

The Use of Paraphrase in L2 Writing with Two Factors: L2 Proficiency and Source Text Genre

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This study investigates how different L2 proficiencies (inter-learner variability) and source text genres (intra-learner variability) shape paraphrasing in summary writing, making use of quantitative and qualitative data. The rationales of the present study is 1) to focus on two low proficient groups' paraphrasing, 2) to examine types and strategies of paraphrasing by following modified Keck's (2006) *attempted paraphrase* coding, and 3) to see the effect of three different expository, argumentative, and narrative source text genres on paraphrasing. Forty-four participants were divided in terms of proficiency, 24 novice English proficient (NP) and 20 low English proficient (LP) students. All participants completed three summary tasks giving a total of 132 summary writings used as main data, followed by interviews for each. The results showed that the NP students used significantly more *Exact Copies* and *Near Copies*, while the LP students used significantly more *Moderate Revisions*. The NP students relied on strategy of *Copy*, but the LP students used more *Syntactic Change*. However, the participants significantly used *Exact Copy* when writing with narrative and argumentative texts, and *Near Copy* was found substantially when they paraphrased with expository and argumentative texts. Moreover, expository text substantively influenced students' *Delete & Insert* and *Combination* strategies. The implications from these findings and further suggestions are discussed.

[paraphrase/plagiarism/copy/source text/low proficient English learners/genre/
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I. INTRODUCTION

Successful academic writing in a university setting mostly involves how well writers integrate appropriate information from the source texts into their own writing (Campbell,

1990). This “text-responsible” (Leki & Carson, 1997, p. 41) writing has been performed by students when given allotted assignments, take-home exams, or research papers for a degree. Due to its important and frequent usage in academic environments, various studies about text-responsible writing have been undertaken. Relating to plagiarism, both in L1 (Hale, 1987; McCormick, 1989; Miguel, 1997) and L2 students’ writing (Currie, 1998; Deckert, 1993; Pennycook, 1994, 1996), attention of studies has primarily been paid to inappropriate use of source texts (Keck, 2006; Pecorari, 2003; Shi, 2004). In L1 and L2 writing studies, several reasons of academic cheating or plagiarism have been identified. Due to intention to deceive (Pecorari, 2003), cultural difference (Chandrasoma, Thompson, & Pennycook, 2004; Pennycook, 1996), lack of language proficiency (Howard, 1995), and the different context and purpose of the writing task (Barks & Watts, 2001; Campbell, 1990; Currie, 1998; Shi, 2004), students copy from source texts. Although it is not clear what roles all of these factors exactly affect students’ decision to plagiarism, many researchers in previous studies (Campbell, 1990; Currie, 1998; Howard, 1995) have recommended the teaching of paraphrasing (with or without quotation/citation) as an initial step in text-responsible writing in order to avoid plagiarism. According to Howard’s patchwriting model (1995), on-going developmental writers need to move from the initial copying stage to the real synthesis stage of their own piece of writing based on sources. If inappropriate uses of source texts are seen as an on-going process of writing, guiding and teaching students how to paraphrase appropriately might be more important than simply warning students against copying (Howard, 1995; Shi, 2012).

In addition to finding out the reasons to use the source inappropriately, many other studies have considered L2 proficiency as a crucial factor to control quality of text-responsible writing (Campbell, 1990; Johns & Mayes, 1990). Researchers have thought L1 and L2 writers’ different proficiencies could help to explain why L2 writers tend to rely heavily on copying from source texts compared to L1 writers (Johns & Mayes, 1990; Keck, 2006; Li & Casanave, 2012; Shi, 2004; Weigle & Parker, 2012). There has been a wide assumption that L2 learners may copy the text more than L1 ones. This dependence on copying has been proved through the amount of copied words from the text. For instance, Shi (2004) found that Chinese students extensively copy the phrases or sentences due to their lack of linguistic ability compared to her English speaking students. In a similar vein, within L2 learners, high and low proficient learners’ text-responsible writing has been also investigated. For instance, Johns and Mayes (1990) claimed low proficient L2 students copy directly from the original text rather than high proficient ones. Similarly in a Korean EFL context, low proficient Korean students borrow more words than high proficient students (S. Y. Kim, 2009).

However, most of the studies have compared different proficient levels between L1 and L2 learners (Keck, 2006; Shi, 2004) or high and low proficient groups (e.g., Johns &

Mayes, 1990; S. Y. Kim, 2009). For instance, in S. Y. Kim's (2009) study, three proficiency groups were divided by the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) scores ranged between 300~450, 455~680, and 685~890. Another study by N. Y. Ji (2012) divided all participants into halves with the Test of English Proficiency score (TEPS) developed by Seoul National University widely ranged between 60 and 198 out of a possible 216. None of the studies have focused on only low proficient groups in which students would be expected to suffer in text-responsible writing. Therefore, the present study focuses on how two different low proficient groups, who theoretically more struggle in text-responsible writing, use paraphrasing differently.

In order to investigate paraphrasing, the following questions need to be answered clearly. Do Korean EFL low proficient learners copy exactly the whole sentence or parts of the sentence? Do they combine some parts from two or three sentences in a source text and create a new longer sentence using the same words? Do they change the order of words or change the structure of the sentences when paraphrasing? Is there a clear distinction between appropriate and inappropriate paraphrasing? These questions have not been answered clearly only by counting borrowed words. Therefore, by adopting from the modified Keck's (2006) *attempted paraphrase* coding method, the present study carefully investigates different types of paraphrasing and strategies of paraphrasing (e.g., deleting, adding, word substitution, or syntactic change, etc.) in a Korean EFL context in which a few studies (S. Y. Kim, 2009) only followed different modified versions of this method or which strategies only were investigated (N. Y. Ji, 2012).

As already mentioned above, L2 proficiency has an important role to shaping paraphrasing patterns as an inter-learner variability in text-responsible writing. Bialystok (1978) claimed that "for a particular individual, some aspects of language learning are mastered more easily than are others" (p. 69). This intra-learner variability would also give influence on L2 learners' paraphrasing in summary task. An important inter-learner variability of this task might be source text genres which motivates the investigation of this variable in the present study. Most of summary related studies have not mentioned why they chose a certain genre of text. Argumentative text was used by Keck (2006) and Shi (2004). Campbell (1990) and Johns and Mayes (1990), however, used expository text in their studies. No studies focused on narrative text in summary task even if it is one of the important genres in college students' literary and non-literary texts (Widdowson, 1983). Relating to genres of source text, none of studies conducted has compared different paraphrasing patterns although it would be expected for college students to do in various majors with diverse textbooks or resources. Thus, the present study chose three source text genres (expository, argumentative, and narrative text) as one of independent variables with the other, students' proficiency levels.

In summary, the purpose of this study examines two dependent variables, the types and

strategies of paraphrase in terms of two independent variables, English proficient levels (novice proficient vs. low proficient) and three source text genres (expository vs. argumentative vs. narrative text). Based on these, the present study will address the following two research questions:

- 1) How are the types and strategies of paraphrasing used differently according to two English low proficiency levels?
- 2) How are the types and strategies of paraphrasing used differently according to three source text genres?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Paraphrase and Attempted Paraphrase

Paraphrase is defined as “to repeat something written or spoken using different words, often in a humorous form or in a simpler and shorter form that makes the original meaning clearer” according to the Cambridge Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (2014). Lester (1996) explains the appropriate paraphrase with an example.

Students frequently overuse direct quotation in taking notes, and as a result they overuse quotations in the final research paper. Probably only about 10% of your final manuscript should appear as directly quoted matter. Therefore, you should strive to limit the amount of exact transcribing of source materials while taking notes. (Source text, Lester, 1996, pp. 46-47)

In research papers students often quote excessively, failing to keep quoted material down to a desirable level. Since the problem usually originates during note taking, it is essential to minimize the material recorded verbatim. (Legitimate paraphrase, Lester, 1996, pp. 46-47)

Students often use too many direct quotations when they take notes, resulting in too many of them in the final research paper. In fact, probably only about 10% of the final copy should consist of directly quoted material. So it is important to limit the amount of source material copied while taking notes. (Plagiarized version, Lester, 1996, pp. 46-47)

The legitimate paraphrase contains essential information of three sentences of the source

text by using a writer's own words and syntactic structure. On the other hand, the plagiarized writing contains many strings of words (underlined ones), which are borrowed directly from the source, and follow a similar structure. When comparing both writings, the strings of words used are one of the recognizable differences. Thus, when deciding whether the sentence is paraphrased or plagiarized, consecutive borrowed words from the source text have been used as an important parameter by many researchers (Campbell, 1990; Hood, 2008; Pecorari, 2003; Sherrard, 1986; Shi, 2004).

When judging blurry distinction between appropriate and inappropriate paraphrase, many borrowed words from source text called copying were strongly restricted. However, the question is: how much copying is too much? This vague distinction tends to confuse college students since "their understanding of good paraphrasing is different from that of their professors" (Shi, 2012, p. 135). In Shi's (2004) early study, she made distinctions of two levels of paraphrasing: "closely paraphrased by reformulating syntax or changing wording of the original text" (p. 178) and "total paraphrases" which do not contain "two or three consecutive borrowed words" (pp. 178-179). One step further, another researcher, Keck (2006) developed a new construct idea, *attempted paraphrase*, which is defined as "passages within a student summary which were based upon a specific excerpt of the source text and contained at least one word-level change made to that excerpt" (p. 265). After that, she identified two types of words called *unique links* and *general links*. *Unique links* are borrowed words from source text and *general links* are words relating to the topic of the source text. In terms of proportion of *unique links* in *attempted paraphrases*, all paraphrasing sentences were classified into four types: *Near Copy* (more than 50% *unique links*), *Minimal Revision* (20-49% ones), *Moderate Revision* (1-19%), and *Substantial Revision* (no *unique links*) (p. 268). This coding system considers topic-related words are excluded from borrowed words and all sentences containing borrowed words could be carefully sorted out, so a more precise classification of paraphrasing would be made. For this reason, the present study used *attempted paraphrase* as a basic unit of paraphrasing sentence.

2. Paraphrase and English Proficiency

A number of studies have investigated various factors of copying from source texts in summary writing relating to unintentional, non-prototypical cases of plagiarism (Barker, 1997; Braine, 1995; Crocker & Shaw, 2002; Dong, 1998; Leki, 1992; Shaw, 1991; Sherman, 1992; Spack, 1997). Among many factors, language proficiency would be a determinative factor for students to copy the texts. Howard (1995, 2001) used the term, *patchwriting* to argue that novice writers need support as they learn to write in a new discourse in her next study.

The student doesn't fully understand what she is reading and thus can't frame alternative ways for talking about its ideas. Or the student understands what she is reading but new to the discourse. She merges her voice with that of the source to create a pastiche over which she exercises a new-found control. (Howard, 2001, p. 1)

She argued low language proficiency and the lack of understanding text information and discourse, caused students to rely heavily on the language of their sources. This compensatory strategy has been reported in some studies (Campbell, 1990; Garner & McCaleb, 1985; Johns, 1985; Sherrard, 1986; Shi, 2004) of summary writing.

In L1 writing, Sherrard (1986) matched sentences in the summary to the source text and pointed out those English-speaking undergraduates produced one-to-one replications of the sentences in the original text by deleting other essential sentences. Johns (1985) mentioned that under-prepared native-speaking students omitted entire paragraphs to highlight exciting details. Garner and McCaleb (1985) also found that their L1 students produced large segments of sentence-level replications of the source texts. Even though most native English-speaking students know that copying is regarded as a punishable act (Kroll, 1988; Michaels & Miethe, 1989), they relied on a simple copy-delete strategy (Brown & Day, 1983) due to the low level of their native language.

Relatively lower language-proficient L2 writers have shown more problematic copying in their paraphrasing. Compared with L1 writers, L2 writers copied more words from the text (Campbell, 1990; Keck, 2006; Shi, 2004). Campbell (1990) found L2 undergraduates relied more on copying as their primary method of text integration (p. 225) compared to L1 students due to the factor that language proficiency affects the use of information from the original text in academic writing. Johns and Mayes (1990) compared ESL high and low proficient college students. In their results, the low-proficiency students copied more frequently from the original text rather than the high-proficiency ones. The major difference among high and low ESL students was in the amount of direct copying. Keck (2006) also reported L2 writers were much more dependent on source texts rather than L1 writers by showing that the L2 writers used only 4% of sentences which was written by their own words, while L1 writers used 11% of sentences including no copied words while attempting to paraphrase. Thus, since paraphrasing reflects students' language proficiency level, Hirvela (2004) claimed reading and writing levels of students could be measured by looking at students' paraphrasing in terms of the degree of copying. In this way, language proficiency would be one of the important factors for L2 students to copy or paraphrase appropriately from the source texts.

In Korean EFL context, some paraphrasing studies has been conducted. For example, S. Y. Kim (2009) following modified Keck's (2006) model classified *attempted paraphrase* into much generous forms, referred as *Copy* (more than 90% borrowed words), *Near Copy*

(89-90% ones), *Minimal Revision* (30-59% ones), and *Substantial Revision* (less than 30% ones). In her study, unlike Keck (2006), she did not distinguish borrowed words and topic-related borrowed words. The finding was that proficiency showed consistent pattern on the *Copy-Substantial Revision* continuum although its significance was not always proved. In N. Y. Ji (2012) study, she divided *attempted paraphrase* into six modes called *Exactly Copied* (exactly copied sentence from the source), *Nearly Copied* (nearly copied sentence “by adding or deleting words” (p. 136)), *Lexically Modified* (lexically modified sentence “by using synonym or other parallel expressions” (p. 136)), *Syntactically Modified* (syntactically modified sentence), *Lexically & Syntactically Modified* (lexically and syntactically modified sentence), and *Summarized* (summarized multiple sentences). The result was that there was no significant difference between all six modes of *attempted paraphrase* due to limited occurrence of *attempted paraphrase*, wide range of proficiency groups, and difficult reading material as the source text. However, it showed a general tendency that “syntactic modification is much less used than lexical modification across the differing proficiency groups” (p. 131).

3. Paraphrase and Source Text Genres

Many genre analysts (Hyland, 2004; Johns, 2001; Swales, 1990) have stressed students at high levels of academic writing have familiarity with specific discourse communities so their knowledge and expectations of certain genres or types of reading would help their writing. Understanding various texts helped students acquire textual superstructures (Englert, Stewart, & Hiebert, 1988) in their reading and writing. Superstructures refer to the organization of information at the text level. For instance, argumentative texts contain the reasons or positions for defending based on the subjective judgment; expository texts explain information with definitions, descriptions, cause-effect relationships, or problem-solution; and narrative texts mainly consist of stories with action, event sequences, characters, or circumstances (Mandler & Johnson, 1977). Usually argumentative and expository texts are considered more difficult to write than narrative ones, because they involve logical and coherent reasoning superstructure (Kellogg, 1994; Siegler, 1996). Therefore, knowledge of text genres is crucial for using superstructure of the text when reading and writing.

Murray, Parrish, and Salvatori (1998) claimed that paraphrases are at the threshold of reading and writing since paraphrasing is a process in which reading and writing exists together and interacts while students select and reconstruct sentences from the source texts. Thus, students' previous genre knowledge could help them paraphrase appropriately. Despite the importance of differentiating genres of the source texts in the studies of paraphrasing, however, no scholars have investigated its effect on paraphrasing in the

research. Without conscious distinction between source texts and their different roles in the task, various sources have been used in the following studies about paraphrases.

In spite of text-responsible writing being practically beneficial in working with expository text (Brown, Campione, & Day, 1981; Taylor & Beach, 1984), it has been used in only a limited number of studies (Campbell, 1990; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Pecorari, 2003). For example, Johns and Mayes (1990) used *Water Pollution* in which the author explained the problem and various solutions for water pollution in America. In other studies, one chapter of an anthropology textbook (Campbell, 1990) or graduate students' dissertations (Pecorari, 2003) were employed as expository source texts. Moreover, some researchers (Keck, 2006; Shi, 2004) have used argumentative texts. Shi (2004) used two different argumentative texts with the same topic regarding agreement or disagreement with medical ethics titled, *Physicians can or cannot ethically assist in suicide*. Similarly, two argumentative texts were chosen and used as the original texts titled *Where Have the Children Gone?* and *The Myths of Comparable Worth*. In both studies, authors of the original texts defined concepts, used the concepts to discuss, and tried to show his or her personal thought about the issue. The last different type of source text is narrative texts. Despite none of studies to investigate different ranges of paraphrasing in the narrative text, the present study includes this genre since the narrative text has been shown in various college textbooks, and dealt with one of the important genres of both literary and non-literary texts (Widdowson, 1983, p. 330).

In order to examine Korean EFL college students' paraphrasing, the present study has two independent variables: 1) proficiency level (novice group and low proficient group) and 2) source text genre (expository, argumentative, and narrative texts) and two dependent variables: 1) *Exact Copy* and types of paraphrasing (*Near Copy*, *Minimal Revision*, *Moderate Revision*, and *Substantial Revision*) and 2) strategies of paraphrasing (*Copy*, *Delete & Insert*, *Lexical Change*, *Syntactic Change*, and *Combination*).

III. METHOD

1. Participants

A total of 44 Korean undergraduate students from three English classes at S university in Seoul participated in the study. Most of the participants ($n=42$) were female and the rest ($n=2$) were male, and they consisted of mostly 39 freshmen, 4 juniors and 1 senior. They had had few English text-responsible writing experiences before taking the course while Korean text-responsible writing had experienced through their other college courses. All the participants were taking a university-required English course for one and half hour,

four times a week, and they finished taking the midterm exam at the time of data collection.

The participants were given extra credit for participating in the study. Each participant signed up for a convenient time in one day with an instructor and the researcher and participated in the study. The participants from three classes were from diversified majors including Fine Arts, Piano, Vocal and Food Service Management and Nutrition. All classes were taught by one native English-speaking instructor who had eight years of collegiate teaching experience within Korean universities and various experiences in teaching English speaking and writing courses as well as rating English written tests.

With regard to the proficiency of participants, at first by convenience sampling 24 participants from two classes majoring in arts, piano, and vocal were assigned to one group, and 20 participants from one class majoring in food service management and nutrition were assigned to the other group through 2-month-observation and decision by the instructor who had been teaching all three classes. Then, the two groups' English proficiencies were confirmed depending on English writing sections within the midterm exam questions scored by the American instructor at the college. Two groups were significantly different by independent sample t-test ($t=17.79$, $p<.001$). Lastly, in order to assign specific proficiency level, short in-class writing was rated according to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) writing rubric by the instructor and another native English speaking rater with a greater than 90% agreement consensus, and twenty-four participants were assigned to Novice High proficiency group (Novice group, NP) and twenty participants were assigned to Intermediate Low proficient group (Low group, LP).

2. Source Texts

Three different genres were used as source texts: the expository text (E) titled, *The Comet Shoemaker-Levy 9* containing 176 words chosen from the book, *Longman Introductory Course for the TOEFL test* (Phillips, 2007, p. 348); the argumentative (A) 150-word-text titled, *Dying with Dignity* selected from *Great Paragraphs* (Folse, Muchmore-Vokoun, & Solomon, 2004, p. 147); and the narrative text (N) titled, *Mark Twain* having 151 words selected from the same book (Phillips, 2007, p. 14). The readability level of the expository text was 64.2, argumentative text was 64.6, and the narrative text was 60.3 according to the Flesch-Kincaid Reading Ease Test developed by Flesch (1948).

Three genre texts showed similar length and difficulties for novice to intermediate level learners of English. Before distributing the texts in the class, the topic, language level, and length and readability of the source texts were carefully considered by the researcher and

the instructor of the classes to ensure there would be no language difficulty, unfamiliar vocabulary or grammar, and for content appropriateness.

The three source texts also had typical rhetorical structures of each genre. In the expository text (E), the object is firstly defined, the issue related to the object is explained in chronological order, and then the author gives two effects of the issue (see Appendix A). In the argumentative text (A), the author gives a clear opinion on the issue at first, presents three reasons for it, and then concludes it (see Appendix B). In the narrative text (N), the author introduces one part of a person's life in chronological order (see Appendix C).

3. Procedure and Data Collection

All 44 students divided into two groups were asked to complete three summary tasks with three source texts. In total, 132 summary writings from the Novice group and Low proficient group were written and collected as the main data. Three source texts for summary writing were randomly distributed to each student in different order for eliminating biased results by possible variable of task sequence. By doing this, the possibility of better performance of summary when writing in the last (3rd) time was eliminated. The order of tasks was suggested below in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Order of Source Texts and Tasks

Order of source texts and tasks	No. of NP students (<i>n</i> =24)	No. of LP students (<i>n</i> =20)
EAN	5	3
ENA	3	3
AEN	5	3
ANE	3	2
NEA	3	5
NAE	5	4

Note. E is expository text, A is argumentative text, and N is narrative text (e.g., EAN means summary was written in the order of expository, argumentative, and narrative text.).

In order not to confuse the students, the order of reading the text and summarizing was conducted using different color-coded papers (E for yellow, A for purple, and N for blue) stapled in different order and given to students in the class. Before the tasks, directions were orally explained by the researcher in both English and Korean, and written directions in Korean were also presented in the paper. For the three summary writings, participants were asked to write at least between 7 to 10 lines per summary and one hour was assigned to finish the three summary writing tasks. After the tasks, consultation time for each student was scheduled 2 weeks later. This data is used as the interview material for the secondary data of the study, and for the students as feedback about improvement of their

own English writing and receiving the results of the summary writings.

4. Data Analysis of Paraphrasing

1) Attempted paraphrase

In the analysis of paraphrasing in the summary writing, the sentences written by all students were classified into three areas: 1) *Exact Copy*, 2) *Attempted Paraphrase*, and 3) unrelated sentence. *Exact Copy* was exactly the same sentence having the same length and order of words with the one in the source texts. *Attempted paraphrase* was a sentence in which “a writer selects a specific excerpt of a source text and makes at least one attempt to change the language of the selected excerpt” suggested by Keck (2006). The *attempted paraphrase* was used as a basic unit of analysis to identify paraphrasing and each *attempted paraphrase* was coded with the percentage of borrowed words per sentence. Borrowed words referred to a combination of at least two consecutive content words (noun, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs) with or without functional words from source texts as Shi (2012) used. However, topic or setting-related key words were excluded from the borrowed words in the study since these words were necessarily used in summary writing which follows Keck’s (2006) original classification. Unrelated sentences written by students’ new idea or imagination did not contain any borrowed words from source texts, so they were excluded in the data of this study. In Example 1, borrowed words in an *attempted paraphrase* are underlined.

(1) *Original text*

Finally, people who are dying sometimes lose hope.

Exact Copy

Finally, people who are dying sometimes lose hope.

Attempted paraphrase by a student (#2, in Novice group)

A third reason is that ill people sometimes lose hope for living.

In Example 1, the *Exact Copy* is exactly the same sentence with the source text. The *attempted paraphrase* has 3 borrowed words: “sometimes lose hope”. In this case, three consecutive content words (adverb, verb, and noun) were exactly the same like source text. In contrast, only one content word, like “people” was not counted as borrowed words from source text as Shi (2004) reported at least two content words should be considered as absolute string of borrowed words. Additionally, combinations of one content word plus a

functional word (prepositions, conjunctions, pronouns, auxiliaries, articles) such as “in the” and “use of” were not coded as borrowed words.

(2) *Original text*

A second reason is that staying in the hospital for a long time often causes a financial burden on the families. Terminally ill people often worry about the hardship that this will cause their families.

Attempted paraphrase by a student (#7, in Novice group)

A second reason is that ill people worry about a financial burden on the family.

As seen in Example 2, three strings of words (13 borrowed words: *A second reason is that, ill people, and a financial burden on the family*) were found from syntactically different two sentences in the source text. Borrowed words were counted, although those words were not from one sentence in the text. Since linking several phrases was frequently used in paraphrasing (Johns & Mayes, 1990, p. 257), cut-and-pasted borrowed words from different sentences are considered for this study. Moreover, changes in punctuation, grammatical number, verb tense, and subject-verb agreement were not regarded as word-level change (synonym substitution, deletion or insertion of word, and changing from noun to verb), so the word, “family,” in Example 2, is still included as borrowed words.

2) The types of paraphrase and exact copy

In order to describe the range of *attempted paraphrase* containing a different number of borrowed words, Types of Paraphrasing (Keck, 2006) were used in this study. The percentage of borrowed words within an *attempted paraphrase* was used as criteria to define the four Paraphrase Types, shown in Table 2. After the criteria for the taxonomy were determined, each *attempted paraphrase* was classified into one of four types of paraphrasing. They were later compared with *Exact Copy* which contains 100% of borrowed words without changing or deleting any words. The criteria used to classify each type of paraphrasing is shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2
The Types of Paraphrasing

Types of Paraphrase	Linguistic criteria	Examples
		<i>Excerpt of source text (A)</i>and for some people, this is not life. In the end, government should allow sick people the legal right to end their lives if they want.
<i>Near Copy</i>	More than 50% borrowed words in <i>attempted paraphrase</i>	In conclusion, the government must make <u>sick people the legal right to end their life</u> . (9/15, 60%)
<i>Minimal Revision</i>	20-49% borrowed words in <i>attempted paraphrase</i>	In short, the government should make a rule <u>to end their lives</u> . (4/12, 33%)
<i>Moderate Revision</i>	1-19% borrowed words in <i>attempted paraphrase</i>	As a result, the government decision to make a rule about <u>ending their lives</u> should be formed. (3/17, 18%)
<i>Substantial Revision</i>	No borrowed words in <i>attempted paraphrase</i>	As a result, the government should help patients to decide whether they will be alive or dead by themselves. (0/19, 0%)

Note. Borrowed words in the writing are underlined.

The first Paraphrase Type, *Near Copy*, was defined as an *attempted paraphrase* containing 50% or more of borrowed words. *Near Copies* can be characterized as paraphrase having long strings of words taken from original texts. The second Paraphrase Type, *Minimal Revision*, was defined as an *attempted paraphrase* containing 20-49% of borrowed words. The third Paraphrase Type, *Moderate Revision*, was defined as an *attempted paraphrase* having 1-19% borrowed words. The last Paraphrase Type, which used no borrowed words but only with topic-related key words, was defined as *Substantial Revision* seen in Table 2.

3) The strategies of paraphrase

In order to see how participating students paraphrased the sentences in writing, the researcher observed the strategies of paraphrasing, identifying five different ways or paraphrasing. The criteria used to classify each strategy exist in Table 3.

TABLE 3
The Strategies of Paraphrasing

Strategies of paraphrase	Examples	Excerpts of source texts
<i>Copy</i>	<u>There was some bad luck and some good luck.</u> (#9, in Novice group)	There was some bad luck and some good luck for astronomers on Earth who wanted to see... (E)
<i>Delete & Insert</i>	<u>One reason the government because people should not be forced to continue living if they are in severe pain and cannot live with it.</u> (#19, in Novice group)	One reason the government should do this is because people should not be forced to continue living if they are in severe pain and cannot live with it. (A)
<i>Lexical Change</i>	The comet which was called Shoemaker-Levy 9 <u>came too close to</u> the planet Jupiter in 1992. (#6, in Low group)	The comet, which was named Shoemaker-Levy 9, came too close to the planet Jupiter in 1992. (E)
<i>Syntactic Change</i>	Mark Twain was a writer and inventor. (#6, in Low group)	From the start of his career as a writer, Mark Twain was fascinated with inventions. (N)
<i>Combination</i>	In 1887, he spent <u>most of his money</u> for Paige typesetting machine. (#9, in Low group)	By 1887, the forty-nine-year-old author has invested most of his money on one project, the Paige typesetting machine. (N)

Note. Borrowed words in the writing are underlined.

The first strategy of paraphrase, *Copy*, was defined as the way of paraphrasing in which 100% of words were used from the part of the sentence in the source text without any other grammatical, lexical, or word order change. Its difference with *Exact Copy* is shown in Example 1. The string of 9 words (“There was some bad luck and some good luck”) was exactly the same as the part in the excerpt of the source text, but the writer did not write the whole sentence in the exactly same way, which is referred as *Exact Copy*. *Copy* strategy is the easiest and the most inappropriate way of strategies since it does not have any new form of lexical and syntactic structure.

The second strategy of paraphrase, *Delete & Insert*, was defined as the way of paraphrasing in which 100% of words were used from the source text while deleting part of the phrases or/and inserting parts of phrases from other sentences in the source text. When an *attempted paraphrase* compared in examples and the excerpt of source text in Table 3, “should do this is” in source text was deleted when making a paraphrase. Even though parts of phrases were cut-and-pasted, none of new words were made by the student. In this way, *Delete & Insert* is also inappropriate way of strategies.

The third strategy of paraphrase, *Lexical Change*, was defined as the way of paraphrasing in which words or phrases were replaced by other words (synonyms) or other phrases having similar meaning without altering the syntactic structure. Unlike the above two strategies, students’ own words were used in this way. In Table 3, the word, “named”

was replaced by “called” when making a paraphrase while sentence structure was still the same between the source text and a paraphrasing sentence. Students mostly changed lexical items with synonym of words (e.g., cause → result in, serious → severe, medicide → euthanasia etc.) or other phrases (e.g., as a result → so, in the end → therefore etc.). *Lexical change* from noun to pronoun or vice versa (e.g., he → Mark Twain, astronomers → they etc.) was also often used in this strategy.

The fourth strategy of paraphrase, *Syntactic Change*, was defined as the way of paraphrasing in which the syntactic structure of the sentence was changed by changing the order of phrases or using new structures of sentences. As shown in Table 3, sentence was syntactically modified by the student although she used key words from the source text (“Mark Twain”). When trying to change syntactic structure, newly introduced words were also used. This strategy can be characterized as the most challenging strategy of paraphrasing since students needed to control parts of the grammar and vocabulary.

The last strategy of paraphrase, *Combination*, was defined as the way of paraphrasing in which two or three strategies, among three (*Delete & Insert*, *Lexical Change*, and *Syntactic Change*), were used together. In Table 3, *Lexical Change* (By → In, the forty-nine-year-old author → he, has invested → spent) and *Delete & Insert* (deletion of phrase, “on one project”) were used together by the student. Most participants using *Combination* used both *Delete & Insert* and the other strategy(s).

4) Comparison of different proficiency groups and different source text genres

Once the types of paraphrase and strategies of paraphrase were set, 72 summary writings of novice English proficiency (NP) students and 60 summary writings of intermediate low English proficiency (LP) students were compared in terms of proficiency. Additionally, 132 summary writing consisting of 44 expository, 44 argumentative, and 44 narrative texts were also compared in terms of source text genres. To test significant differences between two English levels, two sample t-tests were used. Among three source text genres, one-way ANOVA and multiple comparison were also used with alpha set at .05.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. Paraphrase and Proficiency

In a total of 649 *attempted paraphrases*, every *attempted paraphrase* was classified into four Paraphrase Types that are *Near Copy*, *Minimal Revision*, *Moderate Revision*, and *Substantial Revision*. With these four types of paraphrase, *Exact Copy* was also compared

in Table 4 and its examples written by the participants were in above Table 2.

TABLE 4
Exact Copy and Paraphrase Types by Proficiency

Types	NP students	LP students	NP vs. LP		
			NP vs. LP	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Exact Copy</i> [#]	83	17	NP	-3.43**	0.002
<i>Near Copy</i> [#]	244	158	NP	-2.67*	0.011
<i>Minimal Revision</i>	59	68	LP	1.47	0.150
<i>Moderate Revision</i>	5	17	LP	2.17*	0.040
<i>Substantial Revision</i>	33	65	LP	1.76	0.087
TS	424	325			

Note. statistically significant (* $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$); TS means total number of sentences (*Exact Copy* + total number of attempted paraphrase); [#] inappropriate copied sentence and paraphrasing types.

When seeing the Novice group and Low group, *attempted paraphrases* ranged from *Near Copy* and *Substantial Revision* in the both groups were more frequently used than *Exact Copies*. Three hundred forty one *attempted paraphrases* written by NP students and 308 *attempted paraphrases* written by LP students were found, while 83 *Exact Copies* of 479 sentences by NP students and only 17 *Exact Copies* of 442 sentences by LP students were found. Table 5 displays the comparison of the Novice and Low groups in terms of *Exact Copy* and four Paraphrase Types by two sample t-test.

Considering the mean percentage of borrowed words for NP students was higher than that of LP students, a great number of NP students' paraphrases were classified into *Near Copy*. NP students used significantly more *Exact Copies* ($t = -3.43$, $p < .01$) and *Near Copies* ($t = -2.67$, $p < .05$) than LP students. Almost 68.3% (327/479) of written sentences were either *Exact Copies* or *Near Copies* in the Novice group, while LP students only used 39.6% (175/442) of *Exact Copies* and *Near Copies* of written sentences. When summarizing the text, NP students exactly copied the whole sentences or they chose *Near Copy* which contained more than 50% of borrowed words from the source texts. However, LP students used significantly more *Moderate Revisions* ($t = 2.17$, $p < .05$) than NP students. When summarizing the text, LP students used much less borrowed words ranged between 1 to 19 percent from the source texts. Thus, generally NP students used more *Exact Copies* and *Near Copies* which were regarded as inappropriate forms of sentences, while LP students used more *Minimal Revisions*, *Moderate Revisions*, and *Substantial Revision* even if there was no significant difference in *Minimal* and *Substantial Revision*. Figure 1 shows general tendency of NP and LP students' use of *Exact Copies* and four paraphrase types.

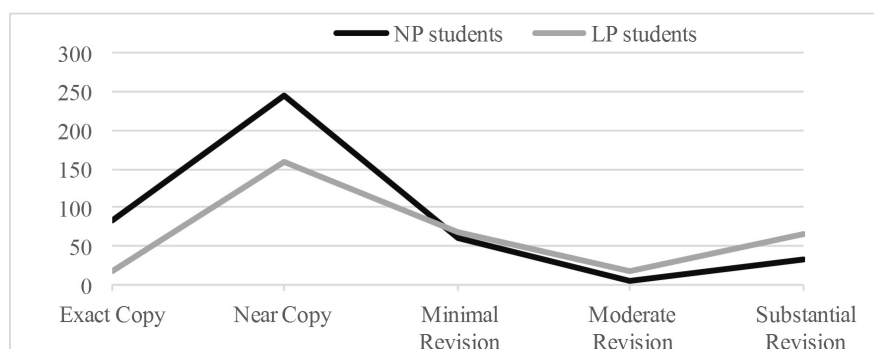


FIGURE 1 Comparison of Exact Copy and Four Paraphrase Types between NP and LP

These findings suggest that students' language proficiency influences students' choice in the type of paraphrases, which means the reliance of words in source texts differs according to students' English levels. As others (Currie, 1998; Johns & Mayes, 1990; Keck, 2006; Shi, 2004) have suggested, language proficiency plays a role in students' decisions to copy words, phrases, or even whole sentences from source texts. Thus, the reason NP students' use more *Exact Copies* and *Near Copy* paraphrases was correlated due to their lack of linguistic resources needed to do so. This is correlated to other studies. For instance, Johns and Mayes (1990) also found relatively low proficient students frequently copied directly rather than high proficient ones. For LP students, although they used various types of paraphrase, the use of *Exact Copies* or *Near Copies* should be discouraged by teachers and the change from left column (*Exact Copy* + *Near Copies*) to right column (*Moderate Revision* + *Substantial Revision*) as shown in Figure 1 is needed to use appropriate paraphrasing in text-responsible writing.

Additionally, in a total of 649 *attempted paraphrases*, every *attempted paraphrase* was classified into the five strategies of paraphrase: *Copy*, *Delete & Insert*, *Lexical Change*, *Syntactic Change*, and *Combination*. Table 5 displays each strategy of *attempted paraphrases* and its examples written by the participants were in above Table 3.

TABLE 5
The Strategies of Paraphrase by Proficiency

Strategies	NP students	LP students	NP vs. LP		
			NP vs. LP	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Copy</i> [#]	116	36	NP	-2.98**	0.005
<i>Delete & Insert</i> [#]	43	31	NP	-0.94	0.532
<i>Lexical Change</i>	23	24	LP	0.44	0.660
<i>Syntactic Change</i>	105	162	LP	2.83**	0.007
<i>Combination</i>	54	55	LP	1.07	0.289

Note. statistically significant (** $p < .01$); [#] inappropriate paraphrasing strategies.

When the Novice group and Low group are compared, among 341 *attempted paraphrases* by NP students, they wrote 116 paraphrases with *Copy*, 43 with *Delete & Insert*, 23 with *Lexical Change*, 105 with *Syntactic Change*, and 54 with *Combination*. In contrast, LP students' 308 *attempted paraphrases* consist of 36 paraphrases with *Copy*, 31 with *Delete & Insert*, 24, with *Lexical Change*, 162 with *Syntactic Change*, and 55 with *Combination*. It also shows relative group's tendency for each strategy and its statistical significance. The Novice group used more *Copy* and *Delete & Insert* strategies while the Low group used more *Lexical Change*, *Syntactic Change*, and *Combination*. The Novice group relied more on strategy of *Copy* ($t=-2.98, p<.01$) when paraphrasing, but the Low group used more strategy of *Syntactic Change* ($t=2.83, p<.01$), supported by significant differences in the t-test.

According to interviews with NP and LP students, a majority of NP students had difficulty in understanding texts and finding synonyms for words in texts and grammatical problems to create new sentences. This linguistic difficulty forces NP students to "copy" a lot of sentences, which results in plagiarized writing. NP students' lack of confidence leads to over-dependence on the words and syntactic structure of source texts. This is a reason LP students heavily chose *Copy* or *Delete & Insert* strategies which do not need to change vocabulary or syntactic structure. In Brown and Day's study (1983), copy-and-delete strategy is also mainly used by novice writers.

On the other hand, LP students' preferable *Syntactic Change* strategy demonstrates they used a better way than *Copy* or *Delete & Insert*. Compared with NP students, LP students minimized copying strategies, clearly as the frequent usage of *Lexical Change*, *Syntactic Change*, or *Combination* demonstrates their awareness of plagiarism. However, in terms of the interview, most NP students felt difficulty in condensing a passage to a shorter length than original sources, selecting important sentences or deleting detailed sentences, and trying to choose their own words in diversity when summarizing.

2. Paraphrase and Text Genres

Comparisons of the source text genres (expository, argumentative, and narrative texts) presented in Table 6, the number of *Exact Copy* and four paraphrase types were different according to text genres. Their statistic difference is shown in Table 7.

TABLE 6
Exact Copy and Paraphrase Types by Text Genre

Types	Expository	Argumentative	Narrative
<i>Exact Copy</i> [#]	6	40	54
<i>Near Copy</i> [#]	162	113	127
<i>Minimal Revision</i>	46	38	43
<i>Moderate Revision</i>	5	13	4
<i>Substantial Revision</i>	46	16	36
Total	259	180	210

Note: Total = total number of attempted paraphrases (*Near Copy* + *Minimal Revision* + *Moderate Revision* + *Substantial Revision*); [#] inappropriate copied sentence and paraphrasing types.

TABLE 7
Exact Copy and Paraphrase Types by Text Genre: Statistics

Types	Most used	Least used	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Exact Copy</i> [#]	Nar, Arg	Expo	8.20 ^{***}	0.000
<i>Near Copy</i> [#]	Expo, Arg	Nar	8.17 ^{***}	0.001
<i>Minimal Revision</i>	Expo, Nar, Arg		0.40	0.671
<i>Moderate Revision</i>	Arg, Expo, Nar		2.33	0.102
<i>Substantial Revision</i>	Expo, Nar, Arg		3.04	0.051

Note: statistically significant (^{***} $p < .001$); Expo is expository source text, Arg is argumentative source text, and Nar is narrative source text. Among three listed source texts, left one was used a lot in comparison to the right one.

Exact Copies ($F=8.20$, $p<.001$) and *Near Copies* ($F=8.17$, $p<.001$) show significant differences between source text genres. In *Exact Copies*, students' copying from the narrative source text and argumentative text was similarly used a lot, but copying from the expository source text was very rare. When paraphrasing, *Near Copies* from the expository texts and argumentative were similarly frequent, while *Near Copies* from the narrative source showed meaningful differences with the two genres. From *Minimal Revision* to *Substantial Revision*, three genres did not show significance. Thus, source text genres may influence on *Exact Copy* and *Near Copy*.

Since *Exact Copy* contains 100% borrowed words and the expository text has a lot of topic-relating words, even if students copied large strings of words, it could not be classified into *Exact Copies* because of the use of topic-relating words. Thus, the use of topic-relating words suggest the reasoning for the low percentage of *Exact Copies* from the expository text. In addition, according to interviews of 18 students who participated in the study, most students responded that the narrative text was easily read and understood well, so they considered paraphrasing from the narrative text was relatively easier than the other two texts. It is suggestive as to why the percentage of *Near Copies* from the narrative text ranks lower than that of the other two texts when paraphrasing. An interesting point is

although the readability level of the narrative text was slightly more difficult than the others, the participants reported that the narrative text was easier to process, suggesting correlation in the narrative text's genre familiarity. It is consistent with some researchers' (Applebee, 1986; Britton, Burgess, Martin, McLeod, & Rosen, 1975; Crowhurst & Piche, 1979; Keech, 1984; Kellogg, 1994; Siegler, 1996) findings that expository and argumentative texts are considered more difficult to write than narrative ones because of logical and coherent reasoning structures.

When the source text genres (expository, argumentative, and narrative texts) are compared, strategies of paraphrasing are shown in Table 8. Their statistic difference is presented in Table 9.

TABLE 8
The Strategies of Paraphrase by Text Genre

Strategies	Expository	Argumentative	Narrative
<i>Copy</i> [#]	62	35	55
<i>Delete & Insert</i> [#]	43	15	16
<i>Lexical Change</i>	7	17	23
<i>Syntactic Change</i>	95	87	85
<i>Combination</i>	52	26	31
Total	259	180	210

Note: Total = total number of attempted paraphrases (*Copy* + *Delete & Insert* + *Lexical Change* + *Syntactic Change* + *Combination*); [#] inappropriate paraphrasing strategies.

TABLE 9
The Strategies of Paraphrase by Text Genre: Statistics

Strategies	Most used	Least used	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Copy</i> [#]	Expo, Nar, Arg		1.37	0.257
<i>Delete & Insert</i> [#]	Expo	Nar, Arg	10.32***	0.000
<i>Lexical Change</i>	Nar, Arg, Expo		2.18	0.118
<i>Syntactic Change</i>	Expo, Arg, Nar		1.39	0.252
<i>Combination</i>	Expo	Nar, Arg	5.72**	0.004

Note: statistically significant (** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$); Expo is expository source text, Arg is argumentative source text, and Nar is narrative source text. Among three listed source texts, left one was used a lot in comparison to the right one.

The source text genres influence two different strategies, *Delete & Insert* ($t=10.32$, $p < .001$) and *Combination* ($t=5.72$, $p < .01$) substantially. It means students used more *Delete & Insert* and *Combination* strategy when they made paraphrases from expository text rather than they did from argumentative or narrative text. However, paraphrases from the three source texts show similar usage in the other three strategies, *Copy*, *Lexical Change*, and *Syntactic Change*. One of inappropriate strategies, *Copy* is widely used regardless of

source text genres. Relatively challenging strategies, *Lexical Change* and *Syntactic Change* rather than the others are also used similarly in all the three source text genres.

These results are different to proficiency influencing the strategies of paraphrase. Previously, along the students' increasing proficiency level, their strategies of paraphrases moves from inappropriate and less challenging to appropriate and challenging ones. However, in the source text genre case, the difficulties of strategies would not be shaped by the source text genres, but two strategies, *Delete & Insert* and *Combination*, which is mixed form of *Delete & Insert* and other strategies, are influenced by expository source text. It corresponds to the interviews that most students felt expository text-based writing was the most difficult to read, understand, and write. This perceptual difficulty would make the learners cut and paste some parts of words and create new paraphrasing sentences. In addition to perceptual difficulties, students in the study mentioned that they had had long-time experiences writing with cut-and-paste strategy when doing assignments with internet resources or major-related textbooks. These resources are mainly expository text giving information, so their habitual text-responsible writing from expository texts might lead them to use *Delete & Insert* and *Combination* strategies most frequently compared to argumentative and narrative texts.

V. CONCLUSION

This study investigated how Korean EFL learners' proficiency and source text genres shape paraphrasing in summary task. The following is a brief summarization of the research findings: 1) The NP students used significantly more *Exact Copies* and *Near Copies* than the LP students. The NP students exactly copied the whole sentences or almost copied sentences when paraphrasing. However, the LP students used significantly more *Moderate Revisions*. The LP students significantly made paraphrasing sentences only containing 1-19% of borrowed words. 2) When looking at strategies of paraphrasing, the NP students relied on the strategy of *Copy*, while the LP students used more frequently the strategy of *Syntactic Change*. Thus, learner proficiency influences paraphrase types and strategies by moving from inappropriate types or strategies to appropriate ones. 3) The participants significantly used *Exact Copy* when writing with narrative and argumentative texts, and *Near Copy* was found significantly when they paraphrased with expository and argumentative texts. 4) Expository text significantly influenced students' *Delete & Insert* and *Combination* strategies.

The findings bring two important implications for administrators and teachers who are concerned about textual plagiarism. First, L2 learners' inappropriate paraphrasing should be regarded as a widespread initial copying strategy before moving toward real synthesis

stage of their own piece of writing as independent writers. Instead of seeing patchwriting as an intentional cheating, it should be seen as a developmental initial action of text-responsible writing. As Pecorari (2003) suggested, the atmosphere of suspicion and concerns about source use is not conducive to a students' learning process. Thus, teachers need to reconsider the concept of plagiarism and show awareness of the students' ongoing process and strategies of source text uses in writing. Inappropriate paraphrasing may not only be a necessary stage in the development of academic writing, but it indicates novice levels of writing. This awareness is a prerequisite step to teaching paraphrasing. Secondly, for teaching paraphrasing and helping students to avoid plagiarism, several pedagogical points should be considered. In terms of interviews with students even if they knew avoidance of copying was necessary, specific guidelines in real writing such as the restricted number of borrowed words per a sentence or improper strategy of paraphrasing, were unclear between L2 learners. Based on students' specific needs (S. Yun, 2012), teachers need to give clear standards of plagiarized sentences and paragraphs. Additionally, depending on different proficient L2 learners, the teaching focus should be different. Low proficient learners may need to learn synonym for replacing borrowed words or practice of changing simple syntactic structure, while relative higher proficient learners may need to learn reconstruction of complex syntactic sentence or condensing a passage into a shorter one in text-responsible writing. As L2 learners' proficiency moves along the continuum, the percentage of borrowed words in a sentence needs to decrease and L2 learners' strategies of paraphrasing should be taught to move from simple copy or delete & insert to challenging ones, lexical change or syntactic change. Additionally, college learners' perceptual difficulties or habitual experiences of writing based on expository texts need to be reconsidered by teachers and scholars. Teachers need to know how to design text-responsible writing assignments in college and keep track on learners' writing process.

It is hoped that the present study can enlarge our understanding of paraphrase through examining the types and strategies of paraphrase in real students' text-responsible writing. As a researcher or instructor, when looking at students' unacceptable copying or inappropriate paraphrases as an on-going stage of the developmental L2 writing system, the use of paraphrase can be examined more carefully, and treated with pedagogical efforts. Through these efforts, students could become academically confident and relevant writers in real world situations.

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APPENDIX A

Expository source text (E): The Comet Shoemaker-Levy 9

In the 1990s, a comet had an overly close encounter with the planet Jupiter. The comet, which was named Shoemaker-Levy 9, came too close to the planet Jupiter in 1992. As a result, Jupiter's powerful gravity caused the comet to break into pieces. The number of pieces was actually 21. Two years later, in 1994, the pieces of the comet crashed into Jupiter and caused huge explosions. There was some bad luck and some good luck for astronomers on Earth who wanted to see the explosions when the fragments of the comet hit Jupiter. The bad luck was that the comet pieces hit the side of Jupiter that astronomers on Earth could not see. There was some better luck when the spacecraft *Galileo* was on the far side of Jupiter and sent images of the explosion back to astronomers on Earth. In addition, as Jupiter rotated after the explosions, astronomers were able to look through telescopes and see the areas on Jupiter that the pieces of the comet had hit and see the damage caused by them.

APPENDIX B

Argumentative source text (A): Dying with Dignity

The U.S. government should support the legal use of medicide, which happens when people with

terminal diseases choose to end their lives rather than continue living. One reason the government should do this is because people should not be forced to continue living if they are in severe pain and cannot live with it. A second reason is that staying in the hospital for a long time often causes a financial burden on the family. Terminally ill people often worry about the hardship that this will cause their families. Finally, people who are dying sometimes lose hope. Even if they are alive, they can often only lie in bed, and for some people, this is not life. In the end, while many people believe that medicide is an unnatural way to die and should remain illegal, the government should allow sick people the legal right to end their lives if they want.

APPENDIX C

Narrative source text (N): Mark Twain

From the start of his career as a writer, Mark Twain was fascinated with inventions. As a result, he chose to spend much of his available income on various inventions, generally without much success. In fact, he lost a lot of the money he invested. By 1887, the forty-nine-year-old author had invested most of his money on one project, the Paige typesetting machine. Twain expected the Paige machine to be completed in 1889. Unfortunately, the machine was never completely finished, and by the early 1890s, Twain knew he was in a serious financial situation. He worked hard to take care of his problems by producing a number of books in a row. He wrote *A Connecticut Yankee in King Arthur's Court* (1892), *An American Claimant* (1892), *Tom Sawyer Abroad* (1893), and *Pudd'nhead Wilson* (1894). However, all of this work did not solve his financial problems, and he was forced to declare bankruptcy.

Examples: English

Applicable Languages: English

Applicable Levels: Tertiary

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