, citations, plagiarism, and disciplinary conventions, are often assumed to be understood by students rather than explicitly taught (Hyland, 2012). This implicit approach can result in students struggling to grasp the complexities of academic writing because they may not receive sufficient guidance on how to effectively incorporate these elements (Swales & Feak, 2012). Furthermore, studies highlight that writing instruction often focuses on technical aspects of writing (e.g., grammar, spelling) but often overlooks more advanced skills required for academic success, such as critical thinking and discipline-specific conventions (Aitchison & Lee, 2006). Consequently, without direct instruction in these areas, students may feel unprepared to meet the demands of academic writing (Lea & Street, 1998). One of the approaches that encourage educators to make the implicit

expectations of academic discourse visible to learners is academic literacies approach (Lea & Street, 1998). The following section explores this approach.

## **2.5 Academic literacies**

As discussed, many students find writing and academic discourse challenging as they shift into higher education (Lea & Street, 2006). Acknowledging these difficulties at the university level, Lea and Street (1998) proposed three ways of understanding for academic writing in higher education: *Study Skills*, *Academic Socialization*, and *Academic Literacies*.

The *study skills* model views literacy as a collection of discrete skills that students can learn and apply across various contexts. This language-focused approach emphasizes acquiring essential language structures, skills, and functions for content learning (Street, 2010). To put it differently, the study skills model assumes that mastering proper grammar and syntax, along with careful attention to punctuation and spelling, will ensure student competence in academic writing. As such, it primarily focuses on the surface elements of text. It attempts to ‘fix’ problems with student learning and treats student writing as technical and instrumental (Street, 2010).

In recent years, the unsophistication and insensitivity of the study skills approach has led to refinement of the understanding of the ‘skills’ involved and a greater focus on broader learning and social contexts. This evolution, which Lea and Street (1998) have termed the *academic socialization* model. This approach emphasizes the responsibility of tutors and advisors for integrating students into the academic ‘culture’. Despite considering students as learners and the cultural context, the academic socialization model can be critiqued for a number of reasons (Lea & Street, 1998): First, it tends to assume that the academic environment has a relatively homogeneous

culture, with norms and practices that simply need to be learned to gain access to the entire institution. Second, although disciplinary and departmental differences are acknowledged, institutional practices are not sufficiently addressed. Third, despite recognizing the importance of contextual factors in student writing, this approach often treats writing as a straightforward medium of representation, overlooking the complex language, literacy, and discourse issues involved in the production and representation of meaning.

The third model, closely associated with the New Literacy Studies, is referred to as *academic literacies*. This approach emerged in the 1990s in the UK and in South Africa, in national contexts where the higher education systems were undergoing profound change. In the UK, the expansion of higher education also known as widening participation with increasing diversity of the student population was a key policy focus (Lillis & Tuck, 2016). The primary concern was not international students or multilingualism, but rather the increasing number of ‘local’ students. Their growing attendance to higher education highlights taken-for-granted academic literacy practices and challenged the notion that academic literacy was relatively straightforward to teach and learn and, once learned, was transferable from one context to another (Lea & Street, 1998). In summary, each model offers a different approach to academic writing at higher education level. The study skills model provides practical solutions that are easy to use, but it does not fully address the complexities of academic writing. The academic socialization model takes cultural and contextual factors into account, but it still assumes that academic norms are the same across different contexts. Finally, the academic literacies model offers the most detailed and inclusive approach, focusing on a more explicit and adaptable way to teach writing.

The academic literacies approach believes that academic writing is not simply about mastering generic skills or adhering to universal standards of ‘good writing,’ but is deeply situated

within specific disciplinary, institutional, and cultural contexts (Lea & Street, 1998). The differences between fields show that students need to be directly taught how to meet the writing expectations of their specific discipline, as these expectations are not always obvious or the same across contexts. The central argument of academic literacies is that much of what is expected in academic writing is implicit, meaning that students are often required to ‘pick up’ the conventions of their disciplines without explicit instruction (Lea & Street, 1998). This implicitness creates barriers for students who are not already familiar with the unspoken norms and practices of academic writing, such as first-generation university students or those from diverse educational and linguistic backgrounds (Lea & Street, 1998). Lea and Street (1998) advocate for moving beyond a deficit model, where students are blamed for not meeting expectations, to an academic literacies approach that recognizes the need for explicit teaching of writing practices. They emphasize that academic writing is a social practice, and as such, students need to be explicitly taught how to engage with texts, arguments, and conventions within their specific fields of study. Explicitly teaching students the conventions and rhetorical moves of their disciplines helps clarify the writing process, enabling them to participate more effectively in academic discourse (Wingate, 2012).

According to academic literacies researchers, the novelty and uniqueness of their model lies in viewing writing as a social phenomenon (Wingate & Tribble, 2012) and a “social practice” that is deeply influenced by its specific context (Lea & Street, 1998, p. 159). To highlight the social and ideological dimensions of writing, academic literacies draws on New Literacy Studies, critical discourse analysis, and critical language awareness (Wingate & Tribble, 2012). Lillis and Scott (2007) pointed out that while many approaches can be broadly described as socially oriented, what sets the academic literacies approach apart is its focus on practice rather than text. Instead of

analyzing texts to determine and outline a discipline's writing requirements, academic literacies research focuses on defining and articulating the underlying “problems” in student writing (Lillis & Scott, 2007, p. 9).

## **2.6 Graduate writing and publication**

The primary role of many universities is research (Shamsi & Osam, 2022). Accordingly, there is a growing expectation for graduate candidates to publish and share their research throughout the course of their studies (Wang et al., 2025).

Academic publications are widely regarded as one of the most direct and effective ways for graduate students to gain recognition in their field (Wang et al., 2025). Publishing provides a formal and structured way for academics to present their research, establish their reputation and engage actively within the scholarly community (McAlpine & Asghar, 2010; McGrail et al., 2006). In Hyland's (2016) terms, publications serve as a formal introduction of a student's work to the academic community. Moreover, academic publications allow researchers to not only contribute to their fields of study but also advance their professional standing (Wang et al., 2025). To put it differently, they provide tangible evidence of the student's ability to design and execute comprehensive studies, positioning them as emerging experts in their field. Furthermore, publishing their studies in reputable journals or presenting it at academic conferences validates the quality and originality of their research (Kamler, 2008). Academic journals and conferences serve as gatekeepers of quality research, and acceptance into these journals and conferences signifies that a student's work meets the standards of the field (Kamler, 2008). The peer-review process, in particular, plays a critical role in this regard, as it validates the research's methodology, relevance,

and originality (Lee & Kamler, 2008). This validation strengthens the student's professional standing and establishes the credibility of their research in the eyes of peers, funding organizations, and hiring panels (McGrail et al., 2006).

Additionally, building a strong portfolio of publications opens doors to professional opportunities (Kamler, 2008) since graduates' ability to publish is one of the most relevant indicators for judging their competence as academics (Kamler & Thomson, 2006). For instance, research that is frequently cited can result in opportunities such as collaborating on new projects like specialized edited volumes or chapters in academic books. Similarly, publishing in high-impact journals can result in offers to serve as reviewers or members of editorial boards, a role that not only enhances visibility but also provides insight into the publishing process and trends within the field (Kamler, 2008). Another opportunity arises in the form of grants and research funding. Many funding agencies explicitly prioritize applicants with a strong publication record, as it demonstrates their ability to produce high-quality research and distribute findings effectively (Nerad & Cerny, 1999). These agencies also value the spread of knowledge to diverse audiences, often tracked through publication citations and the journal's reach (McGrail et al., 2006). Publishing also enhances the likelihood of acceptances to speak at conferences (Kamler, 2008) or leadership opportunities within academic and research communities (McGrail et al., 2006). As a result of these benefits, the expectation for graduate students to publish before completing their degrees has grown (Nerad & Cerny, 1999).

The process of producing high-quality publications is deeply intertwined with mastering the literature review genre and citations. The literature review serves as a critical foundation in most scholarly articles, providing a synthesis of existing research that frames the study's contributions (Fink, 2019). As noted earlier, academic writing is not merely a technical skill but a

socially constructed one that requires students to understand the unwritten norms and expectations of their academic community (Hyland, 2004). These socialization practices remain largely invisible unless students are explicitly taught how to write within the conventions of their field. Without formal instruction on these writing practices, graduate students are left to navigate a complex academic culture without a clear understanding of its expectations, leading to confusion and anxiety (Stooke & Hibbert, 2017). Given the central role of literature review in scholarly writing, understanding how to construct a rigorous literature review is pivotal for graduate students. The following section explores the details and significance of the literature review.

## **2.7 Literature review genre**

Literature reviews are a genre that many graduate students struggle to fully understand and often find challenging to write (Badenhorst, 2019). Crafting a literature review involves selecting appropriate sources, engaging in critical reading, extracting relevant information, and synthesizing those sources into a coherent text through citations (Badenhorst, 2019). This process demands familiarity with rhetorical and linguistic conventions of the field, critical thinking, and the ability to integrate information from multiple sources while utilizing skills in summarizing, paraphrasing, and citing (Turner & Bitchener, 2008). To write effectively, researchers draw on five key areas of knowledge within their field (Beaufort, 2004): (1) Knowledge of the discourse community, (2) subject-matter expertise (content knowledge), (3) understanding of the genre, (4) rhetorical awareness, and (5) writing-process skills. All of these knowledge domains are required when writing literature reviews.

A researcher cannot conduct meaningful research without first gaining a thorough understanding of the existing literature in the field (Boote & Beile, 2005). In educational research, where issues are often complex and multifaceted, a comprehensive literature review is even more essential than in many other disciplines (Boote & Beile, 2005). The literature review serves as a “keystone genre” (Badenhorst, 2019, p. 263), helping graduate students engage in both disciplinary and interdisciplinary discussions (Walter & Stouck, 2020) and solidify their “disciplinary identities and affiliations with specific groups” (Kwan, 2006, p. 54). Publishing literature reviews demonstrates an author’s expertise, directly enhances their academic performance and reputation (Pickering et al., 2015). A major difficulty of writing literature reviews lies in weaving together diverse perspectives while simultaneously identifying and emphasizing gaps or unresolved issues in the existing body of work (Hart, 2018). This process needs high level thinking skills because writers must analyze patterns, contradictions, and common ideas across a wide range of studies (Hart, 2018). To handle these challenges well, writers also need to have a good understanding of the field. This helps them include the work of different authors while staying focused on their main topic or research question (Boote & Beile, 2005). Moreover, the challenges of writing literature reviews are intensified due to the lack of explicit instruction in many graduate programs. Students are often expected to produce comprehensive literature reviews for theses or dissertations, yet they rarely receive formal guidance on how to engage critically with sources, identify research gaps, or build a well-structured and sophisticated argument (Boote & Beile, 2005). This lack of support makes many students feel overwhelmed and unprepared when working on this critical genre of academic writing (Kamler & Thomson, 2014).

The literature review is widely considered one of the most challenging forms of academic writing due to its requirement for a sophisticated argument (Hart, 2018). The following section elaborates on the significance of argumentation in academic writing.

## **2.8 Argument and literature review**

We acknowledged that a thorough, sophisticated literature review is the foundation and inspiration for substantial, useful research (Boote & Beile, 2005). Badenhorst (2018) emphasizes that a strong literature review goes beyond summarizing past studies in the field, it also meets the discourse community's expectations for understanding academic lineage, allegiances, positioning and authority. Moreover, they need to persuade the readers and gain discourse community's acceptance (Hyland, 2010). Therefore, a well-constructed argument is foundational in literature reviews because it clarifies the significance of the research and its contribution to the discourse community (Ridley, 2009).

According to Boote and Beile (2005), the significance of argumentation in literature reviews lies in the fact that it brings structure and coherence to the literature review by helping the writer organize the literature around themes, theories, or methodologies. For instance, argumentation allows the writer to logically group studies with contrasting or complementary findings, highlighting patterns that otherwise might be overlooked. Moreover, argumentation enables the writer to critically evaluate the strengths, weaknesses, and contributions of various studies. A critical approach, supported by scholarly articles, examines issues like methodological rigor, theoretical perspectives, and validity. By analyzing and questioning the current literature, an argument can reveal gaps in the field, inconsistencies, or under-explored areas. This reasoning

justifies why new research is necessary and supports the relevance of the research question or hypothesis. Argument connects different findings and ideas into a clear explanation. By integrating evidence from different sources, a literature review establishes an informed, well-supported perspective, indicating where agreement exists and where disagreements continue in the field. Argumentation is key to showing the author's own scholarly voice. Through critical analysis and evaluation, the writer can offer new insights, highlight their viewpoint, and position their research within the broader academic conversation. Thus a good literature review is the foundation of both theoretical and methodological depth, thereby improving the quality and usefulness of subsequent research (Boote & Beile, 2005).

Overall, arguments in graduate writing are challenging because they require a sophisticated synthesis of claims, evidence, and citations. First, constructing a meaningful claim requires an in-depth understanding of the discipline and its ongoing debates (Swales & Feak, 2012). Graduate writers must critically analyze existing literature to identify gaps or unanswered questions, which form the basis for their claims. Evidence is another critical element of arguments in graduate writing, making the challenge even greater. Academic writing relies on well-documented evidence to support claims, which means that graduate students must evaluate, select, and integrate credible sources. This process involves not only finding relevant literature but also interpreting data and theories in a way that aligns with their argument (Hyland, 2019). Citations play an equally significant role, adding another layer of complexity to graduate writing. Properly citing sources is crucial for maintaining academic integrity and situating arguments within the broader scholarly discourse (Boote & Beile, 2005). However, understanding citation styles and mastering their conventions can be overwhelming, especially for students who are new to academic writing or writing in a second language. Citation mistakes not only weaken the credibility of the argument

but may also lead to accusations of plagiarism (Kostka, 2014). Furthermore, combining claims, evidence, and citations into a coherent argument demands a high level of skill in academic literacy (Hyland, 2009). Graduate writers need to combine their own ideas with those of their sources, making sure their arguments stay the main focus while appropriately acknowledging prior work (Hyland, 2019). This balancing act requires critical thinking, a deep understanding of the field, and the ability to engage in scholarly dialogue. Finally, the challenges of graduate-level argumentation are complicated by the implicit nature of academic writing instruction. Many graduate programs assume students already possess the skills necessary to construct effective arguments, leaving them to learn these competencies through trial and error (Paré, 2017). This lack of explicit guidance can leave students feeling overwhelmed, further emphasizing the difficulty of combining claims, evidence, and citations in their writing.

Having examined the role of arguments within the specific context of literature reviews, the discussion now shifts to exploring arguments in academic writing more broadly. While literature reviews provide a key foundation for constructing arguments that critically engage with existing research (Boote & Beile, 2005), the principles of argumentation extend beyond this genre (Andrews, 2010). In academic writing as a whole, making persuasive, evidence-based arguments remains central to effectively communicating ideas and contributing to scholarly discourse (Hyland, 2009). The following section elaborates on these broader applications, highlighting their significance across various academic genres.

## **2.9 Arguments in academic writing**

Svoboda (2020) believes that asking the question of what an argument is may seem as weird as asking what a debate is or what a bed is because we are all familiar with the everyday use of the word ‘argument’. The question starts to appear reasonable when the word is used in specialized discourses, mostly as a technical term. Irvin (2010) defines an argument as a carefully arranged and supported presentation of a viewpoint whose purpose is not so much to win the argument or earn the readers’ approval of the perspective. There is a widespread belief that academic discourse holds a specialized mode of argument wherein writers are expected to place more emphasis on rational than rhetorical conventions through demonstrating “absolute truth, empirical evidence, or flawless logic” (Hyland, 2001, p. 549). In academic contexts, as pointed out by Gilbert (2005), argumentation is not merely concerned with the generation and justification of opinions but rather as an activity that is inextricably linked with the maintenance and production of knowledge. “The purpose of the argument is to justify the conclusion by means of supporting reasons” (Finocchiaro, 2003, p. 22).

Having examined the significance of arguments in academic writing, the discussion now turns to their practical applications. Hyland (2009) believes that arguments are not merely theoretical constructs. They serve as powerful tools for achieving specific academic and professional goals. Understanding their uses is crucial for graduate students and early-career researchers, as it provides them with strategies to effectively communicate their ideas (Hyland, 2009). The next section examines these practical applications.

### **2.9.1 Uses of academic argument**

An academic argument is an activity focused on logically changing or adjusting someone's opinion, viewpoint, or attitude. Accordingly, at least five primary uses of argument can be identified: 1) Proof or demonstration, 2) justification, 3) persuasion, 4) inquiry and 5) resolution of a disagreement (Blair, 2004). Argument, in this sense, is not merely about winning a debate but about engaging in a reasoned exchange of ideas that contributes to knowledge construction. Argumentation, as the process of developing and presenting arguments, involves structuring claims, providing evidence, and responding to counterarguments in a logical and coherent manner (Andrews, 2010). Gilbert (2005) stated that among these primary uses of argument, persuasion, justification, and inquiry may contribute toward the goals of argumentative practices in students' academic settings. By persuasion, the writer aims at making readers accept his viewpoint and provide reasons to convince them that the conclusion is true and worthy of belief. In justification, the writer's goal is to provide reasons that make the conclusion acceptable, without necessarily changing the readers' beliefs. In the inquiry, a writer investigates a position or hypothesis in order to assess the knowledge claims made by other scholars regarding that position or hypothesis. In doing so, the writer may, after critiquing the literature, arrive at a conclusion by assuming a distinct position on the basis of the inquiry. This position may align with conclusions achieved by other scholars. In other words, the writer adopts a well-established stance in the field.

Having explored the various ways in which academic arguments function across different contexts, next section delves into the key characteristics that define a strong and effective argument.

### 2.9.2 Characteristics of academic argument

Being aware of the characteristics of a good argument is useful in guiding learners to produce an effective argumentative text (Trinh & Truc, 2014). Therefore, to provide learners with insights into the nature of a written argument and help them be able to produce a quality text, Trinh and Truc (2014) suggested five basic characteristics of an argument as follow: First, writers must establish a clear and reasonable *purpose* for their writing, as this provides focus and direction for the argument. Second, arguments must center on *arguable issues* that allow the writer to take a firm stand. Third, the strength of an argument relies heavily on the use of *evidence*. As Hyland (2004) emphasized, providing logical reasoning and strong evidence is crucial for persuading the audience and building credibility. Fourth, understanding the *audience's characteristics* is essential in making convincing arguments because no matter how compelling an argument is, if the audience rejects it, the argument has failed (Lannon, 2009). Finally, recognizing the *complexity of the topic* is key to producing meaningful arguments. This acknowledgment can help writers understand that there may be more than one 'right' position for a persuasive argument to be produced. These characteristics highlight the careful balance needed to make strong arguments in academic writing.

Having outlined the key characteristics that contribute to a strong and effective argument, the next logical step is to examine the structure of an argument. Toulmin (2003) proposed a structure for one of the most common forms of academic argument. Understanding the structure is crucial because it provides an explicit framework for organizing and presenting arguments in a coherent and persuasive manner (Toulmin, 2003). The structure ensures that ideas flow logically and support the overall claim, making it easier for the audience to follow (Toulmin, 2003). The following section will explore the fundamental components of an argument's structure.

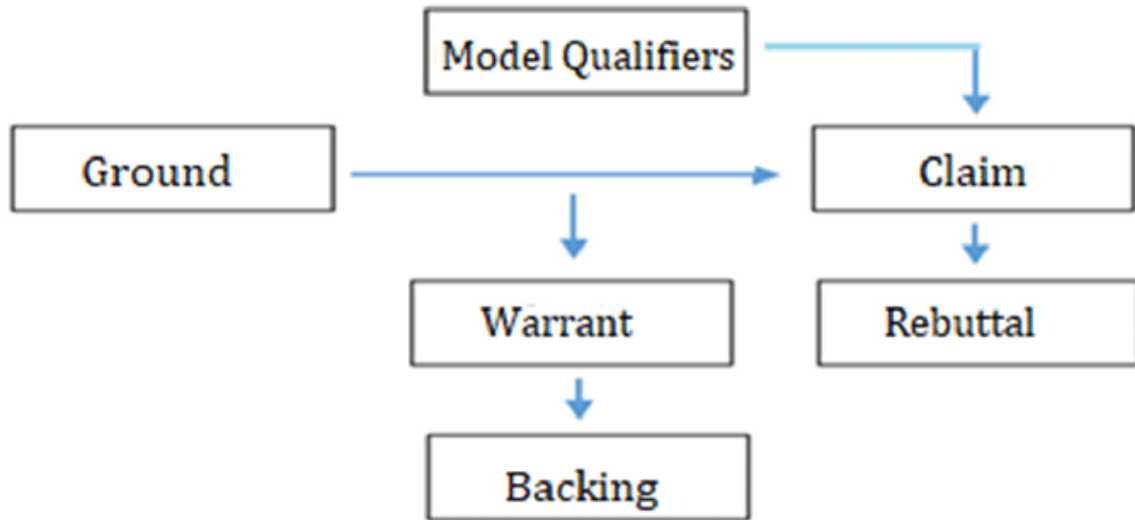
## 2.10 Toulmin's argumentative model

The ability to construct a convincing argument is considered as a determining factor of successful writing by most members of the academic discourse community (Lea & Street, 1998). To facilitate making strong arguments, writers need to become familiar with the rhetorical structures (Baber, 2018). The term 'structure' refers to a set of analytical units that limit the allowed sequence of categories. Because of our shared understanding of what makes a coherent, organized text (linguistic competence), identifying a convincing argument is not a challenging task (Hyland, 1990).

Each discipline (e.g., law, philosophy, or English language arts) might have its unique definition of the argument with different specific requirements, but it is possible to view all effective arguments in all disciplines according to the basics of Toulmin's model (Rex et al., 2010). According to Eemeren et al. (1996), the work of the British philosopher, Toulmin (2003) is frequently recognized with describing and analyzing the functional elements of a common argumentation structure namely, claim, data, warrant, backing, rebuttal, and qualifier. a) Claim refers to a statement, opinion, preference, perspective, or judgment on a particular issue thereby people are responsible for justifying this claim if it should be challenged. In general terms, they must be in a position to justify this claim if challenged to do so. b) Data refer to reasons or evidence that support the claim. c) Warrants concern justifying the use of the data as a support for the claim. They connect the data to the claim. The difference between the data and the warrant is that the data appeal to explicitly point to the facts on which the claim is based while the warrant implicitly provides an account of how these data lead to the claim in question. d) Backings refer to facts, authorities, or explanations used to strengthen or support the warrant or the assumptions on which the warrants rest. e) Rebuttals are arguments that refute or are exceptions to the elements of the

argument. f) Qualifiers place limitations on the strength of the claim and indicate that the claim is not absolute or universal. However, Toulmin (2003) does not claim that all arguments should include these components, though some may be absent or left implicit. For instance, warrants are often implicit unless extreme clarity is necessary. Rex et al., (2010) explained this process in simple terms. Writing an argument starts with taking a stance, or an intentional way of thinking and/or feeling about something, for a specific purpose and audience in mind. To argue effectively, writers must first decide where they stand and then carefully organize their ideas and information in a way that will persuade and convince their readers. Strong reasoning requires the careful selection ideas and evidence. With stance, purpose, and audience in mind, the writer selects the most compelling evidence and uses it to support or justify their stance. Writing clear warrants that explain how evidence backs the stance gives the argument its persuasive power. Ultimately, arguments are won or lost based on the strength of the warrants.

Unfamiliarity with the typical structure of arguments contributes to developing inadequate and poorly reasoned writings in English (Lunsford, 2002; Wingate, 2012). To the extent that this formal structure is not employed, communication is hindered and the reader felt either confused or unconvinced (Hyland, 1990). Therefore, it is reasonable to claim that the quality of an argument depends on its overall structure.



**Figure 1.** Toulmin's model of argument (Toulmin, 2003, p. 97)

There are several other argumentative models in addition to Toulmin's, such as the *Pragma-Dialectical* model (Eemeren & Grootendorst, 2004), The *Classical* Model (McAdon, 2007), and The *Rhetorical Triangle* (Bitzer, 1968). The *Pragma-Dialectical* model focuses on the rules for fair discussion, judging arguments by how well they lead to a rational agreement (Eemeren & Grootendorst, 2004). The *Classical* Model, rooted in ancient Greek rhetoric, emphasizes three key elements: *Ethos* (credibility), *pathos* (emotion), and *logos* (logic), to persuade an audience (McAdon, 2007). The *Rhetorical Triangle*, developed by Bitzer (1968), emphasizes the relationship between the speaker, the audience, and the message to achieve a convincing argument. Nussbaum (2011) argued that models of argumentation serve several purposes. He classified them into three categories a) *Analytical purposes*: Models provide researchers with an opportunity to break down arguments into their components and study how those components are related to one another. In other words, they assist in revealing the structure of arguments. b) *Normative purposes*: Models can be employed to assess the strength and quality of particular arguments or argument components

and also prescribe argument construction moves and their appropriateness. c) *Descriptive purposes*: Such models can be used to make descriptive and explanatory claims about how people tend to argue. Nussbaum (2011) emphasized that a specific model may not serve all these three purposes, and it's important to clarify what tasks a particular model is good at and what tasks it is not designed to handle.

Toulmin developed his model to bridge the gap between formal logic and the everyday reasoning people use in everyday arguments (Toulmin, 2003). His model was designed to account for the complexity of real-life arguments, which often lack the rigid structure of formal deductive reasoning, focusing on how people construct and evaluate arguments in practical situations (Toulmin, 2003). Eemeren et al. (1996) attributed the wide use of the Toulmin model in research studies to its general applicability and relative simplicity - in analyzing different kinds of argumentation ranging from daily-life examples to laws and social science disciplines (Qin, 2009) - as compared to other available frameworks. They believed that it primarily serves an *analytical* purpose, that is, it is used to determine the structure of an argument.

While Toulmin's model of argumentation has had a significant impact, it has also faced several criticisms. One of the main critiques is that the model fails to reflect the full complexity of the argument. Some scholars argue that Toulmin's six components—claim, evidence, warrant, backing, rebuttal, and qualifier—lack flexibility and don't fully reflect the complexities of real-world arguments (Govier, 2010). Thus, Toulmin's framework may not fully account for the complexity and intricacies present in certain types of arguments. Another major critique concerns the uncertainty of the 'warrant' in Toulmin's model. Some scholars consider the 'warrant,' which links the data to the claim, to be poorly defined and overly ambiguous. According to Walton (1990), Toulmin does not provide clear guidelines on how to construct or identify a warrant, making it

difficult to apply the model consistently in practical situations. In addition, Toulmin's (2003) model has been critiqued for assuming that all forms of communication should be structured as arguments, which neglects the importance of non-argumentative forms of discourse. Many academic or professional situations, such as explanations, descriptions, or summaries, do not follow a strict argumentative structure (Zarefsky, 2014). This belief limits the model's practical use, as not all communication is argumentative, and Toulmin's (2003) framework does not adequately account for these settings. Lastly, Toulmin's (2003) model has been criticized for not sufficiently addressing the role of context in argumentation. While the model emphasizes logical elements, it largely ignores the social, cultural, and historical settings in which arguments are made and received. Eemeren and Grootendorst (2004) argue that understanding the context is crucial for evaluating arguments, as the values, expectations, and beliefs of an audience can have a significant impact on how an argument is formed and understood. Toulmin's model (2003), by focusing mainly on formal structure, does not fully address the influence of these contextual factors, which are essential to understanding of an argument's effectiveness and relevance in different environments. Despite these criticisms, Toulmin's (2003) model remains significant due to its flexibility and practical utility in analyzing real-world discourse (Toulmin, 2003).

In *argument and literature review* section, it was clarified that proper citation plays a crucial role in situating arguments within the broader scholarly discourse (Boote & Beile, 2005) and also enhancing the credibility of the argument (Kostka, 2014). The subsequent sections elaborate on the role of citations in crafting literature reviews and developing persuasive arguments.

## 2.11 Citation in literature reviews

In the *literature review* section, it was explained that reviewing the literature helps researchers develop a comprehensive understanding of a particular subject, allowing them to identify trends, recognize ongoing academic debates, and formulate key research questions for further study. A core principle of academic writing, especially at the graduate level, is that current research builds on previous research (Badenhorst, 2019). Academic texts are never created in isolation (Bazerman, 2004), the presented message is always integrated into earlier messages (Hyland, 2004). Therefore, much of academic writing involves citing, selecting sources, extracting relevant information, and referencing authoritative works (Badenhorst, 2019). Citation is the formal acknowledgment of others' ideas, thoughts, and words (Hartley, 2008). While citations are essential to academic writing as a whole, they play a particularly crucial role in literature reviews, to put it differently, they are a core ingredient in literature reviews (Badenhorst, 2019). In academic writing, citations are used to not only position research within the existing body of literature but also to contribute to construction of knowledge in the field (Hyland, 1999, 2000, 2005; Swales, 1986). Citations also help writers establish their authority within a specific academic community (Jalilifar, 2012). Failure to properly incorporate the works of others can lead to accusations of intellectual dishonesty (Jalilifar, 2012).

Citation can take two main forms: Bibliographic citation and in-text citation (Twumasi & Afful, 2022). Swales (1986) introduced the terms 'integral' and 'non-integral' citations, where integral citations are embedded within the sentence as part of the narrative, while non-integral citations are placed in brackets and are not part of the sentence structure. Campbell (1990) expanded on Swales' framework by dividing integral citations into 'agentive' and 'non-agentive,' reflecting the different roles they play in sentences. Hyland (1999) further refined this by

categorizing integral citations into subject, non-subject (passive), and phrase-level adjunct structures. According to Borg (2000), the skills necessary for citing include: Understanding the work of other writers, accurately paraphrasing that understanding, acknowledging others' contributions, and skillfully applying different techniques to show this acknowledgment.

Citation as a fundamental aspect of academic writing, play invaluable cognitive, epistemological, and persuasive roles for both the writer and their academic community (Kafes, 2017). It helps build connections, show agreement with others' work, manage relationships, demonstrate belonging in a field, establish a scholarly presence, give context to research, and make arguments more convincing (Hu & Wang, 2014; Hyland, 1999, 2004; Swales, 2014). In addition to these roles, citation serves as a reliable criterion of information quality as citation number shows the status and reputation of scholars, departments, institutions, and journals. It also reflects a writer's academic presence and credibility (Kafes, 2017).

Citation practices in academic writing are often implicit, particularly in how authority is constructed and conveyed through citation (Hyland, 1999). This implicitness arises because citation is not merely a technical skill but a rhetorical practice strongly established in disciplinary conventions, which are often not clearly explained to novice writers (Hyland, 1999). One reason citation practices remain implicit is that they are tied to disciplinary expectations that vary widely across fields (Hyland, 2000). As Hyland (2000) argues, different disciplines use citations in distinct ways to construct authority and legitimacy. In the hard sciences, for example, citations are often used to establish factual bases and support empirical findings. In contrast, in the humanities and social sciences, citations are more frequently employed to engage with theoretical perspectives and situate the writer within ongoing debates. These differences make it difficult to teach a one-size-fits-all approach to citation, making students to figure out the correct practices through trial and

error. Moreover, Hyland (2002) emphasizes that citation is an important rhetorical tool for shaping a writer's identity and authority. By choosing whom to cite and how to cite them, writers position themselves within their disciplinary community. Authority in citation also depends on how writers manage the relationship between their own voices and those of their sources. According to Hyland (2005), effective citation requires that writers maintain a critical stance, using citations not only to acknowledge sources but also to establish their own stance within the scholarly discussion. This skill involves selecting citations that reinforce the writer's argument while avoiding over-reliance on sources that could take focus away from their own work. Furthermore, the implicit nature of citation practices often leads to anxiety among novice writers (Hyland, 2012). In all, the lack of explicit instruction adds to these difficulties, leaving students to navigate the complexities of citation largely on their own. To address these challenges, Hyland (2016) recommends more explicit instruction on citation practices in graduate writing programs. He suggests that educators should clarify the rhetorical roles of citation by teaching students how to use citations to construct authority, position themselves within their field, and contribute to scholarly debates. By making these practices explicit, educators can help students navigate the usually unclear conventions of academic writing more effectively. One of the effective models for teaching citation explicitly is Harris's Moves (2017). Harris (2017) emphasizes the rhetorical functions of citation through a series of 'moves' that writers can use to engage critically with sources. When taught explicitly, such moves empower graduate students to use citations strategically, construct authority, and contribute meaningfully to scholarly conversations (Hyland, 2022). The subsequent section will explore these moves in detail.

## 2.12 Harris citation moves

Research writers need to be adept at interpreting texts, and even more crucially, they need to be able to justify their interpretations. This skill is essential for understanding any complex text (Deane, 2020). Harris (2017) outlines strategies, known as ‘moves,’ that help clarify the complexities in writing. These moves represent rhetorical or linguistic patterns commonly found within a specific genre (Badenhorst, 2018). Harris (2017) identifies four key moves: Coming to terms, forwarding, countering, and taking an approach.

‘Coming to terms’ involves engaging with the content, concepts, and issues presented in a text. During this phase, researchers aim to identify the writer’s central argument and key ideas. Mechanisms for achieving this are: Summarizing, paraphrasing, quoting, and describing the material. After grasping the main ideas, writers progress to ‘forwarding,’ which entails the way a writer recirculates, repurposes or uses source texts. The mechanisms for this include: Illustrating, where writers use examples from other texts—such as anecdotes, data, or scenarios—to clarify their argument. Another mechanism, authorizing, involves referencing authoritative figures or scholars to lend credibility to the writer’s perspective, helping to establish the argument’s legitimacy. Borrowing is another key strategy, where writers incorporate concepts or terminology from other authors to support their argument and effectively integrate these ideas into their own work. Finally, extending refers to adding a writer’s own interpretation to an idea taken from another text in order to advance their own argument.

The next move is ‘countering’ or arguing against a text or author, which is an essential aspect of academic writing. Understanding the topic and building on existing ideas is insufficient. Academic writing always includes counterarguments. Here, countering looks at other views and texts not as wrong but as partial – in the sense of being both interested and incomplete (emphasis

in original). This means that academic writers are not always expected to contradict another's argument. Instead, they should build on earlier ideas to push the discussion forward. There are three primary approaches to establishing critical stance: One such approach is arguing the other side, where writers highlight the value of a term or idea that another author has criticized or point out issues with a concept they support. Another approach, uncovering values, involves drawing attention to terms or ideas that the original text has left undefined or unaddressed. Additionally, dissenting allows writers to acknowledge a commonly held viewpoint on a topic to examine its limitations.

The final genre move is 'taking an approach,' which involves firmly establishing your stance on an argument. This can be achieved by either aligning with another author's perspective or by developing your own ideas in relation to theirs. According to Harris, the emphasis should be on the author's overall intellectual contributions rather than just specific ideas. This move demands a comprehensive understanding of the literature, the author's contributions, and the ongoing debates surrounding various concepts (Badenhorst, 2018). There are some effective strategies to achieve this, namely: Acknowledging influences, where writers explicitly recognize how specific authors have shaped their thinking and informed their unique approach. Another move, turning an approach on itself, involves critically examining a writer's work by applying the same questions or critiques they use for others, fostering both a nuanced appreciation and healthy skepticism toward their ideas. Additionally, reflexivity requires writers to maintain critical self-awareness of their assumptions and how these relate to the author's ideas. This process involves considering alternative perspectives, evaluating evidence, acknowledging biases, and adopting new approaches or perspectives when necessary.

As mentioned above, Harris (2017) developed the citation moves as a response to the challenges students face in integrating sources into their writing and engaging with them critically. Recognizing that many students treat citation as a mechanical task rather than a rhetorical one, Harris (2017) sought to provide a framework that highlights the active, interpretive nature of working with texts. His moves encourage students to see citation as a way to position themselves within a scholarly conversation, rather than merely to document sources or avoid plagiarism (Harris, 2017). Additionally, the moves encourage a deeper understanding of citation as a tool for argumentation rather than mere documentation. By focusing on the rhetorical purpose of each move, it helps students learn to use citations strategically to support, qualify, or contest ideas in their writing (Harris, 2017). This strategic use of citations is particularly valuable in addressing the challenges faced by graduate students, who are often required to contribute original insights while engaging deeply with the existing literature (Hyland, 1999). In all, citations are essential in the process of argument construction, enabling writers to establish their position, connect with prior research, and contribute to ongoing academic discussions (Hyland, 2004). The following section examines the connection between citation and argumentation in greater depth.

### **2.13 Argument and citation**

Integrating insights from various sources to one's own ideas is essential for building knowledge (Hendricks & Quinn, 2000; Hyland, 2004). Instead of merely reproducing source material, it should be reexamined and incorporated into one's own argument (McCulloch, 2012; Badenhorst, 2019). By using citations, academic writers not only situate their research within the broader scholarly context but also provide evidence to support their claims (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). In addition to other rhetorical features in academic writing such as hedges and

imperatives, citation is described as a rhetorical feature which is “central to the social context of persuasion” (Hyland, 1999, p. 342) and arguments’ strength (Gullbekk & Byström, 2018). Academics use citations to persuade readers, construct arguments, and convince readers to accept their work (Hyland, 1999). Persuasion in this context, involves the use of language to connect individual beliefs to shared experiences (Hyland, 2008). The ability to summarize or integrate an author’s arguments reflects the writer’s understanding of that argument (Borg, 2000). All in all, the effectiveness of academic writing hinges on positioning current research within a broader disciplinary narrative (Hyland, 2005). Without these connections, scholars cannot validate their arguments or demonstrate the novelty of their work in the field (Hyland, 2002). Furthermore, overlooking others’ prior work or words can lead to serious academic consequences (Borg, 2000). Thus, at the core of academic persuasion is the writer’s effort to anticipate and address possible objections to their claims. This requires a thorough understanding of their discipline’s persuasive strategies, including how ideas are presented, the use of warrants, and how arguments are framed to be most convincing to their audience (Hyland, 2008).

Citations play a crucial role in constructing arguments in academic writing by serving as foundational tools for organizing, supporting, and situating ideas within the broader scholarly conversation (Hyland, 2004). Hyland (2004) highlights that citations are not just mechanical tools for acknowledging sources but are integral to establishing the writer’s argument by situating it within existing research.

## **2.14 Studies on argumentation and citation**

As discussed earlier, argumentation and citation practices are integral components of academic writing. Numerous studies have examined these elements across various academic contexts. For example, in a most recent study, Carter (2023) examined persuasion in discussion sections of thirty science research articles according to Aristotle's rhetorical framework as this part of the paper is central to how new knowledge is communicated. The study analyzes the discussion sections, with a specific focus on their sentence-level arguments. Carter (2023) believes to analyze persuasion effectively, we should be able to identify the specific arguments that contribute to the overall persuasiveness. He found out that arguments based on cause and effect, induction, consequence, and opposition play a key role in persuasion and can be analyzed using Toulmin's model (2003).

In another similar study, Parkinson (2011) explores how authors construct arguments in the discussion sections of scientific papers to substantiate their knowledge claims. The study conducted on two small corpora, physics research articles and physics students' laboratory reports. By analyzing linguistic strategies, the study highlights how language is used to frame findings, position them within the existing literature, and persuade readers of their validity. Authors employ various rhetorical techniques, such as hedging to express uncertainty, boosting to emphasize confidence, and intertextual references to justify their claims with prior research. The discussion section serves as a context for argumentation, where writers negotiate the implications of their findings, address potential limitations, and justify their contributions to the field. The article emphasizes the importance of mastering these linguistic and rhetorical practices for effective academic communication and argues that these conventions are crucial in establishing credibility and authority in scientific discourse.

In terms of citational practices, Mu (2024) examines how second language (L2) novice and expert writers use citations in the literature review sections of their academic writings. The purpose of the study is to analyze the functional roles of citations in these sections and to explore differences between L2 novice and expert writers in their citation practices. The sample consists of 100 literature review sections of L2 master's theses and 100 research article literature review sections in the field of translation studies. The findings show that novice researchers, particularly L2 students, exhibit distinct citation practices compared to experts. Novices tend to use single-source citations with an active voice and past tense, presenting sources and examples in a way that hides their authorial stance due to the frequent use of non-factive reporting verbs. Additionally, their direct long quotations often lack necessary interpretation and fail to establish intertextual links.

In contrast, experts use citations to support their own claims and arguments, positioning citations as evidence to strengthen their research and underscore its significance. The differences in citation practices may stem from the novices' limited understanding of the evaluative aspects of citation forms, reporting verbs, tense, and voice, as well as the cumulative experience of expert writers. Additionally, these differences may be attributed to the comprehensive knowledge and experience accumulated by expert writers over time. In all, the study highlights that while both groups use citations to acknowledge prior work, expert writers demonstrate a more sophisticated use of citations to advance their own research, position their work within the academic discourse, and engage critically with existing literature.

In another similar study, Mansourizadeh and Ahmed (2011) investigate the citation moves employed by non-native English speakers at different levels of expertise in scientific writing. The purpose of the study is to explore how novice and expert non-native writers use citations to position their research within the existing academic discourse. The sample includes 14 scientific articles in

the field of chemical engineering written by non-native English-speaking researchers, categorized as expert and novice based on their academic experience and publication history. The findings reveal that the type and function of citation employed were different: Novice writers mainly used citations to attribute while experts used citations strategically to provide support and justify their claims. Novices mainly used citation in isolation whereas expert writers successfully synthesize various sources and made greater use of non-integral citations. In another words, expert writers demonstrate a more strategic use of citations, integrating them into their arguments to establish authority, highlight gaps in the literature, and justify their research. In contrast, novice writers tend to use citations more mechanically, often summarizing existing work without deeply engaging with it or strategically positioning their own contributions. The study underscores the importance of teaching citation practices to L2 writers, as expert-level citation strategies are critical for effective academic writing and for engaging with the international research community

In a more comprehensive study, Zhang (2011) investigates how citations are used in social science research articles, focusing on their role across different sections or ‘part-genres’ of the articles. The purpose of the study is to explore the varying functions of in-text citations within the introduction, literature review, methodology, results, and discussion sections. The sample consists of a 30 social science research articles. The citations identified in their rhetorical contexts were analyzed for densities, surface forms, roles of cited authors, reporting verbs, and functions. The study reveals shared patterns and substantial variations in citation practices across different part-genres of research articles. The analysis shows a preference for non-integral over integral citations. Reporting verbs are mostly neutral or positive, reflecting the writers’ tendency to avoid judging the accuracy of cited works. Functionally, citations are primarily used to identify related works, establishing intertextual links with established research. Significant variations across part-genres

are identified. In the Introduction, citations are used to create a research context, identify literature gaps, and motivate the study. Non-integral citations are preferred for synthesizing information, while integral citations are used for recounting methodologies and findings. In the Methods section, citations are used to contextualize and justify methodological choices, primarily in non-integral format. Results sections typically use non-integral citations to explain and compare findings, while integral citations are rare. In the Discussion section, non-integral citations dominate, as they are used to compare and contrast findings and highlight discrepancies. When integral citations appear, they often feature source authors as subjects, helping writers distance themselves from potential flaws in the cited work. Overall, citation practices vary across sections, driven by rhetorical goals, and are employed to support argumentation, validate methods, and contextualize findings within the broader academic discourse.

To the best of the researcher's knowledge, several studies have explored argumentation and citation practices across various academic genres, including theses, dissertations, and journal articles. However, despite the growing body of research on these topics, there has been limited focus on the specific use of citations in strengthening arguments within certain sections, particularly literature reviews. As mentioned throughout this chapter, literature reviews, which play a central role in framing academic arguments, have not been sufficiently examined in terms of how citations are purposefully employed to support or challenge claims. This gap in the existing literature highlights the need to explore how citations are applied to construct arguments in literature reviews. Understanding the function of citations in this context could offer valuable insights into the ways scholars position their research within broader academic conversations and contribute to knowledge building in their respective fields. Thus, addressing this gap becomes essential for deepening our understanding of the role of citations in academic argumentation.

## 2.15 Summary

It is evident that writing a literature review is a complex and demanding task, requiring not only a deep understanding of the field but also the ability to engage with, synthesize, and critique existing research. The challenges of academic writing, especially at the graduate level, are compounded by the implicit nature of citation practices, which vary across disciplines and are often not explicitly taught.

Citations are not merely tools for acknowledging sources. They are integral to the argumentation process, positioning research within the broader scholarly conversation, and reinforcing the persuasiveness of claims. Through citation, writers assert their authority, provide evidence, and link their arguments to existing knowledge. The strategic use of citations, as highlighted by frameworks like Harris's Moves (2017), is vital for graduate students who must not only contribute original insights but also engage with and critically incorporate sources to construct convincing, evidence-based arguments.

This review has also addressed the gap in existing research regarding the specific use of citations in literature reviews. While there has been considerable focus on citation practices across various academic genres, little attention has been given to how citations function to strengthen arguments within the literature review section itself. Given the significance of literature reviews in framing and advancing academic arguments, further investigation into this area is crucial. Such research would provide valuable insights into how citations contribute to knowledge-building, argument construction, and the positioning of research within disciplinary discourses. Ultimately, mastering the use of citations is essential for graduate students to navigate the complexities of academic writing and successfully engage in scholarly debates. Explicit instruction on citation

practices, coupled with an understanding of their rhetorical functions, can equip students to increase the clarity, coherence, and impact of their academic writing.

This chapter has emphasized the crucial role of citations in constructing and strengthening academic arguments, particularly in literature reviews. Building on this foundation, the methodology chapter shifts focus to the data collected on citation practices in published academic articles. The next chapter will detail the process of analyzing a sample of scholarly articles using established models of argumentation (Toulmin, 2003) and citation methods (Harris, 2017), to explore how citations are strategically employed to support arguments within literature reviews. The methodology chapter will offer further insights into the practical application of citation practices and their significance in the construction of persuasive academic arguments.

## Chapter three: Methodology

### 3.1 Introduction

As discussed in chapter two, despite the significance of argumentative writing in graduate literature, many graduate students do not know how citations can be used to help them develop their arguments. To address this gap, the present study seeks to explore, how citations help graduate students to build arguments in literature reviews of their early-career publications in a Canadian journal. This chapter outlines the methodology adopted for the research. It includes detailed discussions on the research paradigm, the qualitative design, data collection methods, sample selection, data analysis techniques, and the procedures followed throughout the study.

### 3.2 Research paradigm

Researchers bring specific beliefs and philosophical assumptions to their work. These beliefs are often referred to as paradigms (Creswell, 2007). According to Creswell (2007), paradigms encompass views on: *Ontology* (the nature of reality), *epistemology* (what counts as knowledge and how knowledge claims are justified), *axiology* (the role of values in research), and *methodology* (the research procedure)

In social studies, according to Leavy (2017), there are five major paradigms or research approaches: Quantitative, qualitative, mixed-method, arts-based, community-based participatory research. The selection of a methodology should always align with the research purpose and the questions being explored (Leavy, 2017). As the current study attempts to broaden and deepen understanding of how citations contribute to strengthening academic arguments through a contextual analysis, a qualitative approach seemed the most appropriate methodology. Qualitative

approaches value the complexity of communication and seeks to understand how meaning is constructed through the interaction between text, author, and audience within a specific context (Cooley, 2017). Conducting research on texts within a qualitative paradigm involves analyzing textual data to understand underlying meanings, patterns, and themes (Krippendorff, 2018). This approach aligns with a qualitative paradigm's emphasis on exploring complex phenomena through detailed, contextualized analysis (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Due to the fact that arguments do not exist in isolation (Toulmin, 2003), understanding them within their full context helps reveal layers of meaning that may remain hidden without this comprehensive approach.

### **3.2.1 Qualitative research**

Qualitative research is described as “the study of the nature of phenomena in terms of their quality, different manifestations, the context in which they appear or the perspectives from which they can be perceived”. In such studies, “the range, frequency and objectively determined chain of cause and effect of the phenomena are excluded” (Busetto et al., 2020, p.2). One of the key strengths of qualitative research is its ability to explore a topic in great depth (Cleary et al., 2014). According to Creswell (2007), a qualitative approach embraces multiple realities in terms of ontology. From an epistemological standpoint, it views knowledge as something that emerges from individuals' subjective experiences. Regarding axiology, qualitative researchers acknowledge the value-laden nature of their studies and openly report their own values and biases, as well as the inherent biases in the data collected. This means they ‘position themselves’ within the study (Creswell, 2007).

### 3.3 Research design

Research design is the process of building a structure or plan for the research project (Leavy, 2017). In qualitative research, there are various methods available, namely: Surveys, interviews, field research, content analysis, case study, self-data, mixed-methods, literacy practices, performative practices, visual arts practices, and community-based method. Among these methods, some of them are popular, such as interview, self-data, and content analysis or textual analysis methods (Leavy, 2017). This study aims to explore how graduates use citations to build strong arguments in literature reviews of their early-career publications. Academic publications, like all texts, carry meaning and content. One of the most straightforward methods to examine this is through content analysis (Bazerman & Prior, 2004). Drawing on its purposes, this study took advantage of content analysis because it concerns more than counting or categorizing words, but about understanding the meaning that arises from the argumentation process within the text and its context (Krippendorff, 2018).

While ‘content’ is a central term, content analysis is not limited to analyzing thematic content (Krippendorff, 2018). It can also be implemented to explore structural patterns and the ways in which writers organize their ideas (Mayring, 2015). Citations serve as key organizational tools to the *process* of argument construction (Hyland, 2004). Content analysis enables the researcher to break down data into manageable units or categories for analysis and this facilitates the coding and analysis of recurring patterns or meanings (Stemler, 2001). Therefore, it allows ‘systematic’ examination (Krippendorff, 2018) of the presence and function of argumentative elements and citation moves. Moreover, by uncovering these patterns and extracting meaning from textual data, this approach can generate valuable insights into the communication processes involved in academic writing (Berg, 2007).

Content analysis (CA) is a research methodology which can make sense of the content of messages (Gheyle & Jacobs, 2017). It involves identifying and analyzing specific words, phrases, concepts, or other observable elements in a text with the aim of revealing the underlying rhetorical or thematic patterns. Some scholars describe content analysis as a way of studying documented human communication (Babbie, 2013). In qualitative research, content analysis is used to explore the meanings embedded within texts. As previously mentioned, writing as a social phenomenon (Wingate & Tribble, 2011). Understanding social phenomenon cannot be achieved without understanding how language operates in the social contexts (Krippendorff, 2018). To put it differently, language is not merely a tool for communication (Krippendorff, 2018) but also a vehicle for constructing social norms, power and knowledge in society (Gore, 1995). Therefore, understanding the content, context, and meanings embedded in language is essential for interpreting social phenomena, as language shapes and transmits knowledge within specific social contexts (Gore, 1995). Therefore, content analysis analyzes not only textual content but also the context in which the text was created (Leavy, 2017). Texts are not produced in a vacuum. By considering the context of production, researchers can better understand the messages conveyed and how they are likely to be interpreted by different audiences (Leavy, 2017). That is why some scholars describe content analysis as a way of studying documented human communication (Babbie, 2013). The key advantages of content analysis over other text analysis methods lies in its strong foundation in communications (Mayring, 2015).

In general, there are three main approaches to content analysis: Quantitative content analysis, interpretive content analysis, and qualitative content analysis (Neuendorf, 2017). While all three forms of content analysis involve systematic examination of content, they differ significantly in their aims, data types, and methods of analysis (Neuendorf, 2017). Qualitative

content analysis focuses on exploring and interpreting the deeper meanings of textual data, aiming to uncover themes, patterns, and narratives within a dataset. This approach is inductive, meaning that researchers allow themes to emerge organically from the data, rather than starting with predefined categories or hypotheses (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Qualitative content analysis is typically used when the goal is to understand the why and how of a phenomenon, particularly in its specific context (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). On the other hand, quantitative content analysis involves counting and measuring aspects of the data in order to identify trends, correlations, or relationships between variables. This approach is deductive, often starting with predefined categories or hypotheses, and is used to test theories or answer questions about the how much or how often of a phenomenon (Neuendorf, 2017). Quantitative content analysis is particularly useful when the researcher aims to quantify certain elements and make generalizable conclusions based on large datasets. This approach lends itself to statistical analysis, allowing researchers to draw conclusions based on measurable data that can be applied to a larger population (Neuendorf, 2017). Interpretive content analysis combines elements of both qualitative and quantitative methods but places a stronger emphasis on understanding the subjective meanings and social contexts of texts. Rooted in the interpretivist paradigm, interpretive content analysis acknowledges that meaning is socially constructed and context-dependent. It focuses on understanding the intent behind texts, considering the broader cultural, social, and historical context in which they were produced and received (Fairclough, 1995; Elo et al., 2014). In summary, while quantitative content analysis emphasizes word counts, interpretive and qualitative approaches are more concerned with describing and interpreting the meaning behind the communication.

This study draws on *interpretive content analysis* because this approach provides a comprehensive understanding of the context in which citations are used. It was mentioned that

citations, rather than simply being references to prior work, they serve as tools that reflect broader academic conventions and the rhetorical strategies authors employ to position their arguments within ongoing scholarly debates (Fairclough, 1995; Elo et al., 2014). Additionally, interpretive content analysis considers the social and cultural factors that shape citation practices. By examining how citations are used, the researcher can explore how graduate students align their arguments with disciplinary norms and meet the expectations of their scholarly community (Gee, 2014). From the perspective of Krippendorff (2018) and Schreier (2012), the first key characteristic of content analysis is its highly systematic nature. It follows a structured approach to data collection and analysis, and categorize data into predefined themes, pattern, or categories. The second key characteristic is its flexibility.

Writing is a “social practice” that is deeply influenced by its specific context (Lea & Street 1998, p. 159). This means that writing is not merely a mechanical act of putting words on paper, but a dynamic, context-dependent process (Street, 2003). Writing is shaped by the interactions between writers, readers, and the broader community and it is influenced by social, cultural, and institutional factors (Hyland, 2004). Content analysis provides a lens through which the social, cultural, and disciplinary contexts of writing can be accessed. Its ability to link textual features to broader social influences makes it a powerful tool for understanding academic writing as a socially situated practice (Hyland, 2019). As discussed in previous chapter, the academic literacies framework (developed by Lea & Street, 1998), shifts the focus from traditional models of academic writing that emphasize a set of fixed skills or conventions, to a more socially situated activity, embedded within specific academic communities. This perspective recognizes writing as a tool for social interaction rather than just a means of conveying information (Lea & street, 2006). In other words, the texts are always understood in relation to their specific communication context

and interpreted within that context. Given the importance of academic contexts and argumentation skills, content analysis enables this researcher to thoroughly examine citation patterns and the role they play in supporting arguments, both at the surface level and in deeper meaning. It also reveals common strategies or weaknesses in citation usage, and highlights how citations choices relate to the broader academic discourse.

### **3.4 Data collection**

This study seeks to explore how the use of citations can strengthen the academic arguments. To achieve this aim, papers published in the *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education/Revue canadienne des jeunes chercheuses et chercheurs en éducation* (CJNSE/RCJCÉ) were selected for analysis. This national peer-reviewed journal was created in 2007 with the aim of supporting graduate students by increasing networking opportunities, improving scholarly writing skills, building and sharing knowledge within the field of education, and providing a platform for scholarly contributions. This open-access journal is hosted by the server of University of Calgary. CJNSE/RCJCÉ publishes electronically twice a year, in spring and fall, with ongoing submissions and deadlines in the summer and winter. Although the journal is managed by graduate students and does not compete with top publications, its submission guidelines and quality standards are adapted from reputable sources and customized to the journal's needs. This journal's website explicitly stated that it exclusively accepts manuscripts from current Canadian education graduate students or international students studying in Canada. As a result, it primarily focuses on early-career publications by education graduates. This study focus on early-career researchers for several reasons: First, early-career researchers frequently encounter specific challenges in academic writing, particularly in making strong arguments and mastering effective citation

techniques (Kamler & Thomson, 2006). Second, analyzing how these writers formulate their arguments provides insight into their comprehension of rhetorical strategies and critical thinking abilities (Carter, 2007). Third, given the varying levels of experience with citation practices among early-career researchers, examining their citation usage can reveal both strengths and weaknesses (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). Furthermore, studying these early-career writers can help fill the gap between established research practices and the evolving requirements of new scholars (Phillips & Pugh, 2010). Consequently, the insights gained from this analysis can benefit writing instructors in identifying essential elements of convincing arguments and the role of citations in these arguments.

### **3.5 Sampling**

Sampling is a procedure employed by researchers to systematically select a smaller, subset of items or individuals from a defined population, aligned with the objectives of the study, this subset serves as the data (Sharma, 2017).

Generally speaking, in any research, there are two main ways for selecting a sample from a population: *Random* and *non-random sampling*. Random sampling, also called probability or chance sampling, is when every item of has an equal chance of inclusion in the sample. The key types of random sampling are: A) *Simple Random Sampling* (Equal selection probability for each population member), b) *Systematic Sampling* (Sample selection based on the first unit), c) *Stratified Random Sampling* (Population division into subgroups), d) *Cluster Sampling* (Selection of naturally occurring groups as sample units). Non-random sampling, also known as non-probability sampling is a method where sample selection is not based on the probability of each unit being

included. Instead, the sample is chosen based on factors like the researcher's judgment, experience, intentions, or expertise. It has following types: *Quota Sampling* (proportional representation of the population i.e male/female), *Purposive Sampling* (selection of sample based on the researchers' judgment or criteria), *Self-Selection Sampling* (participants voluntarily choose to be part of the research study), and *Snowball Sampling* (current participants recruit future subjects from their network of acquaintances).

As the current study specifically focused on citation and argumentation skills of education graduate students in Canada, purposive sampling was the most appropriate method. Rai and Thapa (2015) provide thorough descriptions of this type of sampling as follows: Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental, selective or subjective sampling, relies on the judgment of the researcher when it comes to selecting the sample. In contrast to probability sampling techniques, the goal of purposive sampling is not generalizations. Instead, the primary aim of purposive sampling is to concentrate on specific characteristics of the population that are relevant to effectively addressing the research questions. There are seven types of purposive sampling (Rai & Thapa, 2015): 1) *Maximum variation or heterogeneous sampling*: It is a technique designed to capture a wide range of perspectives relating to the study's interests. 2) *Homogeneous sampling*: It is a purposive sampling technique aimed at achieving a homogeneous sample; that is, a sample whose units share the same or very similar characteristics. 3) *Typical case sampling*: It is a purposive sampling approach employed when the focus is on the normality or typicality of the sample. The typicality means that the researcher can compare findings with other similar samples rather than generalizing the results to a larger population. 4) *Extreme (or deviant) case sampling*: It is a purposive sampling method that concentrates on cases that are exceptional or unusual. 5) *Critical case sampling*: It is a purposive sampling method in which a small number of cases are capable of providing significant

insights or understanding about the phenomenon of interest. These cases are considered ‘critical’ because their findings can lead to important conclusions or implications. 6) *Total population sampling*: It involves selecting the entire population when the group with the desired characteristics are very small. 7) *Expert sampling*: It is a purposive technique used to gather knowledge from individuals with specific expertise relevant to the research.

In qualitative research, sample size can refer not only to the number of individuals but also to the number of interviews, observations, or events included in the study (Gill, 2020). In this research, for the selection of the six most recent published papers in 2024 from the *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*, homogenous sampling was implemented. The selection was based on the assumption that any published paper in the journal meets the required publication criteria, therefore they are all the same and they would provide rich data in order to understand the phenomenon under study (Hennink et al., 2017). Another reason for selecting six papers was to explore the topic in great depth (Cleary, Horsfall & Hayter, 2014).

The rationale behind selecting this journal was its exclusive focus on early-career researchers. It accepts manuscripts from *current* Canadian education graduates or international students studying in Canada. Therefore, it can provide valuable insights into the experiences, challenges, and contributions of graduates in academic writing. Moreover, as the journal is dedicated to educational research, it provides relevant context and data for the study, allowing for a deeper understanding of citation practices within this specific discipline.

### 3.6 Data analysis

Merriam (2009) believes that “data analysis is the process used to answer your research questions,” (p.176). There are two main approaches to qualitative data analysis (Burnard et al., 2008): *Deductive* and *Inductive*. The deductive approach uses a predefined structure or framework to guide the analysis. In this method, the researcher imposes a structure or theories on the data and then uses them to analyze the collected data. This approach is useful in studies which researchers are aware of probable participant responses. Conversely, the inductive approach involves analyzing data with little or no predetermined theory, structure, or framework, and uses the actual data to derive the structure of analysis. In other words, allowing the analysis framework to emerge from the data itself. This approach is comprehensive and therefore time-consuming, and is most suitable where little or nothing is known about the phenomenon being studied. This study aims to understand how citations aid Canadian graduates in constructing arguments in their literature reviews. According to the described qualitative approaches, the deductive approach is well-suited to this research as it traces how specific moves or patterns align with the theoretical frameworks (Harris, 2017; Toulmin, 2003). This approach offers several advantages. Firstly, it provides a systematic framework for analysis, enabling researchers to test theoretical concepts or hypotheses against the data in a structured manner. Deductive content analysis is especially effective when there is prior knowledge of the phenomena, as it facilitates a focused examination of the data (Szabó et al., 2024). Moreover, deductive methods simplify the data analysis process by utilizing predefined categories or themes. As Mayring (2015) points out, this approach reduces complexity and ensures that the analysis remains closely aligned with the study’s objectives.

It should be noted that the *literature review* sections of the published articles have been selected as the data of current study. The rationales behind selecting this genre was the fact that

literature review, by nature, requires citing other studies to make an argument and to engage in academic conversations (Li et al., 2023). To put it differently, citations are fundamental to the literature review. Moreover, while language and rhetorical moves of literature reviews are widely researched, less research focuses on citation use in literature reviews (Badenhorst, 2019).

Saldaña (2016) offers a comprehensive framework for analyzing qualitative data. It involves a two-phase coding process, designed to systematically uncover and refine emerging insights. In the *First Cycle Coding*, researchers categorize and label data using methods like descriptive, in vivo, process coding, emotion coding, or values, or initial coding to identify key elements. The *Second Cycle Coding* refines these initial codes into more abstract themes using techniques like pattern, focused, axial, theoretical coding. After categorizing the data, researchers proceed to *Theming the Data*, where they synthesize codes into broader themes that address the research questions.

For this study, data analysis began immediately after the initial data were collected, although this process continued and was modified throughout the study. The researcher initially read each paper entirely, with the intent of trying to see the big picture, then, the literature review section of each paper extracted and compiled into a separate word file. This aligns with Saldaña's (2016) initial coding phase, where researchers familiarize themselves with the data before applying any specific coding methods. As the second step, each literature review section was read through again and as the researcher read through the document, paid meticulous attention to the details. This is the phase where focused or process coding (Saldaña, 2016) came into play. The researcher identified phrases or passages that are crucial to the analysis. As the third step, the researcher began to tag and made notes and highlights the phrases or sentences demonstrating the elements and moves. To put it differently, the raw data were aligned with "theoretical terms" (Busetto et al.,

2020, p. 20) and sorted accordingly. This is the Saldaña's (2016) descriptive coding or theoretical coding, where the researcher labels the data using predefined frameworks and categories. Each category was assigned a specific color, and each paper was reviewed again, with data fitting each category marked in the corresponding color. This is part of *Second Cycle Coding*: Pattern coding or focused coding, where the researcher refines the initial codes and organizes them into meaningful patterns and categories. At the final step, to ensure accuracy, the documents were re-read and checked multiple times. This step ensures the validity of the coding process and aligns with Saldaña's (2016) interpretation and conclusion drawing phase, where the researcher ensures that themes and patterns are correctly identified and represented. The following subsections illustrated the way that themes and patterns identified through examples from the data.

### **3.7 Toulmin's Model (2003)**

As described in previous section, the researcher initially read the whole paper. Then, extracted the literature review section and read meticulously. Subsequently, adopting the predefined frameworks to guide the analyses (deductive approach), first, the key elements of arguments outlined by Toulmin (2003) were reviewed and summarized as follows:

**Table 1** (Toulmin, 2003)

*Toulmin's (2003) argumentative elements*

<b>Claim</b>	The main argument or assertion that the arguer wants to prove
<b>Grounds</b>	The evidence, data, or facts that support the claim
<b>Warrant</b>	The logical connection between the grounds and the claim, explaining why the grounds support the claim.
<b>Backing</b>	Additional support for the warrant, strengthening the connection.
<b>Qualifier</b>	Words or phrases that limit the strength of the claim, showing that it may not always be true
<b>Rebuttal</b>	Possible counter-arguments or exceptions to the claim

Taking these definitions into consideration, the researcher identified the relevant elements within each article. To determine the *claim*, the researcher focused on sentences where the author explicitly expressed a clear position or makes a statement about what is being argued. The claim was tagged and highlighted in green. For example, in article No. 1, the claim was:

*“Reformation of the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to greater self-efficacy and teachers exhibit more willingness to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi & Leyser, 2006)”.*

Concerning *ground* within the same article, the researcher searched for any citations, research findings or any explanations that provided support for the claim. The grounds were tagged and highlighted in red. In article No. 1, the grounds were:

*“Ekins et al. (2016) and Oo et al. (2022), who further recommended that the curriculum be reformed to “consider [preservice teachers’] theoretical knowledge acquisition and practical skills development while building their confidence to design and implement various assessment strategies” (p. 367).*

Another key element is the *warrant*, which serves as the logical connection between the grounds and the claim. The researcher searched for implicit or explicit explanations that demonstrated how the grounds supports the argument, tagged and highlighted in yellow. For example:

*“A study of preservice teachers found that many had concerns about how equipped they were to successfully meet the needs of an inclusive classroom (Loreman, 2010; Specht et al., 2016)”.*

*Backing*, another crucial argumentative element, strengthens the warrant by providing additional evidence or justifications. The researcher sought out further references or broader contextual information that reinforced the claim. They were tagged and highlighted in blue.

*“Such needs like that of social, academic, instructional and assessment (Loreman, 2010; Massouti, 2019) are challenging to define (Hansen, 2012; Qvortrup & Qvortrup, 2018).*

Another essential element are *qualifiers*. Qualifiers are often words or phrases that show the strength of the claim, indicating that it may not hold true in all situations. In article No. 1, the following examples were tagged and highlighted in purple:

*“Reformation of the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to greater self-efficacy and teachers exhibit more willingness to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi & Leyser, 2006)”.*

*Rebuttals*, as the last element, addresses any potential counterarguments or exceptions. The researcher needed to look for any indications of opposing views to the argument. Such elements were marked and highlighted in brown. In article No.1, no rebuttals were provided.

The same procedure was applied to identify Harris’s moves (2017), which are explained in detail in the subsequent section.

### 3.9 Validity of the study

In qualitative research, validity refers to the ‘appropriateness’ of the tools, processes, and data used. This includes ensuring that the research question aligns with the desired outcomes, the chosen methodology effectively addresses the research question, the design is suitable for the methodology, the sampling and data analysis methods are appropriate, and the results and conclusions accurately reflect the sample and context (Leung, 2015). Maxwell (2013) proposed five criteria to assess the validity of qualitative research. His five criteria help ensure the quality, and trustworthiness of qualitative research. These criteria are: *Descriptive Validity*: This refers to the factual accuracy of the data or description of the events in the research. *Interpretive Validity*: Interpretive validity concerns the accuracy of the meaning or interpretation that researchers assign to participants’ words and actions. *Theoretical Validity*: This type of validity involves assessing whether the concepts and theories that emerge from the research are valid and well-grounded. Theoretical validity is about the soundness of the explanation or framework that the researcher develops based on the data. It asks whether the theoretical constructs used in the study adequately represent the phenomenon being studied. *Generalizability*: Maxwell divides generalizability into two types: *Internal Generalizability*: Refers to the extent to which the findings are generalizable within the specific context of the study, i.e., whether the conclusions drawn apply to the specific people, settings, or events studied. *External Generalizability*: Concerns whether the findings can be generalized beyond the study’s specific context to other settings, times, or people. Maxwell notes that in qualitative research, external generalizability is often limited, but it can still be valuable if the research draws theoretical insights that can apply to broader contexts or if other researchers can apply the findings in similar situations. *Evaluative Validity*: Evaluative validity refers to the researcher’s ability to assess and avoid their own bias or value judgments when

analyzing and interpreting the data. It ensures that the researcher's personal opinions, values, or preferences do not distort the representation of the participants' perspectives.

Validity is crucial because it determines the accuracy, trustworthiness, and credibility of the research findings (Maxwell, 2012). In the case of this study, it can be claimed that descriptive, interpretive, theoretical, and evaluative validities have been met. In terms of descriptive validity, the researcher provided a faithful representation of what she captured by documenting citations as they appear and providing description of how students are using them without altering or over-interpreting the data. Concerning interpretive validity, the researcher attempted to understand why graduates use citations in particular ways and reflect graduates' real intentions rather than her assumptions as a researcher. To meet theoretical validity, the researcher demonstrated and resonated that categorization of citation functions in a way that of reflective of the perceived functions in academic writing. In this study, the researcher presented students' practices objectively and avoided imposing her personal values or judgments on the data, therefore, it met the evaluative validity.

### **3.8. Harris's moves (2017)**

Another adopted predefined framework to guide the analyses was Harris's (2017) moves. Similarly, its defined moves were reviewed and summarized as follows:

**Table 2** (Harris, 2017)

*Harris`s (2017) moves*

<b>Coming to Terms</b>	Summarize and define key points of a text to understand it fully
<b>Forwarding</b>	Use an idea from a text in a new way or context
<b>Countering</b>	Offer alternative views or address overlooked aspects
<b>Taking an Approach</b>	Apply another writer`s style or methods to shape your own work

The first move is *coming to terms* which involves summarizing and contextualizing the work of others while maintaining a focus on the text`s goals. Such sentences were marked and highlighted in light green. For instance, in article No 1:

*“Stemming from the constructivist philosophical ideologies, the concept of self-efficacy evolved from the exploration of self-defining concepts and theories of motivation.”*

*“Self-efficacy or perceived self-efficacy by Albert Bandura in his 1994 work titled Self-Efficacy defines the term as ‘people’s beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance.’”*

The next move is *forwarding*. This move involves using others` ideas to extend or develop the writer`s argument. The identified sentences were marked and highlighted in light blue. For example, in article No 1:

*“We consider the significant positive correlation between teacher education programs, their contribution towards cultivating efficacious teachers and how they can be influenced (Bandura & Wessels, 1994; Clark & Newberry, 2018)”.*

*“As today`s classrooms become more inclusive, teacher education (TE) curricula are reformed to meet and support students of diverse backgrounds.”*

*“A study of preservice teachers found that many had concerns about how equipped they were to successfully meet the needs of an inclusive classroom (Loreman, 2010; Specht et al., 2016).*

The third move is *countering*. It challenges existing ideas or identifies limitations, often offering an alternative perspective or solution. These ideas were identified and highlighted in pink. There was no countering move in the first article.

The last move is *taking an approach*, this move involves adopting and adapting concepts or methodologies to fit the writer's purpose. Sentences signaling this move were tagged and highlighted in grey.

*“Reformation of the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to greater self-efficacy and teachers who exhibit more willingness to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi & Leyser, 2006).”*

### **3.10 Limitations of the study**

Similar to many other studies, the current research faced several limitations. First, it focused solely on analyzing research articles from a single journal. Second, the study did not account for the authors' nationality or native language, limiting its focus to graduates within the Canadian context. Canagarajah (2002) believes that linguistic and cultural backgrounds can significantly influence academic writing and citation practices. Authors from diverse backgrounds often bring distinct rhetorical styles and conventions, shaped by their first languages and home cultures (Canagarajah, 2002). By not accounting for the authors' nationality or native language, the study may miss how these cultural influences shape graduate students' citation choices and argumentative strategies. Third, the study did not consider the current academic year of the graduate students. Graduate students' argumentation skills often evolve over the course of their studies, as they gain more experience in academic writing (Kamler & Thomson, 2006). By not

accounting for the academic year, the study may not differentiate between students at varying levels of expertise.

### **3.11 Ethics**

Ethics are central to social research to ensure that our studies do not cause harm to human beings (Leavy, 2017). This study utilized a content analysis design to examine existing, textual data that was not originally created for research purposes. Although the data involved were textual and the ethics application to a university review board was not needed but still ethical principles have been applied to the study. In other words, the research was conducted ethically.

Following the ethical guidelines, the researcher clearly explain how she selected, analyzed, and interpreted the published articles. This includes outlining the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the articles studied, as well as any biases or limitations that might influence the findings. The researcher avoided any form of critique that could harm the authors, especially when discussing their academic work. By ensuring that authors are not personally criticized, researchers maintain a respectful, professional approach to their work (Creswell, 2014). As this study analyzed publicly available articles, the researcher avoided any misrepresentation or misuse of the data in ways that could damage the reputation or credibility of the original authors.

### **3.12 Summary**

This chapter provided a detailed overview of the methodology adopted in this study, outlining the processes of sampling, data collection, and data analysis to explore how citations strengthen academic arguments in literature reviews by Canadian graduate students. The purposive

sampling method was chosen due to its alignment with the study's objectives, focusing on early-career researchers publishing in the *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*. This approach enabled a focused examination of literature review sections, a genre that inherently depends on citation practices to construct arguments and engage in scholarly discourse.

The data analysis employed a deductive approach, guided by theoretical frameworks, named Toulmin's (2003) model of argumentation and Harris's (2017) citation moves. This method provided a structured and systematic way to examine patterns and align them with established theoretical constructs. The analysis process adhered to Saldaña's (2016) coding framework, progressing through multiple phases—from initial familiarization with the data to refined pattern and focused coding—ensuring rigor and depth in identifying meaningful themes.

By combining purposive sampling and deductive analysis, this chapter established a robust methodological foundation for addressing the research questions. The insights gained through this systematic approach allow for a deeper understanding of citation practices and their role in supporting argumentation in academic writing. This chapter sets the stage for the subsequent discussion of findings, which will interpret the identified patterns and themes in the context of scholarly argumentation.

Furthermore, in this study, the researcher met several key aspects of validity. Descriptive validity was achieved by faithfully documenting citations as they appeared without altering or misinterpreting the data. Interpretive validity was addressed by understanding and reflecting the students' actual intentions behind their citation practices. Theoretical validity was met by categorizing citation functions in ways that align with their perceived roles in academic writing. Lastly, evaluative validity was ensured by presenting findings objectively and avoiding the

researcher's personal biases or judgments. Together, these measures strengthen the study's trustworthiness and credibility.

This study had three main limitations. First, it analyzed research articles from only one journal, restricting its scope. Second, it did not consider authors' nationality or native language, potentially missing the cultural and linguistic influences on citation practices and argumentation strategies. Third, it overlooked the academic year of the graduate students, which might have impacted their argumentation skills as these tend to develop with experience over time.

Ethics played a key role in this study, even though it used existing, textual data and did not require university ethics approval. The researcher adhered to ethical principles by clearly explaining the selection, analysis, and interpretation processes, including criteria and potential biases. Care was taken to avoid critiquing students' academic work in a way that could harm or disrespect them, ensuring a professional and respectful approach. Additionally, the researcher avoided misrepresenting or misusing publicly available data to protect the reputation and credibility of the original authors.

## **Chapter four: Findings**

### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the findings derived from the analysis of the selected articles, focusing on the application of Toulmin's (2003) argumentative elements and Harris's (2017) citation moves. The data analysis process began with a comprehensive examination of the selected articles in the sample to identify and categorize the argumentative elements as outlined by Toulmin (2003), and the citation moves as described by Harris (2017). The analysis was conducted systematically, ensuring that all elements and moves were carefully mapped for comparison. This process provided insight into how each article constructs its argument and how rhetorical strategies are employed to strengthen these arguments. A summary of each article follows, highlighting the key arguments and points addressed within each. These summaries are complemented by tables presenting the identification of Toulmin's (2003) argumentative elements (Claim, grounds, warrant, backing, qualifier, and rebuttal) and Harris's (2017) citation moves (Coming to terms, forwarding, countering, taking an approach) for each article. These tables serve as a visual representation of how each article structures its argument and employs various rhetorical citation strategies.

The section following tables provides a detailed justification and explanation of the alignment between the two frameworks— Toulmin (2003) and Harris (2017). The comparison of the tables reveals patterns in how the argumentative elements and rhetorical citation moves correspond. The chapter concludes by synthesizing these findings, offering an interpretation of how the alignment of Toulmin's (2003) and Harris's (2017) frameworks contributes to the overall argumentative strength of the articles, and suggesting potential implications for academic writing.

## 4.2 Data analysis process

As mentioned in chapter three, drawing on the aim of this study, papers published in the *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education/Revue canadienne des jeunes chercheuses et chercheurs en éducation* (CJNSE/RCJCÉ) were selected as samples. This journal's website explicitly stated that it exclusively accepts manuscripts from current Canadian education graduate students or international students studying in Canada. As a result, it primarily focuses on early-career publications by education graduates. Established in 2007, this national peer-reviewed journal supports graduate students by fostering networking opportunities, enhancing scholarly writing skills, and encouraging knowledge sharing within the education field. Although the journal is managed by graduate students and does not compete with top publications, its submission guidelines and quality standards are adapted from reputable sources and designed for the journal's needs.

As detailed in the previous chapter, the researcher began data analysis by thoroughly reading each paper to gain an overall understanding and familiarize herself with the data before initiating the coding process. Following this, the literature review section of each paper was extracted and compiled into a separate Word document. Interestingly, in most cases, the introduction and literature review sections were combined, requiring the researcher to carefully identify the relevant details. For better clarity, the table below presents the total word count of each study and indicates whether the literature review was combined with or separated from the introduction.

**Table 3***The total word count of literature reviews*

<b>Research articles</b>	<b>Combined /separated literature review</b>	<b>Total number of words in literature review</b>
<b>Article 1</b>	Separated from introduction	841
<b>Article 2</b>	Combined with introduction	1922
<b>Article 3</b>	Combined with introduction	471
<b>Article 4</b>	Separated from introduction	1416
<b>Article 5</b>	Combined with introduction	912
<b>Article 6</b>	Combined with introduction	1128

The next step involved identifying key phrases or passages critical to the analysis. It should be emphasized that the researcher's analysis is centered on the argument and citation moves within the literature review, rather than the entire paper. Subsequently, the researcher tagged, annotated, and highlighted sentences or phrases that represent specific elements and rhetorical moves. Each category was assigned a distinct color, and the papers were reviewed once more to ensure that the relevant data was marked properly. The following subsections illustrate the process of identifying themes and patterns across the papers.

Using the two frameworks as a guide, the researcher systematically identified relevant elements in the literature review of each article. For Toulmin's (2003) argumentative model, specific criteria were applied to locate and categorize each element. To identify the *claim*, the researcher focused on sentences where the author explicitly stated a clear position or argument. The claims were tagged and highlighted in green. Concerning *grounds*, the researcher looked for

evidence such as citations, research findings, or explanations that supported the claim. These were tagged and highlighted in red. When examining *warrants*, the researcher searched for implicit or explicit reasoning that connected the grounds to the claim, tagging and highlighting them in yellow. *Backings* were identified by locating additional references or contextual information that reinforced the claim. These were marked in navy. *Qualifiers*, which are words or phrases indicating that the claim may not apply universally, were tagged and highlighted in purple. Lastly, *Rebuttals*—signs of opposing views or counterarguments—were tagged and highlighted in brown. This systematic approach ensured that all key argumentative elements were clearly identified and categorized.

The other framework adopted for the analysis was Harris's (2017) rhetorical citation moves. The framework's moves were applied systematically. The first move, *Coming to Terms*, involves summarizing and contextualizing the work of others while focusing on the goals of the text. Sentences reflecting this move were marked and highlighted in light green. The second move, *Forwarding*, uses the ideas of others to extend or develop the writer's argument. Relevant sentences were tagged and highlighted in light blue. The third move, *Countering*, challenges existing ideas or points out limitations, often proposing alternative perspectives or solutions. Such sentences were identified and highlighted in pink. The final move, *Taking an Approach*, entails adopting and adapting concepts or methodologies to suit with the writer's purpose. Sentences indicating this move were tagged and highlighted in grey. The researcher first summarized each study and then presented the identified elements and moves in tables. To ensure the accuracy of the identification of elements and moves, the researcher verified her analysis with her supervisor.

### **4.3 Data analysis**

#### **Article No. 1: Factors Affecting Pre-Service Teachers' Efficacy to Assess Students in Inclusive Classrooms**

In this study, Nandlal (2024) investigates the factors shaping pre-service teachers' confidence in assessing diverse learners in inclusive settings. Conducted with 44 pre-service teachers at a Prince Edward Island institution, the study used correlational surveys and SPSS analysis to identify the relationships between various factors and self-efficacy. While the study does not specify these factors in detail, existing literature points to influences such as experience with special educational needs, teacher education program design, and personal teaching beliefs. The findings underscore the critical role of teacher preparation in developing assessment competence for inclusive classrooms, suggesting that targeted supports within education programs can enhance pre-service teachers' confidence and effectiveness. This research provides valuable insights into improving teacher training to meet the challenges of inclusive education.

**Table 4**

*Toulmin`s (2003) argumentative elements` analysis of article No.1*

<b>Claim</b>	<i>“Reformation of the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to greater self-efficacy and teachers exhibit more willingness to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi &amp; Leyser, 2006)”.</i>
<b>Grounds</b>	<p><i>“Ekins et al. (2016) and Oo et al. (2022), who further recommended that the curriculum be reformed to “consider [preservice teachers`] theoretical knowledge acquisition and practical skills development while building their confidence to design and implement various assessment strategies” (p. 367).</i></p> <p><i>“The curriculum be reformed to “consider [preservice teachers`] theoretical knowledge acquisition and practical skills development while building their confidence to design and implement various assessment strategies” (p. 367).”</i></p>
<b>Warrant</b>	<i>“A study of preservice teachers found that many had concerns about how equipped they were to successfully meet the needs of an inclusive classroom (Loreman, 2010; Specht et al., 2016)”.</i>
<b>Backing</b>	<i>“Such needs like that of social, academic, instructional and assessment (Loreman, 2010; Massouti, 2019) are challenging to define (Hansen, 2012; Qvortrup &amp; Qvortrup, 2018) and even more so to realize (Haug, 2016; Verma, 2021; Woodcock &amp; Woolfson, 2019)”.</i>
<b>Qualifier</b>	<i>“Reformation <b>of</b> the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to <b>greater</b> self-efficacy and teachers exhibit <b>more willingness</b> to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi &amp; Leyser, 2006)”.</i>
<b>Rebuttal</b>	<i>No rebuttals</i>

In this study, the title of the article suggests that the main focus would be on identifying the most effective factors influencing pre-teachers` self-efficacy in assessment of inclusive classes. However, upon reviewing the content, it becomes evident that the primary focus of the literature is on the significance of curriculum reformations as a means to enhance self-efficacy. The title and content are mismatched.

In terms of argumentation, five out of six elements of the Toulmin's (2003) model were identified, indicating some degree of argumentative support. The claim was supported through evidence and reasoning. However, opposing points of view or possible counterarguments were absent. In this study, the claim unusually appeared as the last element in the middle of the literature review. Before the claim, the researcher provided the grounds, warrant, and backing, which established a strong foundation for the argument but disrupted the typical flow of Toulmin's (2003) model, where the claim usually follows these elements. The presentation of the argument structure, in this paper, does not follow the typical Toulmin (2003) model. The following table analyzes the same literature review, focusing on its citation moves.

**Table 5**

*Harris`s (2017) moves` analysis of article No.1*

<b>Coming to Terms</b>	<p><i>“Stemming from the constructivist philosophical ideologies, the concept of self-efficacy evolved from the exploration of self-defining concepts and theories of motivation.”</i></p> <p><i>“Self-efficacy or perceived self-efficacy by Albert Bandura in his 1994 work titled Self-Efficacy defines the term as ‘people’s beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance.’”</i></p>
<b>Forwarding</b>	<p><i>“We consider the significant positive correlation between teacher education programs, their contribution towards cultivating efficacious teachers and how they can be influenced (Bandura &amp; Wessels, 1994; Clark &amp; Newberry, 2018)”.</i></p> <p><i>“As today’s classrooms become more inclusive, teacher education (TE) curricula are reformed to meet and support students of diverse backgrounds.”</i></p> <p><i>“A study of preservice teachers found that many had concerns about how equipped they were to successfully meet the needs of an inclusive classroom (Loreman, 2010; Specht et al., 2016).</i></p>
<b>Countering</b>	<i>No countering</i>
<b>Taking an Approach</b>	<i>“Reformation of the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to greater self-efficacy and teachers who exhibit more willingness to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi &amp; Leyser, 2006).”</i>

In addition to Toulmin`s (2003) argumentative framework, Harris`s (2017) citation moves were also examined. Three out of the four moves outlined by Harris (2017) were successfully put into practice and played their intended roles. However, countering move, similar to rebuttals, was absent. Moreover, the researcher followed the moves in the following sequence, beginning with ‘coming to terms,’ followed by ‘forwarding,’ and concluding with ‘taking an approach’.

**Article No 2: I Truly Think that Some Schools Don't Want to Appear as if They Have These Issues: Microaggressions Experienced by Queer Educators in Canadian Schools**

In this study, Cole and Surette (2024) explore the unique challenges faced by 2SLGBTQIA+ educators within Canadian educational institutions. Through narrative inquiry, the study reflects the lived experiences of four queer educators, highlighting systemic and institutional pressures that lead to marginalization. Key findings show that these educators often encounter tokenism, routine microaggressions, and implicit expectations to spearhead anti-oppressive initiatives, all of which contribute to their oppression in the workplace. The research categorizes these oppressive experiences into institutional, personal, and actionable domains, emphasizing the tension between systemic expectations and the well-being of queer educators. This study highlights the complex challenges faced by queer educators in Canadian schools, emphasizing the need for systemic change to create truly inclusive educational environments.

**Table 6**

*Toulmin's (2003) argumentative elements` analysis of article No.2*

<b>Claim</b>	<i>“There remain significant gaps in the research literature that centre the voice of minoritized groups, which routinely prioritizes the voices of those that hold more privilege.”</i>
<b>Grounds</b>	<i>“The 2SLGBTQIA+ community has a long history of existence and oppression that has not always been well documented”.</i>  <i>“Historical treatment of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community has often been violent, with far fewer reports than accurately represent the portion of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community that has experienced discrimination compared to heterosexual and cisgender populations (Barker &amp; Scheele, 2016; Beauchamp, 2008; Gottlieb, 2019; Nadal et al., 2011; Northen, 2008; Simpson, 2018; Warner, 2002)”.</i>
<b>Warrant</b>	<i>“There remains scant literature available in educational and professional research journals that highlight the unique experiences of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community (Waite &amp; Denier, 2019; Warner, 2002; Wells, 2017)”.</i>
<b>Backing</b>	<i>“There have been a handful of contemporary educational scholars who have researched and reported the oppressive conditions for 2SLGBTQIA+ staff and educators (Beagan et al., 2021; Byers et al., 2020; Callaghan, 2015; Kearns et al., 2017; Meyer et al., 2015; Mitton-Kukner et al., 2016; Tompkins et al., 2019). However, much of the focus of scholarship has been on the impact of these systems on 2SLGBTQIA+ students”.</i>
<b>Qualifier</b>	<i>“There remain <u>significant</u> gaps in the research literature that center the voice of minoritized groups, which routinely prioritizes the voices of those that hold <u>more privilege</u> (Pillay, 2020)”..</i>
<b>Rebuttal</b>	<i>No rebuttals</i>

In this study, the researcher followed a standard argumentative structure, beginning the literature review with a clearly stated claim. The degree of certainty of the claim was also emphasized using a qualifier. The claim was subsequently supported by relevant grounds, warrants, and backing, providing a strong foundation for the argument. However, the study did not include rebuttals. The rebuttals would present an opportunity to engage with potential counterarguments.

In all, the identification process of the elements in this study was clear and straightforward, with all components logically interconnected.

Additionally, it seems that another argument, focusing on the experiences of specific groups, was gradually presented. This implies the possible presence of two separate arguments within the text. Although this secondary argument was partially supported, it lacked all the necessary elements needed for the full development. Drawing on the title, it was found out that the primary aim of the study was presented as the central claim of the study.

**Table 7**

*Harris's (2017) moves' analysis of article No. 2*

<b>Coming to Terms</b>	<p><i>“For this study, the term queer will be used as an all-encompassing term, and used interchangeably, with the 2SLGBTQIA+ acronym”.</i></p> <p><i>“The term queer is still a colloquial term with many connotations (Barker &amp; Scheele, 2016; G &amp; Zuckerberg, 2019; Gottlieb, 2019; Latchmore &amp; Marple, 2005). Many queer activists use the word queer as an over-arching term for those people who fit perfectly outside of the heterosexual/cisgender/lesbian/gay mainstream (Barker &amp; Scheele, 2016)”.</i></p> <p><i>“The term intersectionality was first coined by Crenshaw in 1989 to explain how Black women were systematically disadvantaged by being both Black and a woman (Crenshaw, 1989; Gottlieb, 2019; Pease, 2010; Sensoy &amp; DiAngelo, 2017)”.</i></p> <p><i>“The term token in this research refers to the 2SLGBTQIA+ person and represents the concept of tokenism (i.e., the rural token may have unspoken job requirements due to their membership in the 2SLGBTQIA+ community)”.</i></p>
<b>Forwarding</b>	<p><i>“There remains scant literature available in educational and professional research journals that highlight the unique experiences of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community (Waite &amp; Denier, 2019; Warner, 2002; Wells, 2017)”.</i></p> <p><i>“Historical treatment of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community has often been violent, with far fewer reports than accurately represent the portion of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community that has experienced discrimination compared to heterosexual and cisgender populations (Barker &amp; Scheele, 2016; Beauchamp, 2008; Gottlieb, 2019; Nadal et al., 2011; Northen, 2008; Simpson, 2018; Warner, 2002).</i></p>
<b>Countering</b>	<p><i>No countering</i></p>
<b>Taking an Approach</b>	<p><i>There remain significant gaps in the research literature that centre the voice of minoritized groups, which routinely prioritizes the voices of those that hold more privilege (Pillay, 2020).</i></p>

The citation moves of the second article were analyzed based on Harris's framework (Harris, 2017). Three of citation moves effectively met their intended purposes, however, the 'countering' move was absent. In this study, the first citation move, 'coming to terms,' was notably lengthy and placed as the final section of the literature review. A detailed 'coming to terms' section can provide an in-depth exploration of key concepts, helping readers grasp foundational ideas. Positioning it at the end of the literature review, however, may disrupt the logical flow of the argument, as this move typically aims to define terms early in the discussion. In contrast, 'Taking an approach' was introduced as the initial move, then followed by 'Forwarding'. Beginning with 'taking an approach' establishes the study's direction upfront, which is useful for reader comprehension. Following it with 'Forwarding' allows the researcher to build on existing ideas, enhancing the development of the argument. 'Countering' was absent from the analysis, and the study did not engage with alternative perspectives (Harris, 2017).

### **Article No. 3: Supporting Technology Integration in K-12 Classrooms: Putting the Puzzle of Professional Learning Guidelines Together**

This thematic literature review examines guidelines for designing effective professional learning experiences to support K–12 classroom technology integration. The findings reveal that these guidelines are spread throughout the literature and often overlooked by administrative stakeholders and institutional researchers. By consolidating these scattered insights, the review emphasizes the importance of involving educators in the planning and implementation of professional learning to ensure it addresses their specific needs. It advocates for collaborative learning approaches rather than top-down directives, highlighting the necessity of administrative support. Additionally, the review emphasizes that professional learning should focus on

pedagogical understanding alongside content knowledge, ensuring a balanced and practical approach to technology integration.

**Table 8**

*Toulmin`s (2003) argumentative elements` analysis of article No. 3*

<b>Claim</b>	<i>“Professional development/learning in the area of classroom technology integration, however, has fallen short in supporting educators’ initial and ongoing integration efforts.”</i>
<b>Grounds</b>	<p><i>“Facilitators of top-down learning approaches...decontextualize materials from the needs, desires, and unique contexts...of those participating (Cheng, 2019; Hall &amp; Trespalacios, 2019; Paulus et al., 2020).”</i></p> <p><i>“Many educators simply do not feel comfortable using/integrating digital technologies in their classroom teaching practices or remain unaware of the pedagogical transformations such technologies are able to support (Ahadi et al., 2021; Cuban, 2001; Gill, 2019; Gurevich et al., 2017; Mishra et al., 2019; Mouza, 2003; Symons &amp; Pierce, 2019; Tan et al., 2019)”.</i></p>
<b>Warrant</b>	<i>“This can render learning experiences relatively useless when participants return to their own classrooms (Cheng, 2019; Hall &amp; Trespalacios, 2019; Paulus et al., 2020)”.(for first ground)</i>
<b>Backing</b>	<i>No backings</i>
<b>Qualifier</b>	<i>No qualifier</i>
<b>Rebuttals</b>	<p><i>“While self-study (such as with a professional learning community<sup>6</sup>) may allow educators to contextualize their learning, they are rarely afforded the resources, time, and/or support necessary to ensure success (Barton &amp; Dexter, 2020; Goodnough, 2018; Goodyear, 2016)”.</i></p> <p><i>“Over the last forty years several guidelines have been suggested for crafting effective professional learning in the area of educational technology integration in classrooms. Experiences and interventions created and implemented, however, have been inadequate in generating meaningful and lasting change to classroom teaching practices, and these inadequacies may be inhibiting classroom technology integration.</i></p>

Most argumentative elements, except for ‘backing’ and ‘qualifier’, were present in this study. The researcher may have considered backing or qualifier unnecessary for this particular claim. The structure of the argument followed a clear and logical sequence, beginning with the claim and progressing through supporting elements before concluding with rebuttals. This organization not only made the argument comprehensive but also enhanced its clarity and persuasiveness (Toulmin, 2003). Presenting the claim first provided a clear focus for the reader, while the inclusion of rebuttals at the end addressed potential counterarguments, adding depth and reinforcing the argument’s credibility (Harris, 2017).

**Table 9**

*Harris`s (2017) moves` analysis of article No. 3*

<b>Coming to Terms</b>	<i>“It is imperative that within today’s classrooms, technology be readily integrated into teaching practices to help prepare students for the world and digital society they are a part of (Hrastinski, 2008; Johnson, 2020; Prensky, 2001)”.</i>
<b>Forwarding</b>	<i>“Facilitators of top-down learning approaches...decontextualize materials from the needs, desires, and unique contexts...of those participating (Cheng, 2019; Hall &amp; Trespalacios, 2019; Paulus et al., 2020).”</i>  <i>“Professional learning best practices in the 21st century are lagging behind what is necessary to support educators (Bustamante, 2020; Chen, 2019; Coogle et al., 2021).”</i>
<b>Countering</b>	<i>“While self-study...may allow educators to contextualize their learning, they are rarely afforded the resources, time, and/or support necessary to ensure success.”</i>  <i>“Over the last forty years several guidelines have been suggested for crafting effective professional learning in the area of educational technology integration in classrooms. Experiences and interventions created and implemented, however, have been inadequate in generating meaningful and lasting change to classroom teaching practices, and these inadequacies may be inhibiting classroom technology integration”.</i>
<b>Taking an Approach</b>	<i>“Professional development/learning in the area of classroom technology integration, however, has fallen short in supporting educators’ initial and ongoing integration efforts”.</i>

The study started with focusing on the significance of technology in teaching practices to effectively attract the reader’s attention and contextualize the discussion. Then, ‘taking an approach’, ‘forwarding’, and ‘countering’, moves were taken.

#### Article No 4: Social Media in English Learning and Teaching: A Duoethnography

This article explores the impact of social media on English learning and teaching through the perspectives of two English teachers, using duoethnography as a research method. By engaging in collaborative conversations about their personal biographies and experiences, the authors highlight broader cultural, social, and educational issues. They share their stories about the influence of social media on teaching and learning English in two distinct first-language settings, connecting their insights to existing research. Data were collected from recorded discussions, digital reflections, and shared recollections. Three main themes emerged: (1) Hesitation in using social media, (2) Facebook as a key platform, and (3) students' attitudes toward using social media in the classroom. The article concludes with practical recommendations for second-language teaching and invites further discussion among practitioners and researchers.

**Table 10**

*Toulmin's (2003) argumentative elements' analysis of article No. 4*

<b>Claim</b>	<i>"Social media in general, and Facebook in particular, can influence L2 acquisition."</i>
<b>Grounds</b>	<i>"Platforms like MySpace, Facebook, and later Twitter, Instagram, and others have provided users with spaces to interact, share, and connect with people globally (Greenhow &amp; Lewin, 2016). Notably, the widespread adoption of smartphones in the late 2000s made social media platforms more accessible than ever before, thus allowing users to engage in language learning on the go and turning any spare moment into a potential learning opportunity."</i>  <i>"Potential benefits of social media for learning English, including improved motivation, ease of collaboration, and immediate access to educational resources."</i>

*“The potential of social media platforms like QQ or WhatsApp can be seen as a useful pedagogical tool for informal language learning, offering flexible, interactive, and accessible means to enhance communicative competence (Mpungose, 2020; Nasution, 2022).”*

*“YouTube provides access to a wide range of videos featuring native speakers engaging in natural conversations with diverse cultures, accents, and dialects, thus allowing users to select the videos that best suit their language learning needs and preferences (Syafiq et al., 2021).”*

*“Learners showed improved learning outcomes in writing tests after participating in Facebook-based language learning activities.”*

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**Warrant** *“The presence of social media in language learning particularly and in education generally was even more ubiquitous during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, which forced a sudden and widespread shift to online learning/” (For the first grounds)*

*“Zheng and Barrot (2022) suggested that social media platforms like QQ, a popular instant messaging software in China, can effectively enhance L2 speaking performance when used as e-portfolios.” (For the third grounds)*

*“WhatsApp, another messaging application with similar functions in QQ, promoted learners’ speaking skills through constant interaction with their peers.” (For the third grounds)*

*“The participants were reported to improve in certain language domains, particularly in areas like slang, idiomatic expressions, and academic writing. Hence, it was concluded that YouTube could support certain linguistic, cultural, and academic development of L2 learners. Besides vocabulary and pragmatic knowledge, Saed et al. (2021) added further solid evidence proving that YouTube videos can promote learners’ speaking skills.” (For the fourth grounds)*

*“Facebook posts were also found to greatly enhance the motivation of ESL learners by providing a platform for sharing experiences, seeking advice, and interacting with educational content.” (For the fifth grounds)*

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**Backing** *“During the pandemic, there was a significant increase in the use of social media for educational purposes, including language learning. At that time, social media platforms saw a surge in use for virtual language classes, live discussions, and resource sharing (Sobaih et al., 2022).” (For the first warrant)*

*“This finding is aligned with several studies emphasizing the significant impact of Facebook-based activities on writing skills and motivation (Alam & Mizan, 2019; Klimova & Pikhart, 2020; Pham & Nguyen, 2021).” (for the fifth warrant)*

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**Qualifier** *No qualifier*

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**Rebuttal** *“On the other hand, several studies have specified that social media could exert certain adverse effects on students’ psychological health issues, thus affecting their language learning. Shu (2023a) found a positive correlation between the problematic use of social media and foreign language anxiety”*

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Generally, the claim was presented early to establish the central argument of the study. In this study, the claim’s placement at the end of the literature review does not follow Toulmin’s (2003) structure. By placing the claim at the end, readers first encounter various points and evidence without knowing the central argument. Moreover, backing, as one of the argumentative elements from Toulmin’s (2003) model, was missing. In this article, the claim was consistent with the title, reflecting a clear alignment between the study’s main argument and its stated focus.

**Table 11**

*Harris`s (2017) moves` analysis article No. 4*

<b>Coming to Terms</b>	<i>“Platforms like MySpace, Facebook, and later Twitter, Instagram, Google Docs and Skype, Youtube, QQ, WhatsApp,...”</i>
<b>Forwarding</b>	<p><i>“Platforms like MySpace, Facebook, and later Twitter, Instagram, and others have provided users with spaces to interact, share, and connect with people globally (Greenhow &amp; Lewin, 2016).</i></p> <p><i>“The potential of social media platforms like QQ or WhatsApp can be seen as a useful pedagogical tool for informal language learning, offering flexible, interactive, and accessible means to enhance communicative competence (Mpungose, 2020; Nasution, 2022).”</i></p> <p><i>“YouTube provides access to a wide range of videos featuring native speakers engaging in natural conversations with diverse cultures, accents, and dialects, thus allowing users to select the videos that best suit their language learning needs and preferences (Syafiq et al., 2021).”</i></p>
<b>Countering</b>	<i>“On the other hand, several studies have specified that social media could exert certain adverse effects on students` psychological health issues, thus affecting their language learning. Shu (2023a) found a positive correlation between the problematic use of social media and foreign language anxiety”</i>
<b>Taking an Approach</b>	<i>“Social media in general, and Facebook in particular, can influence L2 acquisition.”</i>

Similarly, the citation moves were analyzed; they were all provided. Although the author did not define terms through this section, he named some social media and discussed their significance to ensure that readers comprehend their crucial role before exploring the literature (coming to terms move). Next, the researcher took advantage of other scholars` ideas, using their perspectives and research to support the discussion (Forwarding). Finally, the researcher took the ‘taking an approach’ move to state their main argument of the study.

## **Article No 5: Mitigating the Impacts of Secondary Trauma in K-12 Educators**

Given the widespread challenges faced by students in K-12 schools, the role of educators has expanded to include supporting student mental health through trauma-informed practices. However, the impact of student trauma on educators, as well as strategies for lessening the resulting stress, remain mostly unexplored. Secondary trauma, or the emotional impact on educators from supporting traumatized students, is an understudied area. This systematic literature review examines existing research on the effects of secondary trauma on educators and explores methods for supporting their mental well-being after indirect exposure to trauma. Through qualitative data analysis, key themes related to the impacts of secondary trauma were identified, including emotional and psychological effects, burnout, compassion fatigue, educator attrition, and negative consequences for student outcomes. Strategies for reducing these effects included both individual and organizational approaches. While effective practices to address secondary trauma in educators require a combination of interventions and organizational strategies. The combination of these strategies were found to be more powerful than individual-focused approaches alone. This review urges school administrators and policymakers to give greater attention to further research and organizational efforts to manage secondary trauma among educators.

**Table 12**

*Toulmin's (2003) argumentative elements` analysis of article No.5*

<b>Claim</b>	<i>“Every school staff member who interacts with traumatized children and youth is vulnerable to secondary trauma (Lawson, et al., 2019). If left unaddressed, secondary trauma has the potential to significantly impair an individual’s functioning (Hydon et al., 2015), including one’s professional performance in the schoolsetting, such as the ability to maintain effective relationships with students (Simon et al., 2022) ”.</i>
<b>Grounds</b>	<i>The emotional vulnerability and distress caused by [childhood] trauma often accompany students to school (Fowler, 2015), and this can inadvertently impact K-12 educators resulting in the unintended consequence of secondary trauma.</i>
<b>Warrant</b>	<i>“Students attending school also bring with them many challenges, including childhood trauma. Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs), such as abuse, neglect, or household dysfunction (Felitti et al., 1998), as well as other forms of trauma, including illness or critical injury, can significantly impact a child’s physical and mental wellbeing.” No warrants</i>
<b>Backing</b>	<i>“Nearly 62% of older Canadians have experienced at least one ACE (Joshi et al., 2021), and approximately 61% of individuals in the U.S. report at least one ACE before the age of 18 (Centre for Disease Control and Prevention, 2022).”</i>
<b>Qualifier</b>	<i>“Every school staff member who interacts with traumatized children and youth is vulnerable to secondary trauma (Lawson, et al., 2019). If left unaddressed, secondary trauma has the potential to <b><u>significantly impair</u></b> an individual’s functioning (Hydon et al., 2015), including one’s professional performance in the schoolsetting, such as the ability to maintain effective relationships with students (Simon et al., 2022)”.</i>
<b>Rebuttal</b>	<i>No rebuttals</i>

The same as previous study, the claim was placed at the end of the literature review in this study, however, it included a qualifier. Other supportive elements such as grounds, warrant, and backing were introduced in the first section of the literature review. Another essential argumentative element, the rebuttal, was missing from this study. As noted earlier, the absence of this component means, the author has not engaged with possible objections to the claim.

**Table 13**

*Harris`s (2017) moves` analysis of article No. 5*

<b>Coming to Terms</b>	<i>“Sometimes referred to as secondary traumatic stress (STS), the term 'secondary trauma' was coined by Charles Figley (1995) to indicate 'the natural consequent behaviors and emotions resulting from knowing about a traumatizing event experienced by a significant other—the stress resulting from helping or wanting to help a traumatized or suffering person' (p. 10).”</i>
<b>Forwarding</b>	<i>“The emotional vulnerability and distress caused by [childhood] trauma often accompany students to school (Fowler, 2015), and this can inadvertently impact K-12 educators resulting in the unintended consequence of secondary trauma.”</i>
<b>Countering</b>	<i>No countering</i>
<b>Taking an Approach</b>	<i>“Every school staff member who interacts with traumatized children and youth is vulnerable to secondary trauma (Lawson, et al., 2019). If left unaddressed, secondary trauma has the potential to significantly impair an individual’s functioning (Hydon et al., 2015), including one’s professional performance in the school setting, such as the ability to maintain effective relationships with students (Simon et al., 2022)”.</i>

In this study, all of Harris`s (2017) citation moves except ‘countering’ were presented and served their purposes, that is, contributing to the structure of the argument. The study followed the established citation moves. It started with defining terms, building on others` ideas and studies to investigate how schools can reduce the impact of secondary trauma in K-12 educators working with youth who have experienced trauma.

**Article No 6: The CARE Model: Reimagining Education through an Emancipatory Framework that Disrupts Coloniality in School Systems**

The emergence of neoliberalism, alongside globalization, has led to a power imbalance across various societal sectors, including education. In Ontario, practices such as participation in the EQAO, fundraising, academic streaming, and disciplinary actions create a competitive environment among schools. This dynamic results in some schools flourishing while others fall into a cycle of oppression. These neoliberal practices are deeply linked to colonialism, affecting how educators and leaders approach, teach, and implement policies, particularly in relation to marginalized and racialized students. The goal of this report is to present a feasible model for educational leaders to decolonize school systems and challenge the persistence of coloniality within them. Drawing on fifty-eight sources, both scholarly and alternative, the author introduces the Challenge, Align, Revive, Embrace (CARE) model as a framework for reimagining education free from colonial influences. The report also discusses the practical strategies for implementing the CARE model and highlights the need for researchers, practitioners, and policymakers to verify the model through empirical studies in diverse contexts.

**Table 14**

*Toulmin's (2003) argumentative elements' analysis of article No. 6*

<b>Claim</b>	<i>"This paper urges school leaders to view pedagogical and administrative practices through a decolonizing and anti-oppressive lens, enabling them to reimagine and transform education to benefit all students."</i>
<b>Grounds</b>	<i>"While physical colonization has been abolished, scholars such as Lopez (2020) argue that the long-lasting impact of colonialism (i.e., coloniality) is alive today in the way we think, learn, interact with each other, and the privileges we maintain".</i>
<b>Warrant</b>	<i>"This evidence of disenfranchisement of minoritized communities in how educators and leaders think, teach, and carry out a/the policy can be attributed to deficit thinking. Deficit thinking, while perpetuated by neoliberalism, is not a novel concept. It is intricately tied to colonialism."</i>
<b>Backing</b>	<i>"Lopez's (2020) observation of some Ontario schools where she noted "the harsh tone in which some parents were spoken to and the 'policing' of primarily Black students" (p. 2)."</i>  <i>"Furthermore, through their analysis of reports from Statistics Canada, Alkholy et al. (2017) explained that First Nations, Metis, and Inuit (FNMI) communities are underrepresented in the fields of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM)."</i>
<b>Qualifier</b>	<i>No qualifier</i>
<b>Rebuttal</b>	<i>No rebuttals</i>

In this study, the researcher presented the claim almost at the end of the literature review. The argument was supported by grounds, warrant, backings which are provided in the preceding paragraphs of the review. However, other argumentative elements, such as qualifier and rebuttals were missing. The omission of these elements may make the argument seem one-sided without the necessary support and consideration of alternative viewpoints. Overall, the study's claim was consistent with the title, ensuring alignment between the stated focus and the primary argument.

By not including these elements, the study may have missed an opportunity to further strengthen its claim and engage with potential criticisms, ultimately reducing its persuasiveness.

**Table 15**

*Harris's (2017) moves' analysis of article No. 6*

<b>Coming to Terms</b>	<i>Not related coming to terms</i>
<b>Forwarding</b>	<p><i>"Lopez's (2020) observation of some Ontario schools where she noted 'the harsh tone in which some parents were spoken to and the 'policing' of primarily Black students" (p. 2).</i></p> <p><i>"Through their analysis of reports from Statistics Canada, Alkholy et al. (2017) explained that First Nations, Metis, and Inuit (FNMI) communities are underrepresented in the fields of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM)".</i></p> <p><i>"While physical colonization has been abolished, scholars such as Lopez (2020) argue that the long-lasting impact of colonialism (i.e., colonality) is alive today in the way we think, learn, interact with each other, and the privileges we maintain, which are deeply rooted in the SPE fabric of our societies."</i></p>
<b>Countering</b>	<i>No countering</i>
<b>Taking an Approach</b>	<i>"To emancipate schools from colonality, and its negative impact on minoritized students, this paper urges school leaders to view pedagogical and administrative practices through a decolonizing and anti-oppressive lens, enabling them to reimagine and transform education to benefit all students".</i>

In this article, the researcher provides lengthy definitions and explanations of terms or expressions that are unrelated to the main focus of the study. This inclusion of irrelevant details reduces from the clarity and coherence of the argument. Instead of guiding the reader toward a

deeper understanding of the central themes, these overly detailed definitions can confuse the reader and conceal the primary arguments of the study.

Furthermore, the first citation move in the study does not align with the approach intended by the researcher. This misalignment disrupts the logical flow of the argument, making it difficult for the reader to follow the development of ideas. The first move, which should ideally set the foundation for the rest of the discussion, deviates from the expected structure, leading the study in a direction that is not clearly connected to the main claim. As a result, the overall argument may appear broken and less persuasive. In general, three of the four moves were included and effectively served their intended purposes. These moves—forwarding, countering, and taking an approach—were presented in the established sequential order.

#### **4.4 Argumentative elements of each article**

After conducting a detailed analysis of argumentative elements (Toulmin, 2003) and citation moves (Harris, 2017) of the literature reviews, the researcher compiled each of these elements and moves into a single table, organizing from all articles side by side. Through this arrangement, the researcher was able to observe patterns of elements and moves presence and alignment in early-career research articles' arguments within literature reviews. The following tables display the elements and moves identified across the dataset.

**Table 16***Claims across the data set*

<b>Article Number</b>	<b>Claims</b>
<b>1</b>	<i>“Reformation of the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to greater self-efficacy and teachers exhibit more willingness to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi &amp; Leyser, 2006)”.</i>
<b>2</b>	<i>“There remain significant gaps in the research literature that centre the voice of minoritized groups, which routinely prioritizes the voices of those that hold more privilege.”</i>
<b>3</b>	<i>“Professional development/learning in the area of classroom technology integration, however, has fallen short in supporting educators’ initial and ongoing integration efforts.”</i>
<b>4</b>	<i>“Social media in general, and Facebook in particular, can influence L2 acquisition.”</i>
<b>5</b>	<i>“Every school staff member who interacts with traumatized children and youth is vulnerable to secondary trauma (Lawson, et al., 2019). If left unaddressed, secondary trauma has the potential to significantly impair an individual’s functioning (Hydon et al., 2015), including one’s professional performance in the schoolsetting, such as the ability to maintain effective relationships with students (Simon et al., 2022)”.</i>
<b>6</b>	<i>“This paper urges school leaders to view pedagogical and administrative practices through a decolonizing and anti-oppressive lens, enabling them to reimagine and transform education to benefit all students.”</i>

As it can be seen, the overall comparison reveals the presence of *claim* across all articles. In all of these studies, claims provided the primary assertion or proposition that the author attempts to prove or support. Their presence demonstrates its centrality in academic argumentation (Toulmin, 2003). In another words, their presence is essential in establishing the purpose and direction of scholarly work. In early-career research articles, claims were typically positioned either at the beginning or the end of the literature review. This strategic placement fulfills different rhetorical purposes. When claims are stated at the beginning, they establish the central argument

or research focus upfront. This approach helps readers quickly grasp the purpose of the review and aligns subsequent discussions with the overarching argument (Swales & Feak, 2012). Conversely, placing claims at the end provides a gradual effect, allowing the review of the literature to build context and evidence before presenting the argument (Hyland, 2004). It would be better not to judge the argument earlier because doing so, without a thorough understanding of all aspects of the discussion could lead to misinterpretations or biased judgments. This structure emphasizes the logical flow of ideas and positions the claim as a well-supported conclusion. Overall, by positioning claims in these key locations, early-career researchers effectively enhance the clarity and persuasiveness of their arguments and it also demonstrates that authors can decide how to sequence the elements.

The next table displays the presence of *qualifiers*, as an element that modify the strength or certainty of a claim.

**Table 17***Qualifiers across the data set*

<b>Article Number</b>	<b>Qualifiers</b>
<b>1</b>	<i>“Reformation <b>of</b> the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to <b>greater</b> self-efficacy and teachers exhibit <b>more willingness</b> to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi &amp; Leyser, 2006”).</i>
<b>2</b>	<i>“There remain <b>significant</b> gaps in the research literature that center the voice of minoritized groups, which routinely prioritizes the voices of those that hold more privilege (Pillay, 2020)”.</i>
<b>3</b>	<i>No qualifier</i>
<b>4</b>	<i>No qualifier</i>
<b>5</b>	<i>“Every school staff member who interacts with traumatized children and youth is vulnerable to secondary trauma (Lawson, et al., 2019). If left unaddressed, secondary trauma has the potential to <b>significantly impair</b> an individual’s functioning (Hydon et al., 2015), including one’s professional performance in the schoolsetting, such as the ability to maintain effective relationships with students (Simon et al., 2022)”.</i>
<b>6</b>	<i>No qualifier</i>

Although all studies made a claim, qualifier was not present in all of them. Some authors used qualifiers to indicate importance without overstating the generality of the claim, for example, in the second and fifth studies:

*“There remain **significant** gaps in the research literature that center the voice of minoritized groups, which routinely prioritizes the voices of those that hold more privilege (Pillay, 2020)”.*

*“Every school staff member who interacts with traumatized children and youth is vulnerable to secondary trauma (Lawson, et al., 2019). If left unaddressed, secondary trauma has the potential to **significantly impair** an individual’s functioning (Hydon et al., 2015), including*

*one's professional performance in the school setting, such as the ability to maintain effective relationships with students (Simon et al., 2022)''.*

Sometimes, authors used a comparative element, often relative to another group, condition, or baseline. This signals an increase or difference without specifying the extent, allowing for interpretation based on the evidence provided. For example, in the first study:

*“Reformation of the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to **greater** self-efficacy and teachers exhibit **more willingness** to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi & Leyser, 2006’’).*

As it is evident, the qualifier was absent in a number of studies. Without qualifiers, claims can appear overly broad or absolute (Hyland, 2004). As Hyland (1998) suggests, while qualifiers are not mandatory, their inclusion is generally encouraged in academic writing to guarantee detailed and fair arguments

The next essential argumentative element is *grounds*. As defined earlier, it refers to reasons or evidence, data, or facts that support the claim. The presence of this element in the dataset is displayed in the following table:

**Table 18***Grounds across the data set*

<b>Article Number</b>	<b>Grounds</b>
<b>1</b>	<i>“Ekins et al. (2016) and Oo et al. (2022), who further recommended that the curriculum be reformed to “consider [preservice teachers’] theoretical knowledge acquisition and practical skills development while building their confidence to design and implement various assessment strategies” (p. 367).</i>
<b>2</b>	<p><i>“The 2SLGBTQIA+ community has a long history of existence and oppression that has not always been well documented”.</i></p> <p><i>“Historical treatment of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community has often been violent, with far fewer reports than accurately represent the portion of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community that has experienced discrimination compared to heterosexual and cisgender populations (Barker &amp; Scheele, 2016; Beauchamp, 2008; Gottlieb, 2019; Nadal et al., 2011; Northen, 2008; Simpson, 2018; Warner, 2002)”.</i></p>
<b>3</b>	<p><i>“Facilitators of top-down learning approaches...decontextualize materials from the needs, desires, and unique contexts...of those participating (Cheng, 2019; Hall &amp; Trespalacios, 2019; Paulus et al., 2020).”</i></p> <p><i>“Many educators simply do not feel comfortable using/integrating digital technologies in their classroom teaching practices or remain unaware of the pedagogical transformations such technologies are able to support (Ahadi et al., 2021; Cuban, 2001; Gill, 2019; Gurevich et al., 2017; Mishra et al., 2019; Mouza, 2003; Symons &amp; Pierce, 2019; Tan et al., 2019)”.</i></p>
<b>4</b>	<i>“Platforms like MySpace, Facebook, and later Twitter, Instagram, and others have provided users with spaces to interact, share, and connect with people globally (Greenhow &amp; Lewin, 2016). Notably, the widespread adoption of smartphones in the late 2000s made social media platforms more accessible than ever before, thus allowing users to engage in language learning on the go and turning any spare moment into a potential learning opportunity.”</i>

*“Potential benefits of social media for learning English, including improved motivation, ease of collaboration, and immediate access to educational resources.”*

*“The potential of social media platforms like QQ or WhatsApp can be seen as a useful pedagogical tool for informal language learning, offering flexible, interactive, and accessible means to enhance communicative competence (Mpungose, 2020; Nasution, 2022).”*

*“YouTube provides access to a wide range of videos featuring native speakers engaging in natural conversations with diverse cultures, accents, and dialects, thus allowing users to select the videos that best suit their language learning needs and preferences (Syafiq et al., 2021).”*

*“Learners showed improved learning outcomes in writing tests after participating in Facebook-based language learning activities.”*

5	<i>“The emotional vulnerability and distress caused by [childhood] trauma often accompany students to school (Fowler, 2015), and this can inadvertently impact K-12 educators resulting in the unintended consequence of secondary trauma.”</i>
6	<i>“While physical colonization has been abolished, scholars such as Lopez (2020) argue that the long-lasting impact of colonialism (i.e., coloniality) is alive today in the way we think, learn, interact with each other, and the privileges we maintain”.</i>

Based on the data presented in this table, it is evident that the authors effectively provided relevant grounds to support their claims. In some instances, they included a single ground, while in others, they provided two or more. This variation indicates that, regardless of the number of grounds used, the graduates demonstrated a profound understanding of how to substantiate their claims with appropriate evidence. The presence of at least one ground in all cases reflects their ability to back their arguments, which is a key component of strong academic writing. Providing more than one ground, when applicable, enhances the depth and strength of the claim, demonstrating the graduates’ ability to construct well-supported arguments.

The other element that is effective in establishing a stronger relationship between the claim and ground is *warrant*. The following table examines this element within the dataset.

**Table 19***Warrants across the data set*

<b>Article Number</b>	<b>Warrants</b>
<b>1</b>	<i>“A study of preservice teachers found that many had concerns about how equipped they were to successfully meet the needs of an inclusive classroom (Loreman, 2010; Specht et al., 2016)”.</i>
<b>2</b>	<i>“There remains scant literature available in educational and professional research journals that highlight the unique experiences of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community (Waite &amp; Denier, 2019; Warner, 2002; Wells, 2017)”.</i>
<b>3</b>	<i>“This can render learning experiences relatively useless when participants return to their own classrooms (Cheng, 2019; Hall &amp; Trespalacios, 2019; Paulus et al., 2020)”.</i> (for first ground)
<b>4</b>	<p><i>“The presence of social media in language learning particularly and in education generally was even more ubiquitous during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, which forced a sudden and widespread shift to online learning/”</i> (For the first grounds)</p> <p><i>“Zheng and Barrot (2022) suggested that social media platforms like QQ, a popular instant messaging software in China, can effectively enhance L2 speaking performance when used as e-portfolios.”</i> (For the third grounds)</p> <p><i>“WhatsApp, another messaging application with similar functions in QQ, promoted learners’ speaking skills through constant interaction with their peers.”</i> (For the third grounds)</p> <p><i>“The participants were reported to improve in certain language domains, particularly in areas like slang, idiomatic expressions, and academic writing. Hence, it was concluded that YouTube could support certain linguistic, cultural, and academic development of L2 learners. Besides vocabulary and pragmatic knowledge, Saed et al. (2021) added further solid evidence proving that YouTube videos can promote learners’ speaking skills.”</i> (For the fourth grounds)</p> <p><i>“Facebook posts were also found to greatly enhance the motivation of ESL learners by providing a platform for sharing experiences, seeking advice, and interacting with educational content.”</i> (For the fifth grounds)</p>

- 5                    *“Students attending school also bring with them many challenges, including childhood trauma. Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACEs), such as abuse, neglect, or household dysfunction (Felitti et al., 1998), as well as other forms of trauma, including illness or critical injury, can significantly impact a child’s physical and mental wellbeing.”*
- 
- 6                    *“This evidence of disenfranchisement of minoritized communities in how educators and leaders think, teach, and carry out a/the policy can be attributed to deficit thinking. Deficit thinking, while perpetuated by neoliberalism, is not a novel concept. It is intricately tied to colonialism.”*

In general, warrants are essential components of argumentation, as they provide the justification for why the grounds support the claim. In the current study, all six papers successfully included warrants to strengthen the connection between their claims and grounds. Warrants also indicate a layered approach to arguments, where multiple justifications and evidence are provided to make the argument more convincing. The next element is *backing*. Backings refer to facts, authorities, or explanations used to strengthen or support the warrant or the assumptions on which the warrants rest. Observance of this element is presented in the subsequent table:

**Table 20**

*Backing across the data set*

<b>Article Number</b>	<b>Backings</b>
<b>1</b>	<i>“Such needs like that of social, academic, instructional and assessment (Loreman, 2010; Massouti, 2019) are challenging to define (Hansen, 2012; Qvortrup &amp; Qvortrup, 2018) and even more so to realize (Haug, 2016; Verma, 2021; Woodcock &amp; Woolfson, 2019)”.</i>
<b>2</b>	<i>“There have been a handful of contemporary educational scholars who have researched and reported the oppressive conditions for 2SLGBTQIA+ staff and educators (Beagan et al., 2021; Byers et al., 2020; Callaghan, 2015; Kearns et al., 2017; Meyer et al., 2015; Mitton-Kukner et al., 2016; Tompkins et al., 2019). However, much of the focus of scholarship has been on the impact of these systems on 2SLGBTQIA+ students”.</i>
<b>3</b>	<i>No backing</i>
<b>4</b>	<i>“During the pandemic, there was a significant increase in the use of social media for educational purposes, including language learning. At that time, social media platforms saw a surge in use for virtual language classes, live discussions, and resource sharing (Sobaih et al., 2022).” (For the first warrant)</i>  <i>“This finding is aligned with several studies emphasizing the significant impact of Facebook-based activities on writing skills and motivation (Alam &amp; Mizan, 2019; Klimova &amp; Pikhart, 2020; Pham &amp; Nguyen, 2021).” (for the fifth warrant)</i>
<b>5</b>	<i>“Nearly 62% of older Canadians have experienced at least one ACE (Joshi et al., 2021), and approximately 61% of individuals in the U.S. report at least one ACE before the age of 18 (Centre for Disease Control and Prevention, 2022).”</i>
<b>6</b>	<i>“Lopez’s (2020) observation of some Ontario schools where she noted “the harsh tone in which some parents were spoken to and the ‘policing’ of primarily Black students” (p. 2). Furthermore, through their analysis of reports from Statistics Canada, Alkholy et al. (2017) explained that First Nations, Metis, and Inuit (FNMI) communities are underrepresented in the fields of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM).”</i>

In the current study, five out of the six papers included backing to support their claims. Although Toulmin (2003) identified backing as an optional element, the fact that five papers

included backing, similar to warrants, may be influenced by the nature of the claims and writers' belief in the sufficiency of the grounds and warrants alone. In other words, some researchers may have felt that the grounds and warrants were sufficiently strong, and further backing is unnecessary (Hyland, 2004). The last essential element of a strong argument is *rebuttal*. The identified rebuttals in this study are represented in the following table:

**Table 21**

*Rebuttals across the data set*

<b>Article Number</b>	<b>Rebuttals</b>
<b>1</b>	<i>No rebuttals</i>
<b>2</b>	<i>No rebuttals</i>
<b>3</b>	<p><i>“While self-study (such as with a professional learning community) may allow educators to contextualize their learning, they are rarely afforded the resources, time, and/or support necessary to ensure success (Barton &amp; Dexter, 2020; Goodnough, 2018; Goodyear, 2016)”.</i></p> <p><i>“Over the last forty years several guidelines have been suggested for crafting effective professional learning in the area of educational technology integration in classrooms. Experiences and interventions created and implemented, however, have been inadequate in generating meaningful and lasting change to classroom teaching practices, and these inadequacies may be inhibiting classroom technology integration.</i></p>
<b>4</b>	<i>“On the other hand, several studies have specified that social media could exert certain adverse effects on students’ psychological health issues, thus affecting their language learning.”</i>
<b>5</b>	<i>No rebuttals</i>
<b>6</b>	<i>No rebuttals</i>

Rebuttals present possibly objections to the claim. Rebuttals are included in argumentation to avoid the question “What if...?” against the claim and to show that the writer knows his/her

argument well enough to know those contradicting occasions and exclude them from the main point (Erduran et al., 2004). As defined, a rebuttal presents an alternative perspective or evidence that contradicts the claim being made, with the purpose of defending the original position or providing a more comprehensive understanding of the topic. The rebuttal enormously contributes to the better quality of arguments because persuasiveness of argument depends on representing rebuttals (Stapleton & Wu, 2015). It also demonstrates a higher-level argumentation capability (Erduran et al., 2004). Despite its significance, rebuttals were not applied in all of these published papers (only the second and fourth studies provided rebuttals). This general absence could indicate that the majority of the papers were one-sided, that is, they seemed to focus only on how to state their claim and to provide relevant justification for it. This might also indicate their lack of awareness about the value of the rebuttals in making their essays more persuasive. It might be due to fact that authors` believed their arguments are so compelling that opposing views were not necessary to address, relying instead on strong evidence and reasoning to persuade the audience (Walton, 1990). In some cases, omitting a rebuttal may reflect the author`s assumption that the audience is already in agreement with the premises or conclusions (Toulmin, 2003). In all, although Erduran et al. (2004) believe that rebuttals enormously contribute to the better quality of arguments and the studies with rebuttals are more persuasive than those without rebuttals, the analysis showed that the studies can still be persuasive without the presence of rebuttals.

#### **4.5 Harris`s (2017) rhetorical moves across the dataset**

Similarly, all the identical moves (adopted from Harris, 2017) from each article were unified into a single table, as shown below:

**Table 22***Coming to terms across the data set*

<b>Article Number</b>	<b>Coming to terms</b>
<b>1</b>	<p><i>“Stemming from the constructivist philosophical ideologies, the concept of self-efficacy evolved from the exploration of self-defining concepts and theories of motivation.”</i></p> <p><i>“Self-efficacy or perceived self-efficacy by Albert Bandura in his 1994 work titled Self-Efficacy defines the term as ‘people’s beliefs about their capabilities to produce designated levels of performance.’”</i></p>
<b>2</b>	<p><i>“For this study, the term queer will be used as an all-encompassing term, and used interchangeably, with the 2SLGBTQIA+ acronym”.</i></p> <p><i>“The term queer is still a colloquial term with many connotations (Barker &amp; Scheele, 2016; G &amp; Zuckerberg, 2019; Gottlieb, 2019; Latchmore &amp; Marple, 2005). Many queer activists use the word queer as an over-arching term for those people who fit perfectly outside of the heterosexual/cisgender/lesbian/gay mainstream (Barker &amp; Scheele, 2016)”.</i></p> <p><i>“The term intersectionality was first coined by Crenshaw in 1989 to explain how Black women were systematically disadvantaged by being both Black and a woman (Crenshaw, 1989; Gottlieb, 2019; Pease, 2010; Sensoy &amp; DiAngelo, 2017)”.</i></p> <p><i>“The term token in this research refers to the 2SLGBTQIA+ person and represents the concept of tokenism (i.e., the rural token may have unspoken job requirements due to their membership in the 2SLGBTQIA+ community)”.</i></p>
<b>3</b>	<i>“It is imperative that within today’s classrooms, technology be readily integrated into teaching practices to help prepare students for the world and digital society they are a part of (Hrastinski, 2008; Johnson, 2020; Prensky, 2001)”.</i>
<b>4</b>	<i>“Platforms like MySpace, Facebook, and later Twitter, Instagram, Google Docs and Skype, Youtube, QQ, WhatsApp,...”</i>
<b>5</b>	<i>“Sometimes referred to as secondary traumatic stress (STS), the term ‘secondary trauma’ was coined by Charles Figley (1995) to indicate ‘the natural consequent behaviors and emotions resulting from knowing about a traumatizing event experienced by a significant other—the stress</i>

The first citation move, known as 'coming to terms', involves defining key terms, concepts, or ideas to establish a foundation for understanding the language and framework of the text (Harris, 2017). This step is essential for clarifying the scope and context of the study, ensuring that readers are aligned with the author's perspective. In the current analysis, most studies employed this move by defining relevant key terms. However, the third study shifting away from this approach by omitting any explicit definitions of terms. This choice may stem from the assumption that the topic of technology is already widely understood and does not require further explanation. Instead, the researcher used the introductory section to the importance of the issue and provide an overview of what readers could expect from the study. This approach not only contextualized the research but also ensured that the focus remained on the study's primary objectives.

In contrast, the final study included definitions of key terms. However, these were overly lengthy and off-topic from the main focus of the research. Such an approach may affect the clarity and impact of the argument, as excessively broad or unrelated definitions can take attention away from the study's central purpose. This highlights the importance of precision and relevance in taking the 'coming to terms' move, ensuring that definitions support, rather than distract from, the primary goals of the research. The second citation move, known as *forwarding*, involves utilizing others' ideas to strengthen or develop the writer's own argument. The analysis of its occurrence in early-career research papers was conducted as follows:

**Table 23***Forwarding across the data set*

<b>Article Number</b>	<b>Forwarding</b>
<b>1</b>	<p><i>“We consider the significant positive correlation between teacher education programs, their contribution towards cultivating efficacious teachers and how they can be influenced (Bandura &amp; Wessels, 1994; Clark &amp; Newberry, 2018)”.</i></p> <p><i>“A study of preservice teachers found that many had concerns about how equipped they were to successfully meet the needs of an inclusive classroom (Loreman, 2010; Specht et al., 2016).</i></p> <p><i>“The curriculum be reformed to “consider [preservice teachers’] theoretical knowledge acquisition and practical skills development while building their confidence to design and implement various assessment strategies” (p. 367).”</i></p>
<b>2</b>	<p><i>“There remains scant literature available in educational and professional research journals that highlight the unique experiences of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community (Waite &amp; Denier, 2019; Warner, 2002; Wells, 2017)”.</i></p> <p><i>“Historical treatment of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community has often been violent, with far fewer reports than accurately represent the portion of the 2SLGBTQIA+ community that has experienced discrimination compared to heterosexual and cisgender populations (Barker &amp; Scheele, 2016; Beauchamp, 2008; Gottlieb, 2019; Nadal et al., 2011; Northen, 2008; Simpson, 2018; Warner, 2002).</i></p>
<b>3</b>	<p><i>“Facilitators of top-down learning approaches...decontextualize materials from the needs, desires, and unique contexts...of those participating (Cheng, 2019; Hall &amp; Trespalacios, 2019; Paulus et al., 2020).”</i></p> <p><i>“Professional learning best practices in the 21st century are lagging behind what is necessary to support educators (Bustamante, 2020; Chen, 2019; Coogle et al., 2021).”</i></p>
<b>4</b>	<p><i>“Platforms like MySpace, Facebook, and later Twitter, Instagram, and others have provided users with spaces to interact, share, and connect with people globally (Greenhow &amp; Lewin, 2016).</i></p>

*“The potential of social media platforms like QQ or WhatsApp can be seen as a useful pedagogical tool for informal language learning, offering flexible, interactive, and accessible means to enhance communicative competence (Mpungose, 2020; Nasution, 2022).”*

*“YouTube provides access to a wide range of videos featuring native speakers engaging in natural conversations with diverse cultures, accents, and dialects, thus allowing users to select the videos that best suit their language learning needs and preferences (Syafiq et al., 2021).”*

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5	<i>The emotional vulnerability and distress caused by [childhood] trauma often accompany students to school (Fowler, 2015), and this can inadvertently impact K-12 educators resulting in the unintended consequence of secondary trauma.</i>
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6	<i>“Lopez’s (2020) observation of some Ontario schools where she noted ‘the harsh tone in which some parents were spoken to and the ‘policing’ of primarily Black students” (p. 2).</i>
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*“Through their analysis of reports from Statistics Canada, Alkholy et al. (2017) explained that First Nations, Metis, and Inuit (FNMI) communities are underrepresented in the fields of Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics (STEM)”.*

*“While physical colonization has been abolished, scholars such as Lopez (2020) argue that the long-lasting impact of colonialism (i.e., colonality) is alive today in the way we think, learn, interact with each other, and the privileges we maintain, which are deeply rooted in the SPE fabric of our societies.”*

As shown in the table, all early-career research articles effectively incorporated others’ ideas to support and extend their arguments. In some articles, this was preceded or followed by the move that adopts a specific approach. This demonstrates their ability to engage with existing literature and use it purposefully within their writing (Graff & Birkenstein, 2021). Such implementation is a key aspect of academic writing, as it allows writers to situate their work within the broader scholarly conversation, build credibility, and provide evidence for their claims (Hyland, 2004). By successfully forwarding others’ ideas, early-career researchers showed their ability in constructing well-founded and persuasive arguments.

The third rhetorical move, *countering*, is summarized in the following table, illustrating how early-career researchers applied this move in their writing.

**Table 24**

*Countering across the data set*

Article Number	Countering
1	<i>No countering</i>
2	<i>No countering</i>
3	<p><i>“While self-study...may allow educators to contextualize their learning, they are rarely afforded the resources, time, and/or support necessary to ensure success.”</i></p> <p><i>“Over the last forty years several guidelines have been suggested for crafting effective professional learning in the area of educational technology integration in classrooms. Experiences and interventions created and implemented, however, have been inadequate in generating meaningful and lasting change to classroom teaching practices, and these inadequacies may be inhibiting classroom technology integration”.</i></p>
4	<i>“On the other hand, several studies have specified that social media could exert certain adverse effects on students’ psychological health issues, thus affecting their language learning. Shu (2023a) found a positive correlation between the problematic use of social media and foreign language anxiety”</i>
5	<i>No countering</i>
6	<i>No countering</i>

Out of the six early-career research articles analyzed, only two included opposing viewpoints or took the countering move. This limited use of countering could be attributed to several factors. First, early-career researchers may prioritize aligning their arguments with established literature to build credibility rather than challenging existing perspectives (Swales, 1990). Additionally, countering requires a high level of confidence and familiarity with the field, which some early-career research articles may not yet possess (Casanave & Li, 2008).

Countering, however, is a critical rhetorical move as it demonstrates a writer's ability to critically engage with opposing ideas, identify gaps, and contribute original perspectives to the scholarly conversation (Swales & Feak, 2012). By not incorporating countering, early-career research articles may miss an opportunity to show their critical thinking skills and establish their unique academic voice (Paltridge & Starfield, 2007). The final move, *taking an approach*, is presented in the last table.

**Table 25**

*Taking an approach across the data set*

Article Number	Taking an approach
1	<i>“Reformation of the curriculum to promote practical skill development has led to greater self-efficacy and teachers who exhibit more willingness to try varying methods to meet the needs of inclusive education (Romi &amp; Leyser, 2006).”</i>
2	<i>“There remain significant gaps in the research literature that centre the voice of minoritized groups, which routinely prioritizes the voices of those that hold more privilege (Pillay, 2020).”</i>
3	<i>“Professional development/learning in the area of classroom technology integration, however, has fallen short in supporting educators’ initial and ongoing integration efforts”.</i>
4	<i>“Social media in general, and Facebook in particular, can influence L2 acquisition.”</i>
5	<i>“Every school staff member who interacts with traumatized children and youth is vulnerable to secondary trauma (Lawson, et al., 2019). If left unaddressed, secondary trauma has the potential to significantly impair an individual’s functioning (Hydon et al., 2015), including one’s professional performance in the school setting, such as the ability to maintain effective relationships with students (Simon et al., 2022).”</i>
6	<i>“To emancipate schools from coloniality, and its negative impact on minoritized students, this paper urges school leaders to view pedagogical and administrative practices through a decolonizing and anti-oppressive lens, enabling them to reimagine and transform education to benefit all students”.</i>

Similar to making a claim, all studies adopted an approach that involved clearly establishing their position on an argument. This was accomplished by either aligning with another author's perspective or by developing their own ideas in response to existing literature (Hyland, 2005). This strategy allows writers to position themselves within the broader academic discourse, demonstrating both an understanding of the field and the ability to contribute to it (Swales, 1990). This move is commonly positioned almost at the end or near the middle of the literature review.

The next sections will examine the role of citation moves in the development of arguments and the argumentative elements and citation moves across the articles, then, compare these elements and moves to identify any alignments between them.

#### **4.6 The role of citation moves in the development of arguments**

In chapter two, it was discussed that Harris (2017) defined a set of strategies, referred to as 'moves' that are designed to simplify the complexities of writing. These moves reflect rhetorical or linguistic patterns frequently observed within particular genres (Badenhorst, 2018). According to Harris (2017), the four essential moves are: Coming to terms, forwarding, countering, and taking an approach. The mentioned citation moves play a fundamental role in shaping arguments within academic writing, particularly in literature reviews (Harwood, 2009). As noted earlier, these moves help researchers engage with existing research, position their work within scholarly discussions, and establish credibility for their claims. Different citation moves contribute uniquely to argument development, with some providing support, others offering critique, and some helping to establish a writer's methodological or theoretical stance (Harris, 2017; Hyland, 1999).

One key citation move is *forwarding*, which involves using previous research to support an argument, extend an idea, or introduce new perspectives. Forwarding provides the foundational grounds for argumentation, allowing writers to demonstrate that their claims are built upon established knowledge (Harris, 2017). By referencing relevant studies, authors strengthen the validity of their argument and show how their work aligns with or builds upon previous research (Hyland, 2000).

In contrast, *countering* functions as a means of rebuttal, enabling writers to challenge existing perspectives, refine arguments, and highlight gaps in previous studies. This move is critical in developing a strong argument as it allows writers to position their work in relation to others, either by offering a critique or presenting an alternative viewpoint (Harris, 2017). Engaging in countering not only strengthens the writer's position but also demonstrates their critical thinking and contribution to ongoing scholarly debates.

Another important citation move is *taking an approach*, which helps establish the writer's claim by adopting a specific theoretical or methodological stance. This move plays a crucial role in argumentation because it frames the study within a particular scholarly tradition and justifies the choice of framework or perspective (Hyland, 1999). By explicitly aligning their work with a particular approach, writers clarify their research focus and demonstrate how their study contributes to the broader academic conversation.

While *coming to terms*—the act of summarizing or paraphrasing sources—is an essential part of engaging with literature, it does not directly contribute to argumentation. Unlike forwarding, countering, or taking an approach, coming to terms primarily serves as an introductory move that helps writers understand existing work rather than actively shaping their argument (Harris, 2017). Without moving beyond summary, this citation move does not play a decisive role in developing

a strong argumentative structure in literature reviews. Overall, the analysis suggests that the moves of forwarding, countering, and taking an approach are structurally interconnected with the argumentative elements of grounds, rebuttal, and claim, respectively.

In summary, citation moves are instrumental in constructing well-developed arguments in academic writing. Forwarding establishes the foundation of an argument, countering refines it through critique, and taking an approach frames the writer's perspective within a specific scholarly discourse. Understanding these moves enables writers to engage more effectively with sources and craft stronger, more persuasive arguments in their literature reviews.

#### **4.7 Comparison of Toulmin's (2003) and Harris's (2017) citation moves**

After identifying and categorizing the elements and moves, I compared and contrasted the two frameworks to explore their alignment.

It was observed that the *Claim* in Toulmin's (2003) model corresponds closely to *Taking an Approach* in Harris's (2017) moves. Both aim to present the main assertion, perspective, or approach to the topic, thereby focusing on stating and shaping the argument. Taking an approach complements and strengthens the claim by situating it within a broader context. As Cialdini (2021) emphasizes, effective arguments often resonate when framed within relatable contexts, as this increases audience engagement and persuasion. For instance, connecting curriculum reformation to teacher self-efficacy not only emphasizes the importance of reform but also present it as a solution to inclusivity challenges. It was also found that *Grounds* in Toulmin's (2003) model align closely with the *Forwarding* move in Harris's (2017) framework. Grounds represent the foundation of an argument, providing evidence, data, or reasons to support the claim. Forwarding, on the other hand, involves building on existing ideas to advance the discussion. This alignment shows that both

elements serve to validate and reinforce the arguments' credibility by demonstrating its connection to established knowledge and ongoing scholarly discourse.

Moreover, *Rebuttals* in Toulmin's (2003) model and *Countering* in Harris's (2017) framework play similar roles, both aiming to tackle and lessen potential weaknesses in an argument. They recognize objections by considering possible challenges, opposing viewpoints or limitations to the claim. This engagement is essential in enhancing the argument's credibility and persuasiveness. For example, addressing the risk of marginalization in inclusive classrooms—such as those raised by Qvortrup and Qvortrup (2018)—demonstrates a deep understanding of the complexities associated with inclusive education. This acknowledgment conveys the audience that the argument is fair and rooted in a realistic understanding of the issue. *Coming to Terms* move, a vital step in Harris's (2017) framework, involves presenting complex concepts with clear definitions to enhance audience engagement and understanding (Hyland, 2005). No direct alignment was found between this move and Toulmin's (2003) argumentation model across the data. However, it contributed to the overall rhetorical effectiveness of the article. In all, this suggests that while Harris's (2017) framework emphasizes conceptual clarity and engagement, Toulmin's (2003) model focuses more on the structural and logical progression of arguments but both frameworks work well together.

In conclusion, Harris's (2017) framework emphasizes conceptual clarity and engagement, while Toulmin's (2003) model focuses more on the structural and logical progression of arguments. Their alignment illustrates how Harris's (2017) citation moves function as tools to refine and enhance the logical structure of Toulmin's (2003) framework. By bridging the rhetorical and argumentative dimensions, these frameworks together provide a comprehensive lens for analyzing and producing persuasive academic writing. The combination of these approaches highlights the

importance of placing claims in practical contexts, supporting arguments with evidence and broader discussions, and addressing counterarguments to preserve credibility and balance.

#### **4.8. Summary**

This chapter provided a detailed examination of the dataset. The following paragraphs elaborate on major findings in relation to the role of arguments in literature reviews, Harris's (2017) moves in literature reviews, and citations in these arguments and literature reviews respectively.

As previously stated, this study focuses on the analysis of argumentation within the literature review sections of published research articles, rather than the entire articles. To this aim, the findings indicate that all early-career researchers demonstrated the ability to construct arguments within this section, effectively supporting their claims with key argumentative components such as grounds, warrants, backing, and qualifiers (Toulmin, 2003). As shown in Tables at 4.4 section, every early-career researcher incorporated grounds and warrants to strengthen their claims. These elements are fundamental to argumentation, as grounds provide evidence, and warrants establish the logical connection between the evidence and the claim (Toulmin, 2003). However, the use of optional elements such as qualifiers and backings was less consistent. While some researchers employed these elements to strengthen their arguments, others omitted them, potentially weakening the depth of their justifications. Regarding rebuttals, only two studies explicitly addressed opposing viewpoints or critiques. This suggests that, in this study, while early-career researchers were proficient in constructing arguments, they were less capable of engaging with counterarguments. The ability to acknowledge and respond to opposing perspectives is a crucial aspect of academic argumentation, as it demonstrates critical thinking and a more

sophisticated engagement with the scholarly conversation (Hyland, 2005). The limited presence of rebuttals indicates that early-career researchers may need further guidance in integrating counterarguments into their literature reviews.

Beyond analyzing argumentation, this study also examined the rhetorical moves of citation within the literature review sections of published research articles. Citations are essential in academic writing as they help authors engage with existing research, establish credibility, and construct arguments (Hyland, 1999; Swales, 1990). The findings revealed that all citation moves—coming to terms, forwarding, taking an approach, and countering—were present in the studies. However, only two out of six studies incorporated countering. This means that most early-career researchers did not actively challenge or critique their own ideas. The limited use of countering is particularly significant, as this citation move plays a crucial role in scholarly argumentation. Countering allows writers to engage critically with existing literature by challenging established perspectives, identifying gaps, or presenting alternative viewpoints (Harris, 2017). Its minimal presence suggests that early-career researchers may prioritize summarizing and integrating sources over directly engaging in debate. Despite the inconsistent use of countering, all studies employed coming to terms, forwarding, and taking an approach to some extent. This suggests that early-career researchers were generally successful in summarizing key ideas (coming to terms), building upon previous research (forwarding), and adopting theoretical or methodological perspectives (taking an approach) (Harris, 2017). However, the order in which these moves appeared varied, reflecting individual rhetorical choices and potential disciplinary differences (Hyland, 2004; Swales, 1990). The variation in citation practices stresses the need for explicit instruction in academic writing to help early-career researchers strengthen their engagement with counterarguments.

In all, a well-constructed argument is essential in literature reviews as it helps clarify the significance of a research study and its contribution to the broader academic discourse (Ridley, 2009). Academic texts do not exist in isolation, rather, they are interconnected with prior research, continuously building upon established knowledge (Bazerman, 2004). As Hyland (2004) notes, scholarly writing is deeply embedded within existing discourse, making citation a fundamental practice in shaping arguments and situating research within the field. Writers must carefully select relevant studies, extract meaningful insights, and integrate authoritative perspectives to construct well-supported arguments (Badenhorst, 2019). The ability to synthesize multiple sources and align them with one's own perspective is a crucial aspect of scholarly argumentation (Hyland, 2004; Hendricks & Quinn, 2000). Citations also serve a persuasive function, reinforcing claims and strengthening the credibility of arguments. Academic writers use citations to provide evidence, validate their claims, and enhance the persuasiveness of their work (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011). By referencing established research, they support their claims, encouraging readers to accept of their findings and viewpoints (Hyland, 1999). The analysis of data in this study revealed that citation played a crucial role in strengthening arguments within literature reviews. In other words, citations were more than just references. They were essential tools for building, supporting, and strengthening arguments in the literature review section. They provided credibility, logical structure, engagement with alternative views, and scholarly positioning, ensuring that arguments are persuasive and well-founded. Effective use of citations transforms a literature review from a summary of past research into an influential scholarly conversation, ultimately enhancing the impact of the study.

In conclusion, the findings of this study highlight several key insights: First, citation moves are instrumental in constructing well-developed arguments in academic writing. While both

frameworks contribute to structuring strong academic arguments, their unique emphases—logical progression in Toulmin’s (2003) model and rhetorical development in Harris’s (2017) framework—complement each other well. Second, early-career academic writers often face challenges in incorporating counterarguments or critical evaluation in their citation practices, preferring agreement to critique (Petrić, 2007). Third, although the inclusion of rebuttals significantly improves the quality of arguments and makes literature reviews more persuasive (Erduran et al., 2004), the analysis showed that the literature reviews can still be persuasive without the presence of rebuttals.

## Chapter five: Conclusion

### 5.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a brief summary of the study and its key findings, discusses their implications, reflects on the limitations of the study and suggests directions for further studies.

Throughout the entire study, it was discussed that constructing a well-developed argument is a crucial element of writing literature reviews for graduate students (Walková & Bradford, 2022). Research indicates that even advanced graduate students often struggle with fundamental argumentation skills (Andrews et al., 2006; Hyytinen et al., 2017, Hyytinen et al., 2021b; Breivik, 2020). One of the key organizational tools to the process of argument construction is citations (Hyland, 2004). Despite the recognized significance of argumentation in graduate literature reviews, many graduates lack a clear understanding of how to use citations to develop and support their arguments. While extensive research has examined the language and rhetorical strategies employed in the literature review (e.g., Hyland, 2004; Kwan, 2006; Swales, 1990), the use of citations within this genre has received comparatively less attention. This gap urges the need to explore how citations are adopted to construct arguments. To address this gap, the present study aimed to explore, how citations (using Harris's, 2017 moves) help graduate students to build arguments in literature reviews of their early-career publications. To this end, six of the most recent papers published by Canadian graduates in the *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education/Revue canadienne des jeunes chercheuses et chercheurs en éducation* (CJNSE/RCJCÉ) were purposively selected for analysis. This research conducted from an academic literacies perspective, which views writing as a social practice. For analysis, the study utilized Toulmin's (2003) model to assess argumentative elements and Harris's moves (2017) to evaluate citation moves in terms of examining how specific moves support arguments. In other words, by integrating

these analytical approaches, the research provided insights into how citations contribute to argument construction and academic positioning in graduate-level writing. The following section highlights the major findings.

## **5.2. Key findings**

This study was set out to determine how early-career researchers use citations to build arguments in their literature reviews. The expectations were assessed according to Toulmin's (2003) argumentative model and Harris's (2017) citation moves. The results revealed that: First, citation moves are instrumental in constructing well-developed arguments in academic writing. While both models contribute to structuring strong academic arguments, their unique emphases—logical progression in Toulmin's (2003) model and rhetorical clarity in Harris's (2017) framework—complement each other well. This finding aligns with Parkinson (2011) and Carter (2023) who discovered that rhetorical strategies play a crucial role in supporting arguments within academic texts. Their research highlights how these practices help structure and convey arguments effectively in academic discourse. Despite Mu (2024) and Mansourizadeh and Ahmed's (2011) findings, the early-career researchers in this study used citations to strengthen their claims and arguments, treating them as supporting evidence to reinforce their research and highlight its importance. The second finding of this study was that early-career academic writers often face challenges in incorporating counterarguments or critical evaluation in their arguments and citation practices (Petrić, 2007). This general absence could indicate a one-sided argument, that is, they seemed to focus only on how to state their claim and to provide relevant justification for it. This might also indicate their lack of awareness about the value of the rebuttals in making their essays more persuasive and credible. Third, although the inclusion of rebuttals significantly enhances the

quality of arguments and makes literature reviews more persuasive (Erduran et al., 2004), the analysis showed that the literature reviews can still be persuasive without the presence of rebuttals.

It should be noted that none of the referenced studies in literature review chapter applied Toulmin's (2003) model or Harris's (2017) citation moves in their analysis of argumentation or citation practices. Additionally, their examination of arguments was conducted in the discussion section of research articles rather than in literature reviews.

### **5.3. 'How early-career researchers use citations to build arguments in their literature review?'**

This study aimed to examine how early-career researchers use citations to construct and strengthen their arguments. Generally speaking, the researcher came to the conclusion that citations play a crucial role in strengthening arguments in academic writing by providing credibility, contextualizing claims, and engaging with scholarly texts. According to the findings, early-career researchers used citations in their literature reviews to establish claims, support arguments with evidence, address counterarguments, and clarify key concepts. These functions align with Toulmin's (2003) model of argumentation and Harris's (2017) citation moves, demonstrating how citations contribute to constructing well-supported and persuasive arguments.

One of the primary ways citations strengthen arguments was by reinforcing claims with authoritative sources. In Toulmin's (2003) model, the *Claim* represents the main argument or position, which must be reinforced by supporting evidence. Harris's (2017) *Taking an Approach* move complements this by framing claims within a broader scholarly conversation. By citing relevant studies, early-career researchers demonstrated that their claims are grounded in existing research, which increases their credibility (Hyland, 2005). This approach not only establishes the

foundation of an argument but also positions the researcher's work within ongoing academic discussions, making the argument more convincing (Swales, 1990).

Furthermore, citations provided the necessary *Grounds* or supporting evidence to validate claims. Toulmin (2003) emphasizes that strong arguments must be built on reliable grounds, which include empirical data, theoretical perspectives, or logical reasoning. Similarly, Harris's (2017) *Forwarding* move highlighted how scholars extend and refine previous research to develop new insights. By incorporating citations, early-career researchers demonstrated that their arguments are rooted in established knowledge, ensuring that their claims are credible and well-supported. This is particularly important in literature reviews, where researchers must synthesize and critically engage with previous studies to justify their research (Kwan, 2006).

Another essential function of citations in strengthening arguments was addressing counterarguments and alternative perspectives. Toulmin's (2003) model includes *Rebuttals*, which account for potential challenges or limitations to an argument. Similarly, Harris's (2017) *Countering* move emphasizes the importance of acknowledging and responding to opposing viewpoints. By engaging with counterarguments through citations, researchers enhance the depth and persuasiveness of their arguments (Bazerman, 2004).

In addition to supporting claims and addressing counterarguments, citations also enhanced conceptual clarity in academic writing. Harris's (2017) *Coming to Terms* move emphasizes the importance of defining key concepts clearly to improve audience understanding. While Toulmin's (2003) model does not explicitly include a corresponding element, clear definitions are essential for constructing logical and persuasive arguments (Hyland, 2005). Early-career researchers used citations to introduce and clarify complex concepts by referencing scholarly sources, ensuring that their arguments are accessible and well-defined. This practice enhanced engagement with the

audience and helps to create shared understanding within the scholarly community (Swales & Feak, 2012).

In conclusion, citations are a fundamental tool for strengthening arguments in academic writing by providing credibility, supporting claims with evidence, engaging with counterarguments, and enhancing conceptual clarity. The alignment between Toulmin's (2003) model and Harris's (2017) citation moves demonstrates how citations function as both argumentative and rhetorical devices that shape scholarly discourse. By strategically incorporating citations, early-career researchers reinforce the credibility of their claims, situate their work within broader academic discussions, and construct persuasive and well-supported arguments.

#### **5.4. Limitations of the study**

Reflecting on the study, there are several aspects the researcher would approach differently if she were to conduct the research again.

First, expanding the sample size by analyzing a greater number of research papers would have been beneficial. A larger dataset could have provided more evidence to confirm the findings and allowed for a more comprehensive understanding of citation practices across different contexts. The current study's limited sample size restricts the generalizability of the conclusions, so including more papers would have strengthened the reliability of the results.

Second, focusing solely on the literature review section of the papers limited the scope of the analysis. If the researcher had examined the argumentation throughout the entire paper, it would have been possible to observe how the frameworks—Toulmin's (2003) argumentation model and Harris's (2017) citation moves—were applied in different sections. This could have revealed, for

instance, whether counterarguments or rebuttals, which may occur outside of the literature review, influenced citation practices or shaped the overall argumentative structure in other parts of the papers.

Third, the study's focus on early-career researchers within a single journal provided valuable insights, but it also restricted the scope. Including papers from journals not specifically devoted to early-career researchers could have provided a broader perspective on how experienced scholars use citations compared to emerging researchers. This would have allowed for a comparison of citation practices across different levels of expertise and highlighted significant differences or similarities in how arguments are built and citations are employed in diverse academic contexts.

By addressing these limitations, future research could offer an even more comprehensive understanding of citation practices and argumentative strategies in graduates' academic writing.

### **5.5. Recommendation for further studies**

The above-mentioned limitations offer several recommendations for future research. First, future studies could expand the scope by examining a wider range of academic genres, such as conference papers, grant proposals, or professional reports, to explore how citation practices and argumentation strategies vary across different types of writing. Second, other studies could consider the impact of authors' linguistic and cultural backgrounds by including students from diverse nationalities and native languages. Understanding how these factors influence argumentation styles and citation practices could reveal important cross-cultural differences in academic writing. Third, future studies could explore how students' writing and citation practices

evolve throughout their academic journey by considering their academic year or level of experience. Tracking changes in students' citation and argumentation techniques over time would provide valuable insights into the development of these skills. Finally, incorporating more varied data sources, such as interviews or surveys with students and faculty, could offer a richer, more holistic view of how citations are used in graduate writing and the challenges students face.

## **5.6. Meta-conclusions**

This study examined how early-career researchers use citations to build and strengthen their arguments in literature reviews, integrating Toulmin's (2003) model of argumentation with Harris's (2017) citation moves. The findings reveal that citations are not merely tools for attribution but play a critical role in shaping scholarly arguments. By analyzing how citations function within argumentative structures, this study offers new insights into the rhetorical and logical dimensions of academic writing. The following meta-conclusions highlight key findings of this research, emphasizing its broader implications for understanding citation practices, literature review construction, and academic writing pedagogy.

First, citations are more than attribution, they are integral to argument construction. The findings of this study highlight that citations serve a far more complex role than merely acknowledging sources. Early-career researchers strategically integrate citations into their literature reviews to build, support, and refine arguments. By aligning Toulmin's (2003) model of argumentation with Harris's (2017) citation moves, this study demonstrates that citations function as rhetorical tools that shape the structure and persuasiveness of scholarly discourse. This suggests that effective citation practices are not just about avoiding plagiarism but about positioning

research within academic conversations, reinforcing claims, and engaging critically with existing knowledge.

Second, the literature review is a key site for argumentation, not just background information. A significant contribution of this study is its focus on literature reviews as spaces where argumentation takes place. Often, literature reviews are seen as summaries of prior research, but this study reveals that early-career researchers use them to actively construct and justify their research positions. The alignment between Toulmin's (2003) model and Harris's (2017) moves in literature reviews suggests that argument-building begins much earlier in a research paper than previously assumed. This challenges conventional views that argumentation is primarily found in discussion or results sections, emphasizing the importance of teaching graduate students how to construct arguments effectively within literature reviews.

Third, integrating argumentation model and citation moves enhances our understanding of academic writing. The study's findings demonstrate the value of combining Toulmin's (2003) argumentation model with Harris's (2017) citation moves to analyze academic writing. While argumentation models traditionally focus on logical reasoning and citation moves emphasize source use, their integration reveals how citations function as argumentative moves. This interdisciplinary approach provides a deeper understanding of citation practices, showing that citations contribute not only to credibility but also to the logical coherence of an argument. This suggests that future academic writing instruction should incorporate both argumentative and rhetorical perspectives to help early-career researchers develop more persuasive and well-supported academic texts.

## 5.7. Summary

This chapter explored how early-career researchers use citations to construct and strengthen arguments in their literature reviews, integrating Toulmin's (2003) model of argumentation and Harris's (2017) citation moves. The analysis revealed that citations serve as more than just references to previous work. They function as essential rhetorical and argumentative tools that shape the logical structure and persuasiveness of scholarly discourse. Through strategic citation practices, early-career researchers position their work within ongoing academic conversations, support their claims with evidence, engage with counterarguments, and establish conceptual clarity.

A key message of this research is that literature reviews are not merely descriptive summaries of existing studies but serve as crucial spaces for argument construction. Early-career researchers use citations not only to demonstrate knowledge of the field but also to develop and justify their research perspectives. The alignment between Toulmin's model and Harris's moves in this context draws attention to the two-sided function of citations in both reinforcing arguments and facilitating engagement with scholarly discourse. This challenges traditional perceptions of citation practices as secondary to argumentation, instead demonstrating that citations actively contribute to the logical progression of academic writing.

Furthermore, this study highlights the value of integrating rhetorical and argumentation models to teach citation practices. By combining these perspectives, this research provides a more comprehensive understanding of how citations contribute to academic argumentation. This insight has important implications for academic writing instruction, suggesting that teaching citation use should extend beyond source attribution to include strategic argument-building techniques.

In sum, this chapter highlights the significance of citations as foundational elements of scholarly argumentation. Understanding how early-career researchers employ citations to construct arguments broaden our comprehension of academic writing practices. Future research expanding on these findings can advance our knowledge of how citation strategies change across disciplines and academic career stages, ultimately contributing to more effective academic writing pedagogy and research development.

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